

Perceptions of Leadership across Cultures

A Study of French and German Managers and their Employees in both their Domestic and Host Environments

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DECLARATION

I hereby certify that this material, which I now submit for assessment on the programme of study leading to the award of Doctor of Philosophy is entirely my own work, that I have exercised reasonable care to ensure that the work is original, and does not to the best of my knowledge breach any law of copyright, and has not been taken from the work of others save and to the extent that such work has been cited and acknowledged within the text of my work.

Signed:  Annegret Jennewein

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Date: 8th September 2012

DEDICATION

To Valentin, my nephew

~

Who, as this thesis, was at first an idea
That has now become a beautiful reality

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ABSTRACT

The phenomenon of globalisation has contributed greatly to the increasing interest in investigating cross-cultural leadership in recent years (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009). To date cross-cultural leadership research has mainly involved comparative studies between countries at manager level (e.g. House et al., 2004) and has focused on potential cultural effects on leadership styles. The aim of this cross-cultural study is to address the gap of neglecting employees' views on leadership by investigating leadership perceptions both from the perspective of managers and employees in their domestic and host environments.

This study explores leadership perceptions in the specific context of France and Germany, using a mixed methods approach. Based on implicit leadership theories and connectionist theory (Hanges et al., 2006; Lord et al., 2001), the similarities and differences that exist between the structure and the content of cognitive leadership schemas of French and German managers and employees regarding their perceptions of effective leadership are compared.

This study shows that the application of connectionist theory to the field of cross-cultural leadership research provides a meaningful lens to investigate the relationship between culture and leadership. It found that despite the spread of globalisation and an often assumed concomitant convergence of cultures, differences in the approaches to leadership in a French and German business context still persist and should, therefore, be considered by companies planning foreign operations or secondments.

CHAPTER I

OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

1.1 Introduction

The growing interest in analysing the assumed link between the concepts of leadership and societal culture is largely due to the globalisation of organisations (Yukl, 2010). Widespread globalisation has given rise to interactions involving the exchange of goods and services across multiple national and cultural contexts, as well as an increase in people working in multinational companies (Moore et al., 2008). The phenomenon of the multicultural workforce presents business leaders with new challenges (Yukl, 2010). One such challenge requires leaders to work in very diverse work environments, such as across different cultures (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009).

The growth of globalisation has given rise to a focus on cross-cultural issues in the leadership literature and in the wider field of organisational behaviour in recent years (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009). Research in this area focuses on investigating similarities and differences in leadership across cultural contexts (Gelfand, Erez and Aycan, 2007) and is characterised by two major approaches: the universal versus the cultural perspective on leadership (e.g. Adler and Bartholomew, 1992; Child, 1981; Kumar, 1988; Steinmann and Scherer, 1998; von Keller, 1981). The universal approach negates cultural influences on leadership behaviour. In contrast, the cultural approach assumes that culture impacts on leadership styles. The latter approach, which is also termed the culturalist view, is strongly supported by Adler and Bartholomew (1992). Over 90 per cent of the more than 28,000 articles which were considered in their review underlined that culture impacts on organisational behaviour.

Following this trend, a major contribution to understanding cross-cultural leadership has been made in recent years through the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004), which, based on empirical data collected in the mid-1990s, explored leadership style preferences across more than 60 different countries. Its findings suggest that although there are some similarities across nationalities, culture has an important influence on the leadership styles adopted. Thus, implicit leadership theories, which describe the phenomenon that most individuals have a specific view in their minds of what effective leaders do (Offermann, Kennedy and Wirtz, 1994; Schyns and Schilling, 2011), have been developed further to take account of this cultural influence (House et al., 2004).

This present study follows the culturalist view on leadership, and investigates the topic of cross-cultural leadership taking the example of France and Germany.

1.2 The Objectives of the Study

The overall purpose of the present study is to investigate perceptions of leadership across cultures and to contribute to knowledge about this topic in a theoretical, empirical and practical way. The study will contribute to the discussion about societal culture and its potential influence on leadership, in particular to the debate on the convergence and divergence of societal cultures. The study focuses on managers and employees in a French and German business context.

From a theoretical perspective, the study will focus on the analysis of the structure of cognitive leadership schemas by applying connectionist theory in a business context in two societal cultures (cf. Hanges et al., 2006). Connectionist theory is a possible approach to explain human information processing and was originally discussed in the discipline of cognitive science (Stillings et al., 1995). Cognitive

schemas can be represented by connectionist models. In the case of leadership research, these models can provide the basis for explaining implicit leadership theories (ILTs) and contribute to the understanding of the process of leadership perception. ILTs describe the phenomenon that most individuals have a specific picture, or a cognitive structure, of the nature of leaders and leadership in their mind (Schyns and Schilling, 2011). What is interesting about these schemas is that they are influenced by an individual's cultural background (House et al., 2004). Only a small number of studies have applied connectionist models to analyse leadership in a cross-cultural context (Hanges et al., 2006; Hanges et al., 2001; Hanges, Lim and Duan, 2004). Hence, the present study is expected to develop further the discussion about the application of connectionist models to research on cross-cultural leadership. It will explore the potential influence of societal culture on the content of leadership schemas as hypothesised by Shaw (1990) and contribute to what is known about the composition of the content of these schemas.

From an empirical perspective, previous research which has applied connectionist theory to investigate cross-cultural leadership has primarily used student samples (cf. Hanges et al., 2001). The use of a professional sample in the present study, therefore, represents an important empirical contribution. The study will attempt to counter the criticism of leadership research as being too leader-centric, by considering managers as well as employees. It is the first French-German study of leadership which includes French and German managers and their employees in both their domestic and host settings. It will do this by using a mixed methods design which includes both qualitative and quantitative research instruments. By adopting a mixed methods approach to cross-cultural leadership research, the study seeks to address a gap in the prior literature in this area which is mostly quantitative. Hence, this study embraces the

call for a more open and questioning approach, and the call for more in-depth qualitative research in the area of cross-cultural leadership (Alvesson and Sveningsson, 2003; Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009).

Finally, from a practical point of view, the specific focus within this study is on the two societal cultural contexts of France and Germany and provides new and important insights into what is already known about the perception of leadership in these two countries. It is expected that its findings will identify practical implications for those working in a multinational work environment, specifically in a French-German business context. These practical implications are expected to provide advice about the usefulness of raising the awareness of implicit leadership theories in employee development interventions. Practical implications in the context of French and German co-operation are expected to include suggestions which may help avoid potential areas of conflict between French and German companies in their business interactions.

1.3 The Research Rationale

The phenomenon of globalisation has contributed, and still continues to contribute to the increasing interest in investigating cross-cultural leadership during recent years (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009). More precisely, this growing interest is based on the consequences of globalisation for organisations which include, for example, managers being sent abroad to foreign subsidiaries to accomplish specific goals and to contribute to their organisation's performance (Tung, 1987). Once abroad, these expatriate managers will encounter a foreign workforce with a different cultural background to their own. The adjustment to this new cultural environment can be a stressful experience and not every manager is successful in making it (Selmer, 1999).

This can result in the premature return of expatriate managers to the domestic culture, which in turn can lead to high costs for organisations. On the other hand, expatriate managers who fail to adapt, but who remain on their foreign assignment can also incur considerable costs for their parent organisations (Black, Gregersen and Mendenhall, 1992; Forster, 1997; Harzing, 1995). The success of expatriate managers is critical to the success of the projects on which they are working, which in turn influences the overall performance of the organisation in which these expatriate managers work (Punnet 1997). There exist many factors which enhance or limit the adjustment of expatriate managers to the host country. These factors include individual, job-related, organisational, and non-work related factors (Festing and Maletzky, 2011). Furthermore, factors such as the time period of the foreign assignment, the level of the position and the perspective of the host country nationals also influence the adjustment process of expatriate managers (Scullion and Collings, 2011; Scullion, Collings and Caligiuri, 2010; Stahl and Caligiuri, 2005; Tarique and Schuler, 2010).

The approach of the present study is to investigate leadership perceptions from both the perspective of home and expatriate managers and home and host employees. This approach is based on the work of Lord and Maher (1991) who state that leadership is most effective when leaders and followers have similar perceptions of effective leadership. This means that followers are more motivated to follow when their expectations about leadership correspond to their leader's actual leadership behaviour (Lord and Maher, 1991).

The specific focus within this cross-cultural study is on France and Germany, which are close trade partners. Germany is, and has been for many years, France's most important trade partner. According to the German Federal Ministry of Economics and Technology, during 2010 French exports to Germany amounted to €61.8 billion (16.3%

of all French exports), whereas the sum of French imports from Germany was even higher: €90.7 billion or 17.3% of all French imports (www.bmwi.de). France is the number one trade partner for German exports, and while France's role as an exporter of goods and services to Germany is still significant, it has become less important during recent years having been overtaken by the Netherlands and China (www.bmwi.de).

Another key indicator of the role of international trade between these two countries concerns the flows of foreign direct investment (FDI). Again, Germany plays a crucial role regarding direct investment in France, and is the second most important investor in France after the US. In 2009, according to the Banque de France (www.banque-france.fr) the sum of German investment in France amounted to €55 billion. Inward FDI to Germany mainly comes from the Netherlands, Luxemburg, and the UK, while France is the fourth largest investor in Germany (www.gtai.de). French investment in Germany, however, is steadily increasing. Since 2005 investments have grown by 27% and amounted to a total of €40 billion by the end of 2009. According to UBIFRANCE (www.ubifrance.fr), an organisation which helps French enterprises to develop their business abroad, around 2,270 French companies were located in Germany in 2009. Regarding the number of German companies and subsidiaries operating in France, the Invest in France Agency (www.invest-in-france.org), an international organisation which promotes and facilitates foreign investment in France, estimated that more than 4,500 German companies and subsidiaries were doing business in France in 2009.

As can be seen from these figures, France and Germany are of high economic importance to each other. Within the European Union both countries are regarded as the economic engine of Europe (Große, Lüger and Thiériot, 2008). Thus, in the interests of improving future co-operation, the present study will explore the link between

leadership and culture in a French-German business context. The results of the study will yield practical advice at an organisational level regarding how to avoid conflict situations which might be based on differences in cultural background.

1.4 The Theoretical Foundations of the Thesis

The theoretical foundation of this thesis is based on implicit leadership theories (ILTs) and connectionist theory which form part of the area of cognitive science leadership research. Implicit leadership theories suggest that most individuals have a specific picture or cognitive structure of the nature of leaders and leadership in their mind (e.g. Offermann, Kennedy and Wirtz, 1994; Schyns and Schilling, 2011) which helps them to make sense of leadership situations (Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck, 2004) and to perceive and recognise an individual as a leader (Schyns, Felfe and Blank, 2007). Seminal contributions to the field of implicit leadership theories were made by Lord and his colleagues (e.g. Lord, Foti and De Vader, 1984; Lord and Maher, 1991; Phillips and Lord, 1986) who based their theoretical concept on Rosch's (1978) categorisation theory. Categorisation theory explains that stimulus persons (e.g. leaders) are classified by perceivers (e.g. their subordinates) in comparison to prototypes of a category (e.g. effective leaders) (Rosch, 1978). ILTs represent cognitive structures of the mind, which can change due to a change of the social context (Rousseau, 2001; Smith and DeCoster, 2000). While they were found to be flexible and fluid knowledge structures (Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001; Lord et al., 2001), they do, however, remain rather stable over time even if the social context changes (Epitropaki and Martin, 2004).

The characteristics of ILTs can be explained by connectionist theory and depicted by connectionist-level cognitive structures. Connectionist theory represents

one approach to explaining human information processing as discussed in the discipline of cognitive science and concerns the way in which the mind ‘receives, stores, retrieves, transforms, and transmits information’ in a parallel manner (Stillings et al., 1995, p.1). Connectionist models are based on the neurophysiology of the brain with the neuron being the basic building element for understanding psychological processes (Dudai, 2006). Within connectionist models or schemas, so-called units represent the basic elements. These models are described by three aspects: 1) units are activated through environmental stimuli, 2) units are connected in parallel to other units, and 3) connections between units are weighted with the weight reflecting the strength of each connection. When environmental stimuli change, the connection weights will adjust, which represents a learning process. The more often a specific situation (i.e. leadership situation) causes a specific pattern of interconnected units, the more it creates so-called stable levels of activation, which in turn represent a category, or prototype.

What is interesting about ILTs is that they have been found to be influenced by individual’s societal cultural background (e.g. Ensari and Murphy, 2003; Gerstner and Day, 1994; Hanges et al., 2006; House et al., 2004), as hypothesised by Shaw (1990), and hence, represent an opportunity to investigate perceptions of leadership cross-culturally. The approach to investigating ILTs across cultures as presented in this study is mainly based on the arguments above and will be detailed in the following chapters.

1.5 The Research Questions, Hypotheses, and Propositions

Table 1.1 summarises the research questions, and their related hypotheses and propositions, which form the basis of the present study.

Table 1.1: The Research Questions, Hypotheses, and Propositions

Question 1	Does the structure of effective leadership schemas differ between French and German managers and employees in a business context?
Hypotheses	<p><i>H1:</i> If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French and Germans in a business context, regardless of their corresponding hierarchical level.</p> <p><i>H2:</i> If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French managers and French employees.</p> <p><i>H3:</i> If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between German managers and German employees.</p> <p><i>H4:</i> If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will be more similar between individuals of the same nationality than between individuals of the same hierarchical level.</p>
Question 2	Does the structure of effective leadership schemas in a French and German business context differ between home and host managers?
Hypotheses	<p><i>H5:</i> If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French managers who are working for French organisations in France and French expatriate managers who are working for French organisations in Germany.</p> <p><i>H6:</i> If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between German managers who are working for German organisations in Germany and German expatriate managers who are working for German organisations in France.</p> <p><i>H7:</i> If the content is held constant, the leadership schema structure will be more similar between German managers in Germany and German expatriate managers in France than between German expatriate managers in France and French managers in France.</p> <p><i>H8:</i> If the content is held constant, the leadership schema structure will be more similar between French managers in France and French expatriate managers in Germany than between French expatriate managers in Germany and German managers in Germany.</p>

Table 1.1 continued

Question 3	How does the content of effective leadership schemas differ between French and German managers and employees in a business context?
Propositions	<p><i>P1:</i> The content of French cognitive leadership schemas will be rather characterised by attributes which form part of charismatic, team-oriented and participative leadership styles. In comparison, German cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily characterised by attributes which form part of a participative leadership style.</p> <p><i>P2:</i> The content of managers' cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily composed of innovative, visionary, long-term oriented, diplomatic and courageous leadership attributes. In comparison, the employees' cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily composed of more social and participative attributes such as team building and concern for subordinates' interests.</p> <p><i>P3:</i> The content of the cognitive leadership schemas will be more similar between home and expatriate managers of the same nationality, than between home and expatriate managers of a different nationality, but who live and work in the same country.</p>

1.6 The Structure of the Thesis

This thesis consists of nine chapters. The introductory chapter, which summarises the main components of the thesis will be followed by three literature review chapters (Chapters II-IV). The methodological approach will be detailed in Chapter V, which is followed by the two quantitative and qualitative analyses chapters (Chapters VI, and VII). The findings of the empirical research will be discussed in Chapter VIII and Chapter IX will form the conclusion.

Chapter I introduced the topic of perceptions of effective leadership from a cross-cultural perspective and detailed the rationale of this research and its objectives. The theoretical foundations of the thesis were outlined. Research questions were addressed, as well as related hypotheses and propositions.

Chapter II will present a review of the literature on the conceptualisation and measurement of culture and describe the development of this area, discussing critically

concepts of its most relevant proponents (e.g. Hofstede, 1980, 1991; House et al., 2004; Schwartz, 1999)

Chapter III will deal with developments in leadership research in general, and focus in more detail on leadership perceptions. Related to this, implicit leadership theories and connectionist theory will be discussed.

Chapter IV will bring together the themes of culture and leadership and present major trends in cross-cultural leadership research. More precisely, it will address the topic of culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories and provide an overview of cross-cultural leadership in France and in Germany. This will include comparisons of French and German cultural aspects, management models and leadership preferences.

Chapter V will detail the research methodology of this cross-cultural study of French and German managers and their employees in both their domestic and host settings. It will present the post-positivistic philosophical approach of the research. Precise information on the research design of the study, which consists of both a survey questionnaire and interviews, will be provided. The process of data collection and data analysis will be described and an overview of the composition of the sample will be presented.

Chapters VI and VII will report the quantitative and qualitative findings of this research. Chapter VI will detail the quantitative findings and present comparisons between the different sample groups of the research setting. The structure of cognitive leadership schemas will be compared at the cultural and hierarchical level by using Schvaneveldt's Pathfinder software (1990). Chapter VII will detail the qualitative findings and present the similarities and the differences of the content of the cognitive leadership schemas which were found across the different French and German sample groups of this study.

Chapter VIII will discuss the findings from the previous two chapters with regard to prior research in the area of cross-cultural leadership perceptions. Limitations will be presented, directions for future research identified, and implications for practice suggested.

This thesis will be closed by Chapter IX – the conclusion – which will summarise the major findings of the present study.

CHAPTER II

CULTURE: CONCEPTUALISATION AND MEASUREMENT

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the topic of culture in order to locate this term in the context of this cross-cultural investigation and to show how cultures can be differentiated from each other. The original use of the concept of culture in the area of anthropology will be discussed, and more recent definitions of culture presented in order to distinguish between different levels of culture, such as societal and organisational culture. The measurability of cultural concepts will form a central aspect of the chapter as it allows for comparisons between different cultures. The main authors who significantly shaped the field of cross-cultural research will be discussed, and two relevant cross-cultural investigations will be explored in greater detail. These relate to Hofstede's research (1980) and the Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) study (House et al., 2004). Hofstede's research will be looked at as he is presumed to be the pioneer of cross-cultural research and is responsible for fostering much interest in the measurement of culture (Taras, Rowney and Steel, 2009). The GLOBE study will then be explored as it represents the most recent and comprehensive cross-cultural leadership research project to date. A critique of Hofstede's and the GLOBE approach to culture measurement will provide the underlying arguments about why major ideas of the present research study are based on findings from the GLOBE study.

Other approaches to culture measurement will be discussed including value approaches, such as the work by Schwartz and his colleagues (e.g. Schwartz, 1999; Smith, Peterson and Schwartz, 2002), and the work by Trompenaars and Hampden-

Turner (Trompenaars, 1993; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998). The chapter will close with a brief overview of value-free approaches to culture measurement.

2.2 The Conceptualisation of Culture

This section will provide a brief overview of the origins of the concept of culture, how the term of culture can be defined, and to what extent the concept of culture has been studied to date.

2.2.1 The Roots of Cultural Research

The roots of cultural research go back to the field of anthropology and archaeology. During the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century, German researchers Lazarus (1824-1903) and Steinthal (1823-1899), and later Wundt (1832-1920), developed the concept of the ‘psychology of a specific group of people’ called ‘Völkerpsychologie’ (Kalmar, 1987). They assumed that the behaviour of people could not only be explained by behavioural patterns at the individual level, but also that a certain psyche uniting a specific group of people called ‘Volksseele’ existed.

A generation later Franz Boas (1858-1942), a German-born American was denominated as the ‘father’ of modern anthropology. Boas is mentioned in the context of a shift in the field of anthropology which led to a more modern understanding of culture. In the 19th century, before modern anthropology, the concept of ‘culture’ was rather ethnocentric, unilinear, and ‘seen as cumulative, developing along a single line of human achievement and culminating in the “highest” manifestations of Western civilization’ (Kalmar, 1987, p.671). Boas replaced this idea with ‘the modern, pluralist view of culture as the distinctive cognitive-behavioral system of unique human groups’ (Kalmar, 1987, p.671). He is considered to be the anthropologist who ‘made the

plurality of cultures fundamental to man [sic]' (Lesser, 1985, p.16) and he is posited to be the first to use the word culture in the plural, admitting cultural pluralism (Stocking, 1966).

The approaches of the German researchers were not systematically developed by subsequent researchers in Germany, but were used for 'racial research' during the period of the Third Reich and, therefore, later discredited. However, in the 1960s and early 1970s researchers in the US started to think about intercultural communication (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 2002; Reynolds, 2009; Samovar and Porter, 1995). One reason for the interest in investigating this domain was that US companies were the first to become multinational in the period after World War II (e.g. Dymysza, 1984; Gilpin, 1975; Hymer, 1976; Pauly, 1997). Moreover, the military realised that the communication with military partners, as well as with the civil population in conflict areas would be easier if some information were available on these groups of people (e.g. Duffey, 2000; Rubinstein, 1989; Rubinstein, 2003). The need to understand the reasons for differences between cultures emerged, as well as the consequence of developing methods to facilitate effective cross-cultural collaboration. Subsequently, the field of cross-cultural research developed.

2.2.2 Definitions of Culture

The term culture has been defined in many ways as highlighted by Kroeber and Kluckhohn's (1952) critical review of cultural concepts and definitions. Table 2.1 presents a selection of definitions of culture.

Table 2.1: Definitions of Culture

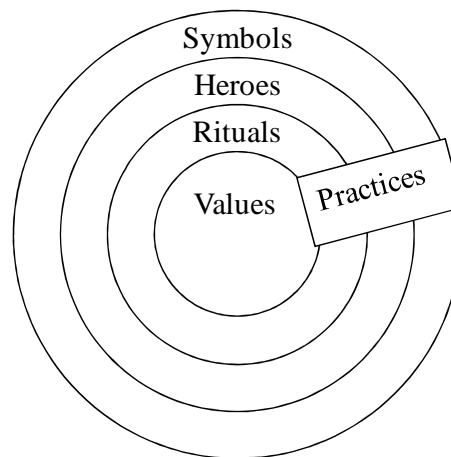
Definition	Source
Culture is a ‘shared understanding made manifest in act and artifact’.	Redfield (1948, p.vii)
Culture is a shared meaning system.	Shweder and LeVine (1984)
Culture is ‘the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another’.	Hofstede (1991, p.9)
Culture is the human-made part of the environment.	Herskovits (1955)
Culture can be differentiated according to ‘objective’ and ‘subjective’ elements, where subjective culture concerns ‘a cultural group’s characteristic way of perceiving the man-made part of its environment’.	Triandis (1972, p.4)
Culture is the concept that represents a compilation of values, attitudes, presumptions and norms, which are shared by the majority of the inhabitants of one nation.	Weinert (2004)
Culture consists in ‘patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting, acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values’.	Kluckhohn (1951, p.86)
Culture considers ‘transmitted and created content and patterns of values, ideas, and other symbolic-meaningful systems as factors in the shaping of human behavior and the artifacts produced through behavior’.	Kroeber and Parsons (1958, p.583)
Culture consists in ‘shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations of meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations.’	House and Javidan (2004, p.15)

As can be seen from Table 2.1 various definitions of culture exist, but most of them share some themes. Culture is considered to be a shared meaning system or a shared understanding within specific groups of people (e.g. Shweder and LeVine, 1984). Culture is believed to be human-made, to consist basically of values, and is transmitted across generations (e.g. House and Javidan, 2004). This is in line with definitions by Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998), Triandis (1994a), and

Hofstede (1980) who add that culture is an adaptive concept, which is conveyed across generations, and internalised in early childhood.

Culture is a rather stable construct, and is usually presented as an ‘onion’ diagram ‘with basic assumptions and values representing the core of culture, and practices, symbols, and artifacts representing the outer layers of the construct’ (Taras, Rowney and Steel, 2009, p.358). Figure 2.1 illustrates this ‘onion’ diagram which details the different layers of culture as defined by Hofstede (1980).

Figure 2.1: Example of an 'Onion' Diagram of Culture (cf. Hofstede, 1980)



Values as a basic building element of culture are located in peoples’ minds, and shared by members of a society (e.g. House et al., 2004; Inglehart and Baker, 2000; Minkov, 2007). Thus, the aggregation of individuals’ cultural values will result in societal cultural values. Schwartz (2009, 2010) however, suggests an alternative approach. He believes cultural values to be ‘the normative value emphases that underlie and justify the functioning of societal institutions’ (Schwartz, 2011, p.314). He further explains:

‘Individual values, beliefs, practices, symbols, and norms are manifestations of the underlying culture, but they themselves are not the culture. Culture itself is a hypothetical, latent variable measurable only through its manifestations.’ (Schwartz, 2011, p.314)

In the context of this definition, cultural values can therefore be considered to be the framework or environment which shape the content and distribution of individual values, and beliefs with the environment consisting of ‘expectations, opportunities, and constraints to which people are exposed’ (Schwartz, 2011, p.314).

This definition shows that culture can be analysed at different levels, such as the individual or societal level. In organisational behaviour research, investigations are primarily concerned with national or societal culture (Gelfand, Erez and Aycan, 2007). It has been shown that cultural differences at the individual level within one society are much smaller than differences across societal cultures (Inglehart and Baker, 2000). Thus, the aggregation of individual level data to societal level data is believed to produce meaningful results at societal level. Organisational culture is another level of culture which is of interest in organisational behaviour research and will be discussed subsequently.

2.2.3 The Relationship between Societal and Organisational Culture

The field of organisation theory discusses the concept of organisational culture, which emerged about 40 years ago. Its equivalent term of corporate culture was originally introduced by Deal and Kennedy (1982). In comparison to societal or national culture, organisational or corporate culture is related to an organisation, company, or institution. One line of interest in the literature on organisational culture concerns the relationship between societal and organisational culture and the question whether and how societal culture may influence organisational culture (Sagiv and Schwartz, 2007).

As with societal culture, a multitude of definitions exist for organisational culture. Plakhotnik and Rocco (2011) in their extensive review mention that Socrates

and Aristotle in 400 BC were involved with the study of organisations, addressing the topic of the universality of management across public and private affairs. Since these initial ideas, a major focus has been on theoretical concepts discussing organisational function, structure, and processes (Plakhotnik and Rocco, 2011).

Plakhotnik and Rocco (2011) identified two types of definitions of organisational culture in the literature. More than 80 per cent of the reviewed articles considered organisational culture to be one shared culture within the organisation (organisation-wide culture), whereas the remainder of the articles discussed organisational culture from the perspective of subcultures. These subcultures consist of groups of people who follow ‘common professional or social interests’ within the overall organisational culture (Plakhotnik and Rocco, 2011, p.82). Most researchers investigating organisational culture adopt Schein’s (1984, 2004) concept of organisational culture. This has been widely recognised and is defined as:

‘a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems’ (Schein 2004, p.17).

Thus, organisational culture has to do with particular assumptions, ideas, beliefs, preferences, and values which are held by managers in organisations about how to manage people toward a common organisational goal (Laurent, 1986). Organisational culture is considered as a framework which helps employees to better interpret organisational activities, the behaviour and the expectations of their supervisors and colleagues, and cope with new situations, disagreements and conflicts (DeSimone, Werner and Harris, 2002; O’Reilly, 1989). Consequently, employees can apply their skills, knowledge and abilities in order to perform their jobs more

efficiently. This will increase their work effectiveness which will in turn advance an organisation's long term economic performance (Kotter and Heskett, 1992).

Plakhotnik and Rocco (2011) further review the research purposes within organisational culture investigations which are mainly relational, but also exploratory. Relational means that organisational culture is linked to other topics such as organisational practices, employee characteristics, or external factors. The latter include, amongst others, investigations of the relationship between organisational culture and societal culture. This relationship has been discussed by, for example, Inkeles (1960). He proposes that the environment of populations is shaped by the level of development of a society towards an industrial society. This means the influence of traditional cultural patterns is rather considered as a random effect, and societal culture has no major impact on organisational culture. Thus, Inkeles (1960) suggests that there is a convergence of organisational cultures due to the development of societies towards industrial societies.

Laurent's (1981) initial interest in culture was not in investigating the link between societal and organisational culture, and related to this context, in national differences, but rather in implicit management and organisational theories which are in managers' minds. In an empirical study, Laurent (1986) found that nationality was the most powerful determinant in predicting the managerial assumptions he was testing, in comparison to other variables such as age, education, function, or the type of company. These managerial assumptions reflecting implicit beliefs about management and organisational theories were collected from discussions with managers about organisational topics. They were then expressed as statements and presented in a questionnaire where respondents had to express their agreement or disagreement with these statements. Examples of such statements are:

- ‘It is important for a manager to have at hand precise answers to most of the questions that his subordinates may raise about their work.’
- ‘In order to have efficient work relationships, it is often necessary to bypass the hierarchical line.’ (Laurent, 1986, p.93)

A further study analysed whether organisational culture within one multinational company would reduce the effect of societal culture (Laurent, 1986). Results, however, showed that the expected convergence of societal cultures did not occur. Laurent (1986) concludes ‘that deep-seated managerial assumptions are strongly shaped by national cultures and appear quite insensitive to the more transient culture of organizations’ (p.95).

Tayeb’s (1988) comparative study of English and Indian organisations led to similar findings. She summarised:

‘[...] although in modern industrial societies business organizations tend to develop similar structural configurations in response to similar task-environments, the means by which they achieve these configurations are different, depending on the particular socio-cultural characteristics of the society in which they operate and from which the bulk of their employees come’ (Tayeb, 1994, p.440).

This is in line with the ideas of House, Wright and Aditya (1997) and Lord and Maher (1991) who suggested that societal cultural values and practices affect organisational cultural values and practices. Based on this suggestion, more recent research about the influence of societal culture on organisational culture, which was one element of the GLOBE study found that ‘organizational culture reflects societal culture’ (House and Javidan, 2004, p.37). House and Javidan (2004) provide the example that ‘organizations with high performance orientation are found in societies with high performance orientation’ (p.37).

To summarise, culture can be measured at different levels such as the individual, the organisational or societal level. A particular interest within organisational behaviour research concerns the relationship between the organisational

and societal levels. Research (e.g. House et al., 2004; Laurent, 1986; Lord and Maher, 1991) has shown that societal culture has a strong impact on organisational culture, and that the culture which exists or which is created within particular organisations is shaped by the socio-cultural background of the employees (Tayeb, 1994). How cultures can be captured and compared by measuring societal culture will be detailed in the following chapter.

2.3 Measuring and Comparing Cultures

The purpose of this section is to outline how societal culture can be measured in order to compare different cultures with each other. The development from the qualitative to the quantitative measurement of culture will be briefly described and early methods of measuring cultural values will be discussed. Two seminal cross-cultural studies will be detailed; these concern the work of Hofstede (1980) and the GLOBE study. Some further relevant cross-cultural studies will be presented to complete the overview of the field of cultural research. These include studies which focus on the measurement of culture by analysing dimensions of culture and cultural values. They will be complemented by alternative measurement approaches to culture, i.e. value-free approaches.

2.3.1 From the Qualitative to the Quantitative Measurement of Culture

The concept of culture had been discussed in anthropology for quite some time, before the idea of measuring this concept in a quantitative way evolved in the middle of the 20th century. The quantitative measurement of culture experienced its breakthrough with Hofstede's publication of *'Culture's Consequences'* in 1980. In the field of anthropology and archaeology, culture was initially studied using qualitative methods.

The interest was rather focused on the outer layers of the 'onion' diagram of culture, such as artifacts, language and traditions (Taras, Roney and Steel, 2009). Following this qualitative trend from anthropology, initial cultural research in social science studies was also driven by qualitative approaches, analysing artifacts and traditions. The shift from qualitative to quantitative methods in culture research was influenced by scientific journals which tended to favour publishing quantitative approaches (Taras, Roney and Steel, 2009). Accompanying this shift was a shift from analysing artifacts and traditions to investigating cultural values.

2.3.2 The Early Quantitative Measurement of Cultural Values

Before Hofstede's (1980) publication, some authors had researched diverse aspects of culture using quantitative methods. Kuhn and McPartland (1954), for example, empirically tested self-attitudes in order to contribute to 'a science of personality and culture' (p.76). Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), who were involved in the Harvard Values Project, developed a model which allowed distinctions between cultures by comparing how these cultures addressed common human concerns. Such concerns include, for example, the relationship between man and nature. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) differentiate between three categories regarding this relationship: 'subordinate to nature', 'harmony with nature', and 'dominant over nature'. This categorisation of concerns allows for comparisons between cultures.

Further pre-Hofstedian empirical studies about the measurement of culture include research by England (1967) and Rokeach (1973). England (1967) studied the personal values of more than 1,000 managers in the US and tested their impact on behaviour. Rokeach's (1968, 1973) research concerned the development of '(a) a theoretical perspective on the nature of values in a cognitive framework and (b) a

value-measurement instrument' (Johnston, 1995, p.583). Rokeach's values are classified into two types of values: terminal values which consist of 'end states of existence' and instrumental values which imply 'modes of conduct'. Examples of terminal values are 'a comfortable life', or 'a world at peace', while examples of instrumental values are 'ambitious', or 'honest' (Rokeach, 1973). In order to analyse the respondent's value structure, participants assort a set of 18 terminal values, followed by a set of 18 instrumental values. The values have to be sorted in order of importance and as guiding principles in the participants' life (Rokeach, 1973). Rokeach's research about values was widely used and accepted by researchers in psychology, political science and economy (Johnston, 1995). Johnston (1995), for example, used the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) in a study among 76 college students in the US to identify the underlying structure of the RVS. Results of the study showed that it is structured around two dimensions which are similar to the individualism-collectivism dimension as proposed by Hofstede (1980) and further developed by Triandis (1989). The terminal and the instrumental RVS values, however, do not follow a single bipolar individualism-collectivism dimension, but rather two separate dimensions. Taras, Roney and Steel (2009) explain that responding to the RVS is difficult and time consuming and, thus, not widely used in more recent research. Nevertheless, the RVS is an instrument to measure cultural values which allows for comparisons between different cultural groups.

More insights into Hofstede's (1980) individualism-collectivism dimension of culture will be provided in the following section, which will detail his approach to culture measurement.

2.3.3 Hofstede's Approach to Culture Measurement

Following the publication of '*Culture's Consequences*' by Hofstede (1980), research interest in the topic of culture measurement sharply increased. His study was originally aimed at surveying employees' attitudes and perceptions with regard to organisational issues such as work satisfaction and commitment. However, during the analysis phase, some cultural items emerged and the concept of what is known as Hofstede's cultural dimensions was developed (Hofstede, 1980). In total, Hofstede explored data from over 116,000 questionnaires which had been completed within IBM subsidiaries in 66 countries in the late 1960s and early 1970s (Hofstede, 1980). This large international sample, combined with for that time rather advanced statistical analyses, provided a profound basis for Hofstede's successful publications in the field of cultural research (Taras, Roney and Steel, 2009).

Initially four dimensions of culture derived from the IBM survey: 'power distance', 'individualism versus collectivism', 'masculinity versus femininity', and 'uncertainty avoidance' as described in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Hofstede's Initial Dimensions of Culture (adapted from Hofstede, 1991)

Dimensions of culture	Description
Power Distance	The extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organisations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1991, p.28).
Individualism versus Collectivism	Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism as its opposite pertains to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive ingroups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede, 1991, p.51).
Masculinity versus Femininity	Masculinity pertains to societies in which social gender roles are clearly distinct (i.e., men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success whereas women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life) (Hofstede, 1991, p.82). Femininity pertains to societies in which social gender roles overlap (i.e., both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life) (Hofstede, 1991, p.82).
Uncertainty Avoidance	The extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations (Hofstede, 1991, p.113).

The labels of the dimensions were not created by Hofstede and already existed in the social sciences (Hofstede, 1991). In addition, the view that all societies face similar problems, but that they solve them in different ways, was also not a new idea. However, by analysing the societies' answers to these problems, differences could be detected and societies therefore compared (Hofstede, 1991). Pioneering work dealing with the latter issue had already been carried out in 1954 in the US by Inkeles and Levinson. They described those aspects which constitute the common basic problems that societies face worldwide (Inkeles and Levinson, 1954). These are (1) the relation to authority, (2) the conception of self, including (2a) the relationship between individual and society, and (2b) the individual's concept of masculinity and femininity, and (3)

ways of dealing with conflicts, including the control of aggression and the expression of feelings (Inkeles and Levinson, 1954, 1969).

In later research using the Chinese Value Survey an additional dimension was identified – Confucian dynamism – which was relabelled as ‘long-term orientation versus short-term orientation’ (Hofstede and Bond, 1984, 1988). This dimension was subsequently calculated with more recent data from the World Values Survey (Minkov and Hofstede, 2010), and provided evidence to show that ‘Chinese and Western research instruments can produce similar dimensions of culture’ (Minkov and Hofstede, 2010, p.1). Only recently a sixth dimension, namely ‘indulgence versus restraint’, was derived from data from the World Values Survey (Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010). The fifth and sixth dimensions are presented in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3: Hofstede's Later Dimensions of Culture (adapted from Hofstede, 1991, and Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010)

Dimensions of culture	Description
Confucian Dynamism: long-term orientation versus short-term orientation	Long-term orientation is concerned with persistence (perseverance), ordering relationships by status and observing this order, thrift, and having a sense of shame (Hofstede, 1991, p.165). Short-term orientation is concerned with personal steadiness and stability, protecting one’s ‘face’, and reciprocation of greetings, favours and gifts (Hofstede, 1991, p.166).
Indulgence versus Restraint	Indulgence is reflected in a society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human desires related to enjoying life and having fun. Restraint is reflected in a society that suppresses gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms (Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010).

For each dimension an index can be calculated which has to be interpreted in a relative context (Hofstede, 1980). This means an index represents the relative position of a country in comparison to other countries and should not be interpreted as the

absolute value for one specific country. Table 2.4 summarises the different indexes and presents the societies with the highest and lowest scores for each index.

Table 2.4: Hofstede's Cultural Dimension Indexes (adapted from Hofstede, 1991, and Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010)

Index		
	Description	Example
<i>Power Distance Index (PDI)</i>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • gives information about dependence relationships in a country • is measured by using statements regarding relationships in the workplace (subordinate – superior) and in society (citizen – government) • low PDI scores can be found in countries where the dependence of subordinates on superiors is limited and where there is preference for consultation, which means interdependence between boss and subordinate • high PDI scores can be found in countries where subordinates considerably depend on bosses, and where subordinates rarely approach and contradict their superiors (Hofstede, 1991) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PDI score ranges from 11 in Austria (rank 53) to 104 in Malaysia (rank 1)
<i>The Individualism versus Collectivism Index (IDV)</i>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • is based on a set of fourteen statements concerning 'work goals' such as 'my objective is to have a job which leaves me sufficient time for my personal or family life' • individualistic societies are characterised by aspects such as personal time, freedom and challenge in the workplace • collectivistic societies favour aspects such as training, physical conditions and the use of skills at work • a high IDV score reflects a more individualistic country a low IDV score a more collectivist one (Hofstede, 1991) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IDV score ranges from 6 in Guatemala (rank 53) to 91 in the US (rank 1)

Table 2.4 continued

Index		
	Description	Example
<i>The Masculinity versus Femininity Index (MAS)</i>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> was developed out of the same set of statements as the IDV index masculine countries are characterised by work goals such as high earnings, recognition when having done a good job, and advancement to jobs at a higher level feminine countries prioritise good working relationships with direct superiors, good co-operation with others, employment security and desirable living areas a high MAS score stands for societies which are rather masculine, a low MAS score reflects rather feminine societies (Hofstede, 1991) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> MAS score ranges from 5 in Sweden (rank 53) to 95 in Japan (rank 1)
<i>The Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)</i>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> is measured by questions concerning job stress, company rules, and long-term plans to stay with one company a low UAI signifies that people can cope with uncertainty a high UAI expresses a high need for predictability (Hofstede, 1991) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> UAI score ranges from 8 in Singapore (rank 53) to 112 in Greece (rank 1)
<i>The Long-Term versus Short-Term Orientation Index (LTO)</i>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> initially called 'Confucian Dynamism' as it was originally developed for the Chinese Values Survey, but it was observed that its opposite poles correspond to a long-term versus a short-term orientation in time a high LTO index is associated with values and behaviour that are oriented to the future a low LTO index reflects societies which are more directed to the past and present and characterised by rather static values and behaviours (Hofstede, 1991) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> LTO score ranges from 0 in Pakistan (rank 23) to 118 in China (rank 1)
<i>The Indulgence versus Restraint Index (IRI)</i>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> measures the extent to which a society tolerates that individuals enjoy desires and feelings such as leisure time, spending, consumption and sex a high IRI represents the pole of indulgence and signifies a high level of tolerance for individuals' gratification a low IRI stands for restraint cultures and signifies that people may enjoy their lives less due to the pressure of a rather conservative society (Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> not available

When interpreting the scores and ranks as illustrated in Table 2.4, it should be taken into account that these scores date back to Hofstede's data collection in the late 1960s and early 1970s and thus might now be less relevant. For this reason, a more recent approach to culture measurement is detailed in the next section.

2.3.4 The GLOBE Approach to Culture Measurement

The most recent project of major impact in the field of cross-cultural management research is the GLOBE study. Initiated by House in 1992, its results were published in an edited book in 2004 by House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta. The study measured cultural practices ('the way things are done') and values ('the way things should be done') across 951 organisations in three different industries (financial services, food processing and telecommunications) located in 62 different societies. In each society, the research was coordinated by GLOBE Country Co-Investigators (CCIs). The CCIs assisted in the formulation of the instruments used in the GLOBE study, collected data relevant to their countries and assisted in the interpretation of the data (House et al., 2004). The researchers' main aim was to address how culture is related to societal, organisational and leadership effectiveness in order to improve on the existing cross-cultural models (Triandis, 2004). The survey which was carried out among 17,300 middle-managers contributed to the development of a further set of cultural dimensions. In total, the investigators compared cultures on the basis of nine dimensions: 'performance orientation', 'future orientation', 'gender egalitarianism', 'assertiveness', 'institutional collectivism', 'in-group collectivism', 'power distance', 'humane orientation', and 'uncertainty avoidance' (House et al., 2004). Table 2.5 presents more detailed descriptions of these cultural dimensions.

Table 2.5: The GLOBE Dimensions of Culture (adapted from Javidan, House and Dorfman, 2004, p.30)

Dimensions of culture	Description
Uncertainty Avoidance	The extent to which a society, organisation, or group relies on social norms, rules, and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events.
Power Distance	The degree to which members of a collective expect power to be distributed equally.
Collectivism I (Institutional Collectivism)	The degree to which organisational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.
Collectivism II (In-group Collectivism)	The degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organisations or families.
Gender Egalitarianism	The degree to which a collective minimises gender inequality.
Assertiveness	The degree to which individuals are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in their relationships with others.
Future Orientation	The extent to which individuals engage in future-oriented behaviours such as delaying gratification, planning, and investing in the future.
Performance Orientation	The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence.
Humane Orientation	The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others.

As can be seen from Table 2.5, some of the GLOBE cultural dimensions are similar to Hofstede's dimensions. However, instead of investigating bi-polar cultural dimensions, the GLOBE study analysed uni-polar dimensions. The origins of the first six dimensions lay in the cultural dimensions of Hofstede (1980). The scales for the dimensions of 'uncertainty avoidance' and 'power distance' were designed in order to measure the same constructs as Hofstede's dimensions with the same label (House and Javidan, 2004). The division of the dimension of 'collectivism' into two separate dimensions was derived from a factor analysis of a set of items which were originally intended to measure collectivism in general. According to House and Javidan (2004)

the dimension of 'institutional collectivism' has not been studied in previous research, whereas 'in-group collectivism' has its roots in a study by Triandis (1995). Hofstede's dimension of 'masculinity versus femininity' was further developed by GLOBE researchers into two separate dimensions. These are 'gender egalitarianism' and 'assertiveness'. The origins of the GLOBE dimension of 'future orientation' can be found in Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) research investigating a dimension called 'past, present, future orientation' which focuses on the relationship between individuals and time. House and Javidan (2004) add that this dimension has only marginal similarity with Hofstede's 'Confucian dynamism' dimension. McClelland's (1961) research about achievement forms the basis of the GLOBE dimension of 'performance orientation'. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) 'Human Nature as Good versus Human Nature as Bad' dimension forms the basis of the GLOBE dimension of 'humane orientation'. Other research influencing the creation of this dimension comes from Putnam (1993) and his work on civic society. The GLOBE project also focused on leadership behaviour as will be detailed in Chapter 4.

The GLOBE study used both quantitative and qualitative methods. A pilot study was carried out to first develop the GLOBE scales and, second to evaluate the nature of the constructs intended to be measured by the scales. In addition to primary data, archival data were used in order to provide evidence for the validity of the measured constructs (Hanges, 2004).

The questionnaire methodology focused on the differentiation between scales measuring societal culture and scales measuring organisational culture. Additionally, these scales distinguish between practices ('the way things are done') and values ('the way things should be done') in a culture. Therefore, the GLOBE culture items are called 'quartets' (Hanges, 2004).

‘[...] for each GLOBE dimension we had four scales that differed in terms of the targeted level of analysis (i.e., societal or organizational) and the targeted cultural manifestation (i.e., practices or values) (Hanges, 2004, p.91).

It is important to note that the GLOBE researchers were aware of a potential cultural response bias and used a certain computing method to try to eliminate this bias (Hanges, 2004). Moreover, the GLOBE research design allows for analyses at different levels: individual, organisational, industry and societal.

‘[...] individuals work within organizations, which in turn are found within three industries (financial, food processing, and telecommunication). Industries in turn are found within societal cultures (Hanges, 2004, p.92).’

However, the unit of analysis mostly used is at the societal rather than the individual level. The GLOBE empirical findings were validated in two ways. First, they were compared to already existing findings. Second, they were compared to unobtrusive measures, which were collected in a way that avoided obtrusive interactions between the investigator and the subject of study (Gupta, Sully de Luque and House, 2004).

To conclude:

‘the triangulation of traditional survey, and questionnaire validation, and unobtrusive methods provided a valid and balanced perspective of culture unavailable by each perspective alone (Gupta, Sully de Luque and House, 2004, p.174).’

Although the GLOBE study overcame many pitfalls with regard to cultural research, there exists a number of criticisms which will be detailed in the following section. The review of these criticisms will be complemented by a critique which was made in response to Hofstede’s (1980, 1991) research.

2.3.5 Critique of Hofstede's and the GLOBE Approach to Culture Measurement

Hofstede's research and the GLOBE study have evoked quite extensive criticism (e.g. Brewer and Venaik, 2010; Goodstein, 1981; House, Wright and Aditya, 1997; Maseland and van Hoorn, 2009, 2010; McSweeney, 2002; Taras, Steel and Kirkman, 2010; Triandis, 1994b). One of the most detailed critiques of Hofstede's research is provided by McSweeney (2002) and includes concerns about the representativeness of the sample, the single-company bias of the very first data set which was collected within IBM subsidiaries, the consideration of culture as national culture, and the level of employees that were surveyed within IBM.

The size of Hofstede's total sample of more than 116,000 may appear to be large at first sight, but this number represents the total amount of questionnaires over two survey periods. Moreover, not all questionnaires were used. Initially, data were collected in 66 countries, but the results of only 40 countries were used (McSweeney, 2002). When breaking down the total number of questionnaires to the country level, the number of questionnaires per country obviously becomes smaller. In only six countries (Belgium, France, Great Britain, Germany, Japan and Sweden), the number of questionnaires in both survey periods was higher than 1,000 responses, whereas for example in Hong Kong and Singapore, numbers were smaller than 100 (Goodstein, 1981). Regarding the GLOBE study, the number of questionnaires per country also becomes quite small when dividing the total of 17,300 responses of middle-managers by the number of 62 countries. In Europe, the total sample size consisted of 6,052 responses across 22 countries¹. The French sample included 182 responses from the

¹ These countries are: Austria (N = 169), Czech Republic (N = 244), Denmark (N = 324), Finland (N = 430), France (N = 182), Georgia (N = 259), Germany, West (N = 413), Germany, former East (N = 53), Greece (N = 234), Hungary (N = 183), Ireland (N = 156), Italy (N = 257), Netherlands (N = 287), Poland

finance sector only, the German sample included 413 (West) and 53 (former East) responses from the food, finance and telecommunication sectors (Brodbeck et al., 2000). Thus, the GLOBE country samples are also rather small.

Further critique of Hofstede's research concerns the fact that data was collected within only one organisation, namely IBM. As a result, McSweeney (2002) assumes that organisational cultural values rather than societal cultural values were investigated. Initially, Hofstede argued that within IBM only one concept of organisational culture existed. Hence, the cultural differences he measured were societal cultural differences. It was only later that he acknowledged the diversity of organisational cultures within IBM (Hofstede, 1991). In addition, Hofstede provided a revised definition of organisational culture as 'shared perceptions of daily practices' (Hofstede, 1991, p.182f). He explained that his research did not capture organisational values, as it focused on personal values and not on organisational practices.

This confusion between practices and values was more specifically addressed by House, Wright and Aditya (1997). They attempted to distinguish between them in a more precise way and took this criticism into consideration for the development of the scales used in the GLOBE study. As described in section 2.3.4, the GLOBE culture items, called 'quartets', allow for a differentiation between organisational and societal culture, and differentiate between practices and values (Hanges, 2004). The GLOBE study also overcame the critique of Hofstede's data collection within one single organisation. The GLOBE study also overcomes the criticism that Hofstede's data was collected within a single organisation, since it sources data from more than 900 organisations in three different industry sectors (House et al., 2004).

(N = 278), Portugal (N = 79), Russia (N = 210), Slovenia (N = 254), Spain (N = 360), Sweden (N = 895), Switzerland (N = 321), Turkey (N = 289), United Kingdom (N = 168).

Hofstede's research has also been criticised for sampling only specific categories of employees within IBM, and excluding other categories of people such as blue-collar workers, retired or unemployed people, or self-employed. This criticism reflects concerns that responses of only employees might not be representative of the cultural orientation of a whole society, and, therefore, cannot be generalised (McSweeney, 2002). Further criticism is that Hofstede's questionnaire surveyed workplace related issues and was not repeated in other, non-workplace related locations with another population (McSweeney, 2002). The GLOBE study focused on the category of middle managers, as the study's purpose was to investigate the relationship between cultural dimensions and preferred leadership styles (House and Javidan, 2004). Hence, its focus was not purely on cultural dimensions as in Hofstede's research (Hofstede, 1980), but was conceptualised in an organisational context in order to contribute to organisational behaviour research. Thus, the choice of middle managers as a sample unit was appropriate for the aim of the research (Javidan et al., 2006).

Further critique of Hofstede's research concerns the measurement of bi-polar dimensions. According to Hofstede, the bi-polar dimensions can be interpreted as contrasting positions which means, for example, that a society is either individualistic or collectivistic (Hofstede, 1980). Triandis (1994b), however, posits that individuals carry both characteristics and argues that depending on specific situations one tendency might be more or less emphasised. The GLOBE study overcame this criticism, and developed dimensions which measure only one characteristic at a time (House et al., 2004).

As can be seen, criticism of Hofstede's work is manifold. Despite this, however, House, Wright and Aditya (1997) argue that two important aspects account for the robustness of Hofstede's findings:

‘First, the theoretical variables are well conceived and relate to four of the fundamental social problems of human beings. Second, the data are aggregated to the level of within-country means. [...], the higher the level of aggregation, the lower the effects of fluctuations of single environmental forces on the aggregated scores’ (p.577).

Despite criticism, Hofstede’s study is still the largest and is one of the most well-known empirical cross-cultural studies to date. This is evidenced by Kirkman, Lowe and Gibson (2006), who reviewed 180 studies which applied Hofstede’s cultural framework and which were published in 40 business and psychology journals between 1980 and 2002. According to Hofstede (2001), his work, based on the Social Science Citations Index, has been cited more widely than the work of any other cross-cultural researchers (1,800 times in 1999). Hofstede’s cultural dimensions were correlated to themes such as international entrepreneurship (e.g. Thomas and Mueller, 2000), conflict management (e.g. Smith et al., 1998), human resource management (e.g. Schuler and Rogovsky, 1998), and international joint ventures (e.g. Shenkar and Zeira, 1992). Hofstede’s dimensions have also been applied in non-business related fields of research, such as medical research which, for example, investigates cultural differences in the use of particular medicines (e.g. Deschepper et al., 2008).

As was detailed above, the GLOBE study overcomes most of the criticism which had been directed at Hofstede’s research. Smith (2006) summarises:

‘Hofstede’s (1980) pioneering study provided the impetus for our endeavours in understanding psychological aspects of national cultures. The methodological problems that he faced remain salient to all cross-cultural researchers. [...] The methods employed by the GLOBE researchers address these problems in somewhat different ways and draw upon greater power of recently developed procedures for statistical analysis’ (p.919).

There is, however, one finding of the GLOBE study which contributes to ongoing discussions and criticism. This finding concerns negative correlations between overall scores for practices and values for seven of the nine dimensions which were expected to be positive (Javidan et al., 2004). These negative correlations relate to the

dimensions of 'assertiveness', 'future orientation', 'humane orientation', 'institutional collectivism', 'performance orientation', 'power distance', and 'uncertainty avoidance'. While some researchers (e.g. Brewer and Venaik, 2010; Maseland and van Hoorn, 2009, 2010; Taras, Steel and Kirkman, 2010) try to find plausible explanations for these correlations which would be expected to be positive, other researchers (Hofstede, 2006) consider this issue as a possible criticism of the GLOBE study. Regarding these correlations, Hofstede (2006) questions the validity of the GLOBE measures and suggests that they do not capture what the researchers set out to measure. He argues that the question format and phrasing is quite complex and display a high level of abstraction 'rather far from the respondents' daily concerns' (Hofstede, 2006, p.885). Maseland and van Hoorn (2009, 2010), however, suggest that the negative correlations represent a general problem of self-report surveys, which are supposed to measure cultural values, but which actually capture marginal preferences. Maseland and van Hoorn (2009) transfer the concept of diminishing marginal utility from economics to culture research. In economics diminishing marginal utility describes the negative relationship between quantity and marginal utility. This means that every additional unit of a product yields less additional utility, hence the relationship is negative (Taras, Steel and Kirkman, 2010). Applying this argument to culture research, this suggests that every additional 'unit of a practice' is associated with lower value preference.

While Brewer and Venaik (2010) agree on the weakness that self-report surveys may not appropriately investigate the concept of cultural values, they do not consider that marginal preferences may explain the negative correlation. Initially the concept of diminishing marginal utility was developed to explore materialistic relationships, and Brewer and Venaik (2010) question whether this concept may be equally applied in the context of values, behaviours and practices.

According to Taras, Steel and Kirkman (2010), there exists no consensus on the debate of marginal preferences yet. They, however, consider that such a focus could be interesting for future culture research, even though it may lead back to ‘the very basics of culture conceptualization and measurement’ (Taras, Steel and Kirkman, 2010, p.8). This means, this criticism is not unique to the GLOBE study, it is rather a general criticism of cultural research. Among the numerous studies which measured cultural concepts, the GLOBE study (House et al. 2004) is described as one of the most recent, ambitious, and comprehensive investigations (Taras, Steel and Kirkman, 2010).

As can be seen from the discussion above, there exist various aspects to the criticism of Hofstede’s and the GLOBE approach to the measurement of culture. While Hofstede’s (1980) pioneering work has contributed to the increased interest in cross-cultural research, the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004) has succeeded in overcoming most of the criticism which was directed at cross-cultural research up to its development. Based on this argument and the critique presented of both studies, the present study follows the approach of the GLOBE study.

2.3.6 Further Value Approaches to Culture Measurement

Today more than 120 instruments for measuring culture exist and are summarised in a comprehensive catalogue by Taras (2010). In addition to the work of Hofstede and the GLOBE researchers, a number of major cross-cultural projects have been carried out since the 1990s (Hofstede 2006). These projects include the cultural value research by Schwartz (1999), a study carried out in 47 nations by Smith, Peterson and Schwartz (2002), and the World Values Survey led by Inglehart (Inglehart, Basañez and Moreno, 1998; Inglehart et al., 2004). A common theme of these studies is that they investigate the concept of culture by analysing cultural values using

quantitative methods. Further research investigating culture from a values approach includes the work of Trompenaars (1993) and Hampden-Turner (1998), which apply both quantitative and qualitative methods. These four value approaches to culture measurement will be discussed in more detail in the following sections.

(i) Schwartz's Cultural Value Research

In the 1990s, Schwartz developed his theory of cultural value types and the ways in which cultures may differ (Schwartz, 1999, 2006). His respondents, in contrast to Hofstede's IBM employees and GLOBE's middle managers, consisted of more than 35,000 school teachers and college students coming from more than 50 countries (Schwartz, 2001). According to Schwartz all societies are confronted with three issues. First, societies have to define the nature of the relationship between the individual and the group. Second, they have to guarantee responsible behaviour that will preserve the social concept. Finally, they have to confront the relationship of mankind to the natural and social world (Schwartz, 1999). Similar to Hofstede (1980), Schwartz' cultural research is organised in bi-polar dimensions. These are summarised in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6: Schwartz' Dimensions of Culture (adapted from Schwartz, 1999)

1. Relationship between the individual and the group	
Dimension	Description
Conservatism versus Intellectual/Affective Autonomy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Similar to the more widely accepted distinction of 'individualism versus collectivism' (e.g. Hofstede, 1980; Triandis 1995). • Conservatism reflects the preservation of a certain status quo so as not to disturb the traditional order within a society. The latter especially concerns 'social order, respect for tradition, family security, [or] wisdom' (Schwartz, 1999, p.27). • Cultures which are positioned at the other pole encourage autonomous behaviour of those who search to achieve their personal aims. Two types of 'autonomy' can be distinguished: the 'intellectual' one which refers to a person's specific ideas and thoughts, and the 'affective' one which is about feelings and emotions (Schwartz, 1999).
2. Guarantee responsible behaviour to preserve the social concept	
Dimension	Description
Hierarchy versus Egalitarianism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describes how social order may be preserved in a society, either by hierarchical or by egalitarian structures. • A culture that emphasises hierarchical structures is characterised by power differences and ascribed roles to guarantee social and responsible behaviour. Keywords in this context are 'social power, authority, humility, [and] wealth' (Schwartz, 1999, p.27). • An egalitarian culture is based on voluntary co-operation with others. It focuses on 'equality, social justice, freedom, responsibility, [and] honesty (Schwartz, 1999, p.28).
3. Relationship between mankind and the natural and social world	
Dimension	Description
Mastery versus Harmony	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Societies which can be found on the mastery pole assume that the world may be mastered and changed, whereas societies on the harmony-pole are characterised by accepting the world as it is. • Key aspects in the context of mastery are ambition, success, daring acts as well as competence. • Key aspects in the context of harmony are unity with nature, protection of the environment and world beauty (Schwartz, 1999).

Schwartz's model of cultural value types has a strong theoretical basis and demonstrates a number of methodological strengths (Schwartz, 1992, 1994). The meanings of all items were checked to ensure that they could be adopted across the

cultures under investigation. The stability of the value structures were also tested by dividing the sample into several sub-samples (Schwartz, 1994). Indicators of the validity of Schwartz's model (1994) are the correlations of Schwartz's dimensions to Hofstede's (1980, 2001) dimensions which share some similar content. Hofstede's individualism scale is, for example, positively correlated with affective and intellectual autonomy, and negatively correlated with conservatism (Schwartz, 1994).

The next section will discuss the application of Schwartz's cultural value dimensions to a business context.

(ii) Smith's, Peterson's and Schwartz's Cultural Value Research

The large cross-cultural study carried out by Smith, Peterson and Schwartz (2002), explored how middle managers in 47 countries handled eight work events in a manager's department. These included the appointment of a new subordinate, the replacement of equipment or machinery, and the introduction of new work procedures (Smith, Peterson and Schwartz, 2002). The purpose of this study was to test whether the cultural value dimensions which were developed by Hofstede (1980), Schwartz (1999) and Trompenaars (1993) could predict the source of guidance managers relied on to handle these eight work events (Smith, Peterson and Schwartz, 2002). Sources of guidance included formal and vertical sources, such as the reliance on formal rules and on superiors, as well as more tacit sources, such as the reliance on unwritten rules, or co-workers. Data from 7,035 managers in 47 different countries were analysed. The country sample sizes varied between 38 (Philippines) and 342 (US). Results showed that cultural values predicted the sources of guidance on which middle managers rely when dealing with vertical relationships with the organization, while cultural values were less reliable 'in predicting reliance on peers and on more tacit sources of

guidance' (Smith, Peterson and Schwartz, 2002, p.188). Hence, managers' inherent cultural values are believed to be an influencing factor when they have to decide about how to handle particular work events. Despite some limitations, such as small sample sizes in particular countries (e.g. Philippines), the work of Smith, Peterson and Schwartz (2002) provides further empirical evidence for the potential impact of culture on management behaviour.

(iii) Trompenaars' and Hampden-Turner's Cultural Value Research

Further important contributions to cross-cultural research since the 1990s are those by Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (Trompenaars, 1993; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998). Trompenaars (1993) started collecting data in the 1980s, which by the late 1990s comprised about 30,000 respondents from 50 different nations, including both management employees and administrative staff. Data was collected by means of a questionnaire and case studies, including interviews (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998).

Trompenaars (1993) developed seven dimensions for the analysis of cultural values. These are: 'universalism versus particularism', 'individualism versus communitarianism or collectivism', 'affective or emotional versus neutral relationships', 'specificity versus diffuseness', 'achievement versus ascription', 'orientation towards time' and, 'internal versus external control'. These seven dimensions represent three dilemmas or problems with which humankind is faced. Such dilemmas concern: (1) problems which occur in the context of relationships with other people, (2) problems which arise in relation to time, and (3) problems in relation to nature. The first five of the dimensions listed above deal with the first dilemma and are

derived from Parsons's relational orientations (cf. Parsons, 1951). Table 2.7 summarises these five dimensions.

Table 2.7: Trompenaars' Dimensions of Culture (Dilemma 1)

Dilemma 1: Problems arising from relationships with other people	
Dimension	Description
1. Universalism versus Particularism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Universalist societies are characterised by the strong attitude that general rules and obligations should be respected in any case and no exception should be accepted. • Particularist societies focus on particular interests that are more important than rules. Relationship and friendship play an important role and, therefore, come before the rules (Trompenaars, 1993).
2. Individualism versus Communitarianism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The difference between more individualistic or, in contrast, rather communitarian societies is whether the focus is first put on individuals' needs within a community or on the community to which individuals belong (Trompenaars, 1993).
3. Affective or Emotional versus Neutral Relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In affective societies emotional relations are part of daily life. It is also usual to show emotions in a business context as such behaviour is not considered to interrupt ongoing business. • In neutral societies, business relations are more task-oriented, it is important to achieve set aims within a given time-frame. Emotions are considered to confuse the working atmosphere (Trompenaars, 1993).
4. Specificity versus Diffuseness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In diffuse cultures, relationships are characterised not only by a simple topic. To successfully conclude a contract, it is essential to get to know the partner personally before talking about the content of the contract. Important focus is on the relationship and trust in the business partner. • In specific cultures, business practices are characterised by relationships which are task-oriented and prescribed by contracts. (Trompenaars, 1993).
5. Achievement versus Ascription	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achievement oriented societies are characterised by people who are assessed on their success of having accomplished particular tasks. • Ascription oriented societies assess people by their familial background, their gender, and by their status in specific networks. • In an achievement culture, one might be asked what they studied, in an ascriptive culture the question in which university someone studied is deemed much more important (Trompenaars, 1993).

The sixth dimension is allocated to the second dilemma and the seventh dimension is related to the third dilemma. Both are presented in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8: Trompenaars' Dimensions of Culture (Dilemma 2 and 3)

Dilemma 2: Problems arising in relation to time	
Dimension	Description
6. Attitudes to Time	<p>Societies differ in the way they perceive past, present and future:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some societies look back to the past and assess people's present status in terms of their past achievement. • Other societies are more oriented towards the future. People are assessed by their present and future plans. <p>The perception of 'time-models' differs between societies:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some societies consider time as a straight line or an array of sequences, event after event. • Other societies perceive time as a circle standing for a continuous flow between past, present and future (Trompenaars, 1993).
Dilemma 3: Problems in relation to nature	
Dimension	Description
7. Attitudes to Nature and the Environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Addresses the question of whether nature is supreme to individuals or vice versa. • Listening to music with a headset, for example, could be seen as an instrument to avoid disturbing others by loud music. Such an attitude reflects that the power of nature is considered supreme to the individual. • Listening to music with a headset could also be seen as an instrument to avoid being disturbed by others. This attitude reflects that nature is less powerful than individual needs (Trompenaars, 1993).

Trompenaars (1993) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) based their cultural model on extant theoretical work (e.g. Parsons, 1951). They did not develop new dimensions, but contributed to the development of existing theoretical foundations and underpinned these with data. However, there exist no particular country scores for the cultural dimensions and additional critique concerns a missing test of the empirical validity of these dimensions (Müller, 2007).

(iv) *The World Values Survey*

The World Values Survey, which is led by Ronald Inglehart, is a further cross-cultural study that is important in the context of large scale cross-cultural research. The World Values Surveys have been carried out every five years since 1990. Currently, the fifth wave of data collection is taking place (www.worldvaluessurvey.org). Inglehart assumes that values are related to two waves of economic development: the transition from an agrarian to an industrial society, and the transition from an industrial to a post-industrial, or knowledge society (Inglehart, 2006). The aim of the World Values Survey is to investigate socio-cultural and political change worldwide. Research has been carried out in more than 80 societies across all continents. The analyses of the World Values Surveys have provided evidence of gradual but pervasive changes in people's values over time (Inglehart and Welzel, 2005) and have generated numerous publications (e.g. Inglehart and Baker, 2000; Minkov, 2007; Smith, 2011).

The World Values Survey represents an enlargement of the European Values Study (EVS) which was carried out for the first time in 1981, and has been repeated every nine years since then (www.europeanvaluesstudy.eu). The fourth wave in 2008 covered 47 European nations and about 70,000 respondents. The purpose of the EVS is to analyse via questionnaires basic human values of the European population and to find out whether common European values exist, whether cultural values have changed over time, the role that Christianity plays in this context, and the likely implications of these developments for European unity. The four volumes of the study allow the analysis of change in European societies over a period of almost thirty years. The investigators, who are coordinated by the Work and Organization Research Centre based in Tilburg University (www.tilburguniversity.edu), found that there have been strong changes regarding civil, familial, and sexual mores. Detailed documentation of

the EVS can be found in the source books of the corresponding data collection waves (e.g. Halman, 2001; Halman and Vloet, 1994).

To summarise, the investigations by Schwartz, Trompenaars, Inglehart, and colleagues have in common that they use cultural values as a unit of analysis and investigate cultures at the societal level. Their respondents, though, are rather different: managers and administrative staff in the case of Trompenaars (1993) and school teachers and college students in the case of Schwartz (1999). Also, the number and definitions of dimensions along which they assess cultures are rather different. Despite the diversity of their work, these researchers are united in the belief that differences between cultures exist and persist. They are driven by the idea that the concept of culture can be measured and cultures therefore compared (Moore et al., 2008).

2.3.7 Value-Free Approaches to Culture Measurement

Other authors, such as Hall (1976), Leung, Bond and their colleagues (Leung and Bond, 2004; Leung et al., 2002) opt for a value-free approach to compare cultures (Taras, Roney and Steel, 2009). As the notion ‘value-free’ proclaims, these are authors who compare cultures by means of concepts other than values.

Hall (1976), for example, compared cultures according to their communication style. He differentiated between low and high-context cultures. In low-context cultures communication is very precise, whereas in high-context cultures a relevant part of communication can be understood from the context. Western societies belong to low-context cultures, while Asian societies are considered to be rather high-context cultures (Hall and Hall, 1990). According to Taras, Roney and Steel (2009) ‘no large-scale empirical cross-cultural comparison study has been undertaken to quantitatively

position existing cultures along the low-high-context dimensions' (p.359). The disadvantage of the low-high context approach is that it has not been tested by substantial empirical evidence yet, which would be required to validate the concept (Taras, Roney and Steel, 2009).

The value-free approach to culture measurement by Bond, Leung and colleagues describes culture in terms of general beliefs or 'social axioms' which guide behaviour. The purpose of their study was to reveal these general beliefs across cultures (Leung and Bond, 2004; Leung et al., 2002). Respondents of the study included 128 psychology students and 230 citizens in China, representing a total sample of 358 respondents. In Venezuela, the sample consisted of 203 respondents (95 students and 108 adults from metropolitan areas). The other responses were only gathered among university students: 114 students participated in the US, 99 in Germany, and 211 in Japan. Five dimensions of social axioms were developed and initially empirically tested (Leung et al., 2002). The dimensions which were found by Leung and colleagues are 'cynicism', 'social complexity', 'reward for application', 'spirituality', and 'fate control'.

A further study across 41 nations replicated their initial findings and provided additional empirical evidence of Leung et al.'s (2002) model of social axioms (Bond et al., 2004). To conclude, Leung and colleagues succeeded in the initial step of developing a framework of social axioms in order to identify major general beliefs which are likely to prevail across cultures (Leung et al., 2002). In addition, they were able to complement this initial step with a large scale cross-cultural study which evaluated the generality of these social axioms across numerous cultures (Bond et al., 2004).

As was shown in this section, there exist limited approaches to measuring cultural differences which are free from a value-perspective. The concept of Hall (1976) lacks empirical evidence, whereas the work of Leung and colleagues regarding social axioms has been successfully tested. Regardless of missing or existing empirical evidence though, these researchers, like those researchers who follow cultural value approaches, are united in the idea that societal cultures are different from each other and that the concept of culture can be measured at societal level.

2.4 Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the concept of culture. The roots of cultural research which lie in anthropological research were discussed and definitions of culture were presented. Despite a long list of definitions, most researchers agree on the concept of culture as being a shared meaning which is transmitted across generations. This can be represented as an 'onion' diagram with cultural values at its core. The levels of societal and organisational culture were detailed in the chapter, and it was shown that societal culture is the most relevant determinant of organisational culture.

Further, the chapter described the development of measuring the concept of culture. It explained the shift from qualitative to quantitative methods of measuring culture and discussed value and value-free approaches to culture measurement. Regardless of their research approach, researchers involved in cross-cultural investigations are agreed that society is the appropriate unit of analysis and are driven by the idea that differences between cultures exist. They argue that the construct of culture can be measured and, therefore, cultures can be compared to each other.

A review of Hofstede's (1980) seminal work and the GLOBE study contributed to the justification for the present study, which follows the approach of the GLOBE study. Major arguments presented in the chapter are that the GLOBE study overcomes most of the criticism which has been levelled at Hofstede's work, and that the GLOBE study is the most recent and ambitious cross-cultural investigation available.

From this review of the culture literature, one major argument is relevant for the construction of the research questions. This specific argument is that culture is a concept which can be measured and, hence, compared, which implies that differences between cultures exist. This builds the basis for the research questions addressing differences in the structure and content of cognitive leadership schemas in a French and German business context. More detail about the nature of these differences will be clarified in the next two literature review chapters.

CHAPTER III

LEADERSHIP: CONCEPTUALISATION AND LEADERSHIP THEORIES

3.1 Introduction

The following chapter provides an overview of the conceptualisation of leadership in an organisational context and outlines recent research developments in this area. The chapter will be introduced by presenting the origins of leadership which will include a discussion of definitions of leadership and a comparison of the terms leadership and management. The specific relationship between leaders and followers will be summarised and the concept of leadership effectiveness will be clarified. This chapter will provide further details of different theories of leadership and discuss contingency theories as well as charismatic and transformational theories. An overview of more contemporary leadership theories including implicit leadership theories will lead into connectionist theory. This theory is assigned to the cognitive science leadership approach and sets the basis for the quantitative part of this cross-cultural study. The chapter closes with a brief summary.

3.2 The Nature and Origins of Leadership

As with the notion of culture, no universally agreed-upon definition of leadership exists (Bass, 2008). The purpose of this section is, therefore, to briefly discuss the origins of leadership and summarise major definitions of the concept. In order to holistically present the term of leadership, the notion of management in contrast to leadership will be introduced. The relationship between leaders and followers and the notion of leadership effectiveness will also be outlined.

3.2.1 The Origins of Leadership Research

Scientific research on leadership as it pertains to organisations only began in the 20th century. The initial research interest within the field of leadership focused on individual leaders who were predominantly male and working for large organisations in the private sector in the US (Avolio et al., 2003; Ayman, 2003; Day, 2000; Morrison, 2000). Over time, the context of leadership research has become increasingly diverse and now includes private, public, and not-for-profit organisations.

While leadership was initially examined by identifying individuals' leadership characteristics, more recently it is regarded as a more complex social dynamic which focuses on dyadic, shared, relational, strategic, and global concepts of leadership (Avolio, 2007; Yukl, 2010). More recent investigations view leadership as a process which involves several people within a group or organisation (Drath and Palus, 1994), including a focus on 'followers, peers, supervisors, work setting/context, and culture' (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009, p.422). It, therefore, takes the context in which leadership can be observed into consideration (Avolio, 2007). Other recent research questions relate to leadership emergence and influences on leader actions (Yukl, 2010).

The research has also become more international by including samples of respondents from different nations (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009). The most important theme emerging from much of this body of literature is a focus on leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2010). The following discussion of leadership definitions aims to examine this term in greater detail.

3.2.2 Definitions of Leadership

There exists a multitude of definitions of leadership in an organisational context, which is the context of interest to this thesis. Stogdill (1974) summarises his

comprehensive review of the leadership literature by pointing out that ‘there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept’ (p.259). Yukl (2010) explains the multitude of leadership definitions by arguing that ‘leadership is a word taken from the common vocabulary and incorporated into the technical vocabulary of a scientific discipline without being precisely redefined’ (p.20). Table 3.1 presents a selection of leadership definitions.

Table 3.1: Definitions of Leadership (adapted from Yukl, 2010)

Definition	Source
Leadership is ‘the process of influencing activities of an organized group toward goal achievement’.	Rauch and Behling (1984, p.46)
Leadership is ‘the ability to step outside the culture [...] to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive’.	Schein (2004, p.2)
‘Leadership is realized in the process whereby one or more individuals succeed in attempting to frame and define the reality of others’.	Smircich and Morgan (1982, p.258)
‘Leadership is the process of making sense of what people are doing together so that people will understand and be committed’.	Drath and Palus (1994, p.4)
Leadership is ‘the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization’.	Katz and Kahn (1978, p.528)
‘Leadership is exercised when persons [...] mobilize [...] institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers’.	Burns (1978, p.18)
‘Leadership is a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose’.	Jacobs and Jaques (1990, p.281)
Leadership is ‘the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members’.	House and Javidan (2004, p.15)
Leadership is ‘the behaviour of an individual [...] directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal’.	Hemphill and Coons (1957, p.7)
‘Leadership is about articulating visions, embodying values, and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished’.	Richards and Engle (1986, p.206)

In general, most definitions describe leadership as a process of influence, in which the influence of leaders on other people contribute to particular objectives of a group or an organisation (House and Javidan, 2004; Michener, DeLamater and

Schwartz, 1990; Rauch and Behling, 1984; Smircich and Morgan, 1982). Leadership is a group phenomenon (Drath and Paulus, 1994), and a leader cannot be designated unless they have followers (Hollander, 1993). Leadership implies the accomplishment of specific goals and it is the leader's responsibility to direct their followers toward achieving their set goals (Hemphill and Coons, 1957). The notion of leaders and followers implies a certain hierarchy (Nahavandi, 2000). Porter and Geis (1981), as Hollander (1993) define leadership as a social phenomenon within groups:

‘Becoming a leader depends on acting like a leader, but even more crucially, it depends on being seen by others as a leader (Porter and Geis, 1981, p.39).

Porter and Geis' (1981) definition of leadership is related to the social perception of leadership. Social perception is important insofar as it influences individuals regarding how they accept that a specific person is qualified for leadership tasks and appropriate to be their leader. Thus, Lord and Maher (1991) define leadership as ‘the process of being perceived as a leader’ (p.11).

As can be seen, definitions of leadership are subjective and vary from researcher to researcher (Campbell, 1977). Yukl (2010) thus concludes that ‘there is no single “correct” definition that captures the essence of leadership’ (p.26). However, researchers agree on leadership as a social phenomenon within groups which is characterised by an influence process between leaders and followers, where followers perceive leaders as such in order to accomplish organisational goals.

3.2.3 Leadership versus Management

In the context of defining leadership, the term management must be described in order to clearly differentiate between the two conceptualisations. The difference between the terms leadership and management has been the subject of some controversy in the literature (Bass, 1985; Schruijer and Vansina, 2002; Watson, 2002;

Yukl, 1999a; Zaleznik, 2004). According to Yukl (2010) ‘nobody has proposed that managing and leading are equivalent, but the degree of overlap is a point of sharp disagreement’ (p.24).

There is consensus that leadership and management are two different processes, but that one person can be a leader and a manager at the same time (e.g. Bass and Stogdill, 1990; Hickmann, 1990; Kotter, 1988; Mintzberg, 1973; Rost, 1991). For example, Mintzberg (1973) suggests that an individual can be both a leader and a manager and he regards leadership as only one managerial role among nine others. He describes leading as motivating subordinates and establishing a favourable work environment to enable them to work effectively. This leading role dominates the nine other roles which consist of managing responsibilities such as monitoring, negotiating, and disseminating information. In keeping with this argument, Kotter (1988) distinguishes between both concepts by suggesting that management contributes to predictability and order within an organisation, whereas leadership contributes to organisational change. A balance between managing and leading is required to guarantee an organisation’s performance. When organisations grow and become larger, more management is required, while the focus is put on leadership when the external environment of the organisation changes. As Kotter (1988) empirically demonstrated, a perfect balance between both processes is difficult to achieve. More recently, organisational research has been concerned with the question of how both processes – leading and managing – can be integrated (Yukl and Lepsinger, 2005) and the majority of scholars agree that leadership is a part of successful management within an organisation (Yukl, 2010). A further management success factor concerns the effectiveness of the relationship between leader and follower which will be detailed in subsequent sections.

3.2.4 The Leader-Follower Relationship

According to Hollander (1993) ‘without followers, there are plainly no leaders or leadership’ (p.29). Hence, leadership can be described as the process of being perceived as a leader by others (Lord and Maher, 1991), or as a relationship which is produced by leaders and followers together (e.g. Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995; Hollander, 1993; Jermier, 1993; Klein and House, 1995; Shamir, 2007). Such an approach overcomes the criticism of leadership theories as being too ‘leader centric’ (e.g. Meindl, 1990, 1995). Howell and Shamir (2005) acknowledge the active role of followers in the context of a leadership process: ‘leaders and followers both play an active role in shaping their mutual relationships, and therefore in shaping organizational outcomes’ (p.108). Lord and his colleagues (e.g. Hall and Lord, 1995; Lord, Brown and Freiberg, 1999; Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001) agree that followers play a critical role in determining the leader-follower relationship and affirm that ‘the follower remains an unexplored source of variance in understanding leadership processes’ (Lord, Brown and Freiberg, 1999, p.167).

The literature that incorporates followers as a relevant variable in the context of leadership processes tends to rely on relational models such as leader-member exchange theory (e.g. Brower, Schoorman and Tan, 2000; Graen and Uhl-Bien 1995; Liden and Antonakis, 2009; Scandura, Graen and Novak, 1986; Schriesheim, Castor and Cogliser, 1999; Schyns and Day, 2010). This theory asserts that the quality of the relationship between leader and follower influences the quality of leadership and its outcomes (Gerstner and Day, 1997).

Other studies have explored the effect of followers on leadership processes through, for example, the moderating effects of leadership on work outcomes due to particular follower characteristics (e.g. Dvir and Shamir, 2003; Erhart and Klein, 2001;

Wofford, Whittington and Goodwin, 2001). Erhart and Klein (2001) carried out a laboratory study among 267 college students and found that participants' values and personality could be used to predict their preference for specific leadership styles. They examined charismatic leadership versus two other styles which were labelled as relationship-oriented and task-oriented leadership (Erhart and Klein, 2001) and called for more research to explore the role of followers in the formation of charismatic relationships. Dvir and Shamir (2003) explored the influence of 800 followers on transformational leadership in 54 military units over a period of four months. They found that transformational leadership is not only inherent in leaders but can be changed by leader-follower relations over time. Dvir and Shamir (2003) argue that this highlights the need for inclusion of followers' characteristics in the study of leadership. Howell and Shamir (2005) thus suggest focusing more on the active role that a follower may play when deciding whether to follow a particular leader. Such decision processes of followers are mainly influenced by the degree to which followers' values and identity can be represented by the leader (Howell and Shamir, 2005).

On the basis of these findings, it appears to be essential to take followers into account when investigating and understanding the processes that shape perceptions of leadership.

3.2.5 Leadership Effectiveness

As outlined in section 3.2.1, leadership research is primarily concerned with leadership effectiveness (Chemers, 2001; Yukl, 1999a; Yukl, 2010). The aim of this section is to provide a brief overview of the measurability of leadership effectiveness. As with the definition of leadership, conceptualisations of leader effectiveness differ between researchers but most agree that leadership effectiveness can be evaluated by its

‘consequences of influence on a single individual, a team or group, or an organization’ (Yukl, 2010, p.28). Consequences of leadership influence include measurable indicators such as objective measures of return on investment or productivity (e.g. House, 1971; Mahsud, Yukl and Prussia, 2011; Spreitzer, Perttula and Xin, 2005), in addition to subjective measures such as follower attitudes and perceptions of the leader (e.g. Ayman and Chemers, 1983; van Knippenberg et al., 2005; Weinberger, 2009). A summary of the main measures of leadership effectiveness that are used in leadership research is provided in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Objective and Subjective Measures of Leadership Effectiveness

Objective measures	
Measures	Authors
Performance or goal achievement <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Net profits • Profit margins • Market share • Other 	Mahsud, Yukl and Prussia (2011); Marcoulides and Heck (1993); Kaiser, Hogan and Craig (2008); Kumarasinghe and Hoshino (2010); Waldman and Yammarino (1999)
Leader career path <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promotion time span • Age and experience of managers 	Brutus, McCauley and Fleenor (1996); Mumford et al. (2000)
Subjective measures	
Measures	Authors
Follower attitudes, perceptions and beliefs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Followers’ needs and expectations 	Awamleh and Gardner (1999); Barroso Castro, Villegas Perriñan and Casillas Bueno (2008); Howell and Shamir (2005)
Perceptions of the leader <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respect for and admiration of the leader • Trust 	Barbuto Jr. (2000); Dhar and Mishra (2001); Tsai, Chen and Cheng (2009)
Leader’s role in group processes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encouraging co-operation • Preparation for change 	Awamleh and Gardner (1999); Gilley, Dixon and Gilley (2008); Oreg and Berson (2011); Smollan and Parry (2011)

As can be seen from Table 3.2, leadership effectiveness has been investigated in a multitude of ways. These studies aim to analyse the extent to which a group or any other organisational unit improves its performance or achieves other specific goals as a

result of different leadership styles or attributes among managers (Yukl, 2010). Hence, leadership effectiveness is connected to leadership styles or leadership attributes and is, therefore, relevant for this study as leadership in France and leadership in Germany are expected to be different. This means that a French manager in Germany might be considered less effective than in France, and vice versa. More detail about the specific French and German leadership context will be discussed in later chapters of this thesis.

3.2.6 Leadership Adjustment

Research on so-called expatriate adjustment provides insights into how the expatriate experience, including the experience of expatriate leaders, can influence a number of important outcomes. This is relevant to the present study, investigating the perceptions of leadership of employees and managers in France and Germany, since leadership is most effective when leaders and followers have similar perceptions of effective leadership (Lord and Maher, 1991). This means that followers are more motivated to follow when their expectations about leadership correspond to their leader's actual leadership behaviour (Lord and Maher, 1991).

According to Selmer (1999), the successful implementation of global strategies 'depends on getting the right people with the right skills, at the right time' (p.77), and in the right place. This involves the movement of employees and managers across national borders (Adler and Bartholomew, 1992). The development of internationally mobile expatriates is therefore regarded as a strategic imperative in multinational corporations due to the need for employees and managers to be available for foreign assignments (Downes and Thomas, 1997; Punnet, 1997; Thomas and Lazarova, 2006; Tung, 1981). Thus, the topic of international adjustment is extremely relevant when seeking to understand the nature of cross-cultural leadership.

While domestic adjustment concerns the basic process where employees or managers adjust to a new setting (e.g. in a new leadership role within the same country), international adjustment describes the process of how expatriates adjust to a foreign work context (Black, Mendenhall and Oddou, 1991). The terms adaptation, adjustment and acculturation are used interchangeably and most of the definitions refer to adjustment as the fit between individuals and their social environment (Gudykunst, Wiseman and Hammer, 1977). The challenge for expatriates, including expatriate leaders, in undertaking foreign assignments is that they are faced with the challenges of adjusting to a different way of life than in their own country, while at the same time having to perform successfully in an unfamiliar work context. In this context, Sanchez, Spector and Cooper (2000) stated that

‘learning to manage in and cope with a foreign environment involves a profound personal transformation [...]. Indeed a management style that works at home may fail to produce the desired response abroad, or it may be even counterproductive’ (p.96).

Some expatriates have difficulties in adjusting to their new cultural environment, which results in them returning prematurely to their home country. Such expatriate failure can incur considerable costs (Scullion and Collings, 2011; Selmer, 1999). However, it has been argued that expatriates who fail to adjust, but who remain working on foreign assignments, do not perform effectively and can cause even more damage to their company than those who return prematurely (Forster, 1997; Harzing, 1995; Scullion, Collings and Caligiuri, 2010). Thus, an understanding of the adjustment process is critical for organisations in order to successfully manage expatriate assignments.

The most well-known framework for analysing adjustment processes is the model of Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) including work adjustment, general adjustment and interaction adjustment. ‘Work adjustment’ reflects the adjustment of

expatriates to work, 'general adjustment' reflects the adjustment of expatriates to the general environment of the host country, and 'interaction adjustment' reflects the adjustment of expatriates in their interactions with host nationals. This concept of adjustment, however, has been criticised for being too ambiguous to investigate the everyday challenges experienced by expatriates in a foreign work context (Hippler and Caligiuri, 2009). Searle and Ward (1990) further criticise that the definition of 'adjustment' is not clear enough, and there is a lack of knowledge about how adjustment changes over time.

Two types of adjustment are described in the literature: psychological and socio-cultural adjustment (Ward, Bochner and Furnham, 2001). Psychological adjustment describes the psychological well-being of expatriates in a foreign context and is considered as a predictor of premature returns of expatriates (Dowling, Festing and Engle, 2008). Socio-cultural adjustment describes the ability of the expatriate to successfully interact with people of the host culture. It is considered to be a predictor for measures of success such as task fulfilment.

Since the seminal work of Black and his colleagues, adjustment has been analysed in multiple ways and many variables have been used to measure adjustment (Anderson, 1994). To date, the field of cross-cultural adjustment is characterised by three main topics: antecedents, modes and outcomes of adjustment (Haslberger, 2005) as detailed in Figure 3.1 below.

Figure 3.1: Overview of Important Variables in Current Adjustment Research
(adapted from Festing and Maletzky, 2011)

Antecedents	Modes	Outcomes
Individual Job Organisational Non-work	Strategies of adjustment (e.g. coping)	<i>Psychological</i> Interaction adjustment Work adjustment General adjustment <i>Socio-cultural</i>

As can be seen from Figure 3.1 antecedents can be grouped according to four categories: individual, job-related, organisational and non-work-related factors. Modes of adjustment usually focus on the strategies, which are used to achieve adjustment. Table 3.3 below provides an overview of the three main categories identified above, and examples of research undertaken to investigate them.

Table 3.3: Antecedents, Modes and Outcomes of Cross-Cultural Leadership Adjustment

Variables		Examples from the literature
Antecedents		
Individual factors	- gender - self efficacy and monitoring - goal orientation - communication competency and strategies - nationality, culture	Gong and Chang (2007); Harrison, Chadwick and Scales (1996); Jun and Gentry (2005); Komisarof (2009); Manev and Stevenson (2001); Masgoret (2006); Ouvarasse and van de Vijver (2005); Selmer (1999); Varma, Pichler and Budhwar (2011)
Job-related factors	- role ambiguity - role discretion - role conflict	Black and Gregersen (1991); Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991)
Organisational factors	- company support - pre-departure (intercultural training) - post-departure (work rule novelty)	Aycan (1997); Black, Gregersen and Mendenhall (1992); Claus, Lungu and Bhattacharjee (2011); Forster (1992); Mendenhall and Oddou (1985); Tung (1987)
Non-work-related factors	- family issues	Birdseye and Hill (1995); Caligiuri et al. (1998); Elfenbein and Ambady (2003); Selmer (2007)
Modes		
- coping strategies		Navara and James (2002); Stahl and Caligiuri (2005)
Outcomes		
Interaction adjustment Work adjustment General adjustment		Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991); Haslberger (2008)

As can be seen from Table 3.3 nationality and culture are individual factors which can influence the process of cross-cultural leadership adjustment. Manev and Stevenson (2001), for example, investigated effects on the managerial network in multinational enterprises among a sample of more than 450 managers of 41 different nationalities. The researchers found that managers who come from similar cultures establish and maintain strong network ties, which are considered to be highly relevant to work since ‘initiatives are often coordinated through the network rather than through

the hierarchy' (Manev and Stevenson, 2001, p.298). This means that it is more difficult to create such ties between managers with different cultural backgrounds, and that the adjustment process of expatriates might be influenced by their nationality.

One of the key organisational factors which is believed to contribute to the success of foreign assignments is cross-cultural training prior to leaving for the foreign assignment (Black and Mendenhall, 1990). The lack of training is considered as a primary reason for high expatriate failure rates (Adler, 2004; Black, 1988; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985). Non-work related factors include family issues. The study by Caligiuri et al. (1998), for example, found that criteria such as the support of the expatriate's family and their adaptability were related to the expatriate's adjustment to working in the host country.

A further factor which influences the process of cross-cultural adjustment concerns the coping strategies of expatriates. These consist of the strategies which are used by expatriates to 'manage, reduce, or overcome the environmental (e.g. cultural differences) and internal demands (e.g. role conflict) they encounter' (Stahl and Caligiuri, 2005, p.604). Coping strategies can be either problem-focused or emotion-focused (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Problem-focused coping strategies include behaviours which are 'aimed at the management of the person-environment relationship directly at the source of the stress' (Stahl and Caligiuri, 2005, p.604). Emotion-focused coping strategies describe the regulation of emotions which result from the stress. An interesting feature of these coping strategies is that the outcome of these strategies is dependent on the context and not inherently effective or ineffective (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). The study by Stahl and Caligiuri (2005), which investigated the adjustment of German expatriates in the US and in Japan, for example, found that 'the effectiveness of expatriate coping strategies on cross-cultural adjustment depends on

contingencies such as the country of assignment and position level (Stahl and Caligiuri, 2005, p. 611). The finding regarding the country of assignment is in line with previous research which suggested that, in the context of 'cultural distance' (Hofstede, 1980), 'cultural novelty' (Black, Mendenhall and Oddou, 1991), 'cultural toughness' (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985), or 'cultural barriers' (Torbiörn, 1982), some countries may be more difficult to adjust to than others. The finding about position level is in line with previous studies which suggested that expatriates who have a higher status within organisations may be more cross-culturally adjusted than those at lower levels (Caligiuri, Joshi and Lazarova, 1999). This can be explained by expatriates at higher levels who may have better coping options (e.g. greater autonomy, authority, and control over resources), with greater resources (e.g. larger budget to hire interpreters, or cultural coaches) to use problem-focused strategies. Another explanation might be that host national subordinates would acknowledge and respect the power of the more senior expatriates, and thus, could be more willing to help expatriates in higher level positions (Stahl and Caligiuri, 2005).

A further relevant finding of the study by Stahl and Caligiuri (2005) is that the use of problem-focused coping strategies did not seem to influence the desire of expatriates to stay in the host country. Their desire to remain on the international assignment was found to be primarily related to the country of assignment and the amount of time expatriates had spent in the host country. Expatriates who stayed in a more culturally similar country and who were on assignment in the host country for a longer time period were more likely to remain on the international assignment (Stahl and Caligiuri, 2005).

As can be seen, cross-cultural adjustment is influenced by numerous factors. The research in this area is dominated by a psychological perspective, and the research

referring to socio-cultural aspects focuses on the influence of the family or spouse, social networks and the perception of the expatriate's adjustment by their local counterparts (Festing and Maletzky, 2011). Hence, researchers in the area of cross-cultural adjustment call for a greater emphasis on the social dimension including a focus on leadership issues (Festing and Maletzky, 2011; Haslberger, 2005; Takeuchi, 2010). In conclusion, the area of cross-cultural adjustment remains a relevant field of research in the context of ongoing globalisation: the success of expatriates in their foreign assignments depends on their adjustment level which in turn will influence the performance of multinational companies.

3.3 Theories of Leadership

This section presents an overview of leadership theories in an attempt to contextualise this study. Early contingency theories will be briefly outlined followed by theories of transformational and transactional leadership, and finally by contemporary developments.

3.3.1 Contingency Theories of Leadership

Contingency theories evolved from research which conceptualised leadership as a trait, or as a behaviour. So-called trait theories, dating back to the early 20th century, were based on the idea that leaders were born and not made, and aimed at identifying those individuals, who were born to be great leaders, in order to assign them positions of leadership (Yukl, 2010). However, these theories ignored situational and environmental elements which might play a role in identifying these leaders and failed to account for individuals who possessed these traits yet were not in a leader position

(Neera, Anjaneer and Shoma, 2010). Hence, leadership needed explanation beyond the notion of traits.

Further studies looked alternatively at leader behaviour to examine how it impacts upon organisational performance (Halpin and Winer, 1957; Hemphill and Coons, 1957). This approach became known as the Michigan and Ohio State leadership studies and yielded similar empirical results in other research. As a result leadership was not considered to consist of inborn traits, but of behaviour which could be taught to individuals (Neera, Anjaneer and Shoma, 2010).

Contingency theories overcome the criticism of overlooking situational and environmental elements and, therefore, consider the interaction between leaders' traits, behaviours, as well as the situation in which leadership occurs. Early contingency theorists such as Weber (1924, 1947) acknowledged the importance of context for leadership research. He found that differences existed between bureaucratic and charismatic leaders and that the emergence of charismatic leaders was due to social crisis. Although this assumption was questioned by further research (e.g. Bass and Stogdill, 1990), the consideration of context within leadership research became a feature of subsequent research (Bass, 1985; Beyer, 1999; Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Klein and House, 1995). Table 3.4 provides an overview of the most relevant contingency theories.

Table 3.4: Overview of Contingency Theories of Leadership

Theory	Summary
Trait contingency model (Fiedler, 1967)	Considers two variables in defining leader effectiveness: leadership style and the extent to which the situation of a leader is favourable for influence. Leadership style is measured through the Least Preferred Co-worker scale. Situational favourability is defined by leader-member relations, task structure, and position power (Fiedler, 1967).
Situational leadership theory (SLT) (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969)	Explains that leaders' task behaviour and relationship behaviour interact with subordinate maturity and influence leader effectiveness. SLT considers one situational variable (subordinate maturity) as a moderator of two leader behaviours (task and relationship) and leadership effectiveness (Blank, Weitzel and Green, 1990).
Normative contingency theory (Vroom and Yetton, 1973)	Argues that two factors in decision-making are crucial: the amount of information the leader has about the decision and the degree of support the leader is likely to have from followers to implement the decision made. Identifies a continuum of leader decision styles depending on the level of involvement of followers in the decision (Neera, Anjane and Shoma, 2010).
Path-goal theory (House and Mitchell, 1974)	Considers leadership as an interaction between followers' goals and the leader. It suggests that leaders should help followers develop behaviours which are favourable for goal achievement. It argues that the effect of four leader behaviours (supportive, directive, participative, and achievement oriented) on subordinate effort and satisfaction is moderated by task and subordinate characteristics (House and Mitchell, 1974).

Contingency theories consider contextual elements such as Fiedler's (1967) trait contingency model, Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) situational theory, Vroom and Yetton's (1973) normative contingency theory, and House and Mitchell's (1974) path-goal theory as described in Table 3.4. A common feature of these theories is that they all attribute different leadership styles to particular contextual demands which positively impact performance outcomes (Avolio, 2007). Thus, based on these theories, assertions can be made about which traits are most likely effective in specific situations (Morrison, 2000). Such an approach assumes that the attainment of favoured outcomes

is ‘a function of what some authors termed the *fit* or *match* between leader’s traits, style, and orientation and follower maturity and situational challenges’ (Avolio, 2007, p.27f).

Thus, from the perspective of contingency theorists, leadership is a relationship between individuals in social situations, and individuals who are labelled as leaders in one situation may not be viewed as leaders in another (e.g. Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958; Stogdill, 1974). Contingency theory differentiates between internal contingencies and external contingencies as can be seen in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Examples of Internal and External Contingencies

Internal contingencies		
Attributes		Authors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal qualities of leaders • Experience and personality of followers • Cultural orientation 		Avolio (2005); Avolio and Luthans (2006); House and Mitchell (1974); Maurer (2002)
External contingencies		
Attributes		Authors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategy • Technology • Organisational structure • Culture 		Bass (1997); Brown (2004); Lord and Yukl (2010); Triandis (1995)
Hard	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stability of social context 	Fiedler (1967); Weber (1924,1947)
Soft	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Psychologically safe climate 	Hofman, Morgeson and Gerras (2003)

Internal contingencies are discussed in, for example, path-goal theory (cf. House and Mitchell, 1974) and involve elements ‘such as personal qualities of leaders, experience of followers, personality of followers, gender, motivation, capability, and cultural orientation’ (Avolio, 2007, p.27). External contingencies involve different aspects of context ‘such as strategy, technology, organizational structure, position, stability, tasks, climate strength, social and physical distance, and culture’ (Avolio, 2007, p.27). Furthermore, external contingencies can be sub-divided into hard and soft

contingencies (Yukl, 1999b). A hard contingency, for example, might be the stability of a social context (e.g. Fiedler, 1967; Weber, 1924, 1947), whereas a soft contingency could be represented by a psychologically safe climate within organisations where employees feel at ease with expressing criticism towards, for example, organisational processes (Hofmann, Morgeson and Gerras, 2003).

The contingency theories of the 1970s developed further from behavioural theories of leadership effectiveness, such as path-goal theory (House and Mitchell, 1974) and normative decision theory (Vroom and Yetton, 1973) to theories of transformational and charismatic leadership theories in the late 1980s (Yukl, 1999b).

3.3.2 Transformational and Charismatic Leadership Theories

From contingency theories, leadership theory shifted to transformational leadership which acknowledged the relevant role of followers in the leadership process. Since then, leadership researchers have recognised leadership as a perceptual phenomenon where the perceptions of followers are an important determinant of leader influence (Awamleh and Gardner, 1999).

Transformational leadership 'has been the most frequently researched leadership theory over the last two decades' (Avolio, 2007, p.26) in explaining the leaders' influence on followers, and thus, provides an essential contribution to the understanding of leadership processes (Yukl, 1999b). Transformational leadership is defined as the effect leaders have on followers and the behaviour which is used to achieve this effect (Bass, 1985). Yukl (1999b) details:

'The followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader, and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do. The underlying influence process is described in terms of motivating followers by making them more aware of the importance of task outcomes and inducing them to transcend their own self interest for the sake of the organization' (Yukl, 1999b, p.286).

Thus, a transformational leader is a person who motivates followers by demonstrating their contribution to the achievement of organisational goals. Researchers investigating transformational leadership include e.g. Bass (1985); Bennis and Nanus (1985); Burns (1978); Sashkin (1988); Tichy and Devanna (1986, 1990).

Leadership theory distinguishes transformational from transactional leadership behaviour (e.g. Bass, 1985). Both types of behaviours are defined 'in terms of the component behaviours used to influence followers and the effects of the leader on followers' (Yukl, 2010, p.277). Transactional leadership is different from transformational leadership insofar as it includes a process of exchange between leaders and followers in which followers carry out their leaders' requests (Yukl, 1999b). Contingent reward behaviour, passive and active management by exception are elements of transactional leadership behaviour (Yukl, 1999b). Transformational leadership behaviour is characterised by the following: individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation, idealised influence (charisma), inspirational motivation, articulating a vision, and high performance expectations (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Bass (1985) also agrees that transformational and transactional leadership behaviours are distinct, but are not mutually exclusive processes. Effective leaders combine both types of leadership behaviour (Yukl, 2010).

These types of leadership can be measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), the content of which has changed and developed over time (Avolio, Bass and Jung, 1999; Bass and Avolio, 1990). Within this questionnaire subordinates rate the frequency of which particular types of behaviour are displayed by their superiors. Most of the studies which investigate transformational and transactional leadership behaviour by means of the MLQ agree with the distinction between both types of leadership. Furthermore, there is consensus among empirical findings

regarding the effectiveness of transformational leadership, which is not found for transactional leadership. Positive correlations with effectiveness criteria such as subordinate satisfaction, motivation and performance have been reported (e.g. Lowe, Kroeck and Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

As described above, one component of transformational leadership is charisma, as also measured by the MLQ. The construct of charisma, however, serves also as a basis for theories of charismatic leadership (e.g. Conger and Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977; Shamir, House and Arthur, 1993). Charismatic leadership theories focus on leader behaviour in order to stimulate followers (Awamleh and Gardner, 1999).

Originally, the word charisma comes from an ancient Greek word and means 'gift' (Conger and Kanungo, 1987). Weber (1968) defines it as

'a certain quality of an individual by virtue of which he is considered extraordinary and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities' (p.241).

In the context of charismatic leadership theories, House and Baetz (1979) define charismatic leaders as individuals who 'by the force of their personal abilities are capable of having profound and extraordinary effects on followers' (p.339).

Weber differentiates further between 'pure charisma' and 'routinized charisma'. Pure charisma comes from the leader's behaviour, whereas routinized charisma comes from the position which a leader formally occupies or inherits. Leadership research, however, is primarily concerned with the first type of charisma which is based on a leader's actual or presumed behaviour (Awamleh and Gardner, 1999) which stems from the 'personal example of the leader or the attributions of behavior made to the leader by subordinates' (House, Spangler and Woycke, 1991, p.366). This means that charisma may also be attributed to leaders because they appear to be the source of successful outcomes (Meindl, 1990).

To summarise, charismatic leadership theories describe ‘the amount of leader influence over followers and the type of leader-follower relationship that emerges’ (Yukl 1999b, p.293). Different instruments have been developed to measure charismatic leadership behaviour and there is broad empirical evidence of this concept (House, Spangler and Woycke, 1991). For example, the instrument developed by Shamir et al. (1998) captures four behaviours which are believed to describe charismatic leadership. These concern supportive behaviour, displaying exemplary behaviour (identical to role modelling), emphasising ideology, and emphasising collective identity. Based on their approach to charismatic leadership, Conger and Kanungo (1994, 1998) developed and validated their measure, the so-called C-K Scale. This scale measures the following key behaviours: articulating an innovative strategic vision, showing sensitivity to follower needs, displaying unconventional behaviour, taking personal risks, and showing sensitivity to the environment.

Overall, charismatic leadership theories have been tested using diverse methods such as surveys (e.g. Conger and Kanungo, 1994) and interviews (e.g. Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Howell and Higgins, 1990) across a wide range of populations such as military combat leaders (e.g. Shamir et al., 1998), managers of various levels (e.g. Waldman and Yammarino, 1999), and educational leaders (e.g. Roberts, 1985).

As with most of the leadership theories, there is no unique consensus on the meaning of charismatic leadership (Bryman, 1993). A majority of the theories acknowledge the important role of followers in attributing extraordinary qualities to the leader. According to Conger and Kanungo (1988, 1998) such attributions originate from leaders’ characteristics, their followers, and situations. House (1977), and Shamir, House and Arthur (1993), however, only consider the influence a leader may have on follower attitudes and motivation, regardless of the extraordinary qualities which are

attributed by the followers to the leader. Yukl (1999b) hence suggests that definitions of charismatic leadership include followers' attributions of charisma to a leader, where followers strongly identify with the leader. According to Yukl (1999b) such an approach would be close to the original meaning of charisma and would provide a basis for the distinction between charismatic and transformational leadership.

Both these leadership theories have become widely accepted in the leadership literature and are summarised under the label of new-genre leadership. Some criticism persists however. First, there is little research about what determines or predicts charismatic or transformational leadership and why some leaders convey charismatic or transformational leadership behaviour and others do not. Only a few studies have examined the biographies of leaders or the role of followers such as the study by Howell and Shamir (2005). Second, Kark and van Dijk (2007) argue that although research on charismatic and transformational leadership investigates motivational constructs as a central element, the basic psychological processes, mechanisms and conditions, which underlie these constructs and through which leaders motivate followers, have only been analysed to a limited extent. Third, according to Bono and Ilies (2006) little empirical research has investigated the link between charismatic or transformational leadership and more recent leadership concepts such as the emotional attachment of followers to their leaders. Fourth, Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber (2009) call for more research to investigate charismatic and transformational leadership at organisational or strategic level. They suggest, for example, analysing the relationship between CEO charismatic or transformational behaviour and organisational performance and the variables (e.g. external stakeholders) which might mediate or moderate this relationship. Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber (2009) close their critique by proposing to expand the methodological approach of mainly survey-based designs

towards methods of an experimental, longitudinal, and qualitative character with the use of mixed methods studies.

The purpose of the present study is to address some of the aforementioned gaps. Hence, the focus of this study will be on both leaders and followers in order to investigate perceptions of leadership at different hierarchical levels by using a mixed methods approach. More contemporary approaches to leadership will be discussed in the following section.

3.3.3 Contemporary Leadership Theories

Leadership research in the twenty first century is impacted by three major phenomena: globalisation, liberalisation and technology (Neera, Anjane, Shoma, 2010). In this context, a multitude of leadership approaches emerged, including authentic leadership (e.g. Luthans and Avolio, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2008) and complexity leadership (e.g. Lichtenstein et al., 2007; Uhl-Bien and Marion, 2008). Other approaches include servant leadership (e.g. Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006; Greenleaf, 1991; Russell and Stone, 2002), spirituality and leadership (e.g. Fry, 2003; Whittington et al., 2005), e-leadership (e.g. Avolio, Kahai and Dodge, 2001; Malhotra, Majchrzak and Rosen, 2007; Zigurs, 2003), cross-cultural leadership (e.g. Gelfand, Erez and Aycan, 2007; House et al., 2004; Mobley and Weldon, 2006;) and cognitive science leadership (e.g. Epitropaki and Martin, 2005; Lord et al., 2001). Table 3.6 provides an overview of these theories, describing their approach and listing a number of corresponding authors.

Table 3.6: Contemporary Leadership Theories

Theory	Approach	Authors
Authentic leadership	Developed further from transformational leadership, includes transparent and ethical leader behaviour	George (2003); Luthans and Avolio (2003); Walumbwa et al. (2008)
Complexity leadership	Acknowledges further development from industrialised society to knowledge economy, and calls for more complex concepts of leadership in more complex organisations	Hazy, Goldstein and Lichtenstein (2007); Lichtenstein et al. (2007); Uhl-Bien and Marion (2008); Uhl-Bien, Marion and McKelvey (2007)
Servant leadership	Leadership style based on listening, empathy, awareness, and commitment	Barbuto and Wheeler (2006); Greenleaf (1980, 1991); Russell and Stone (2002)
Spirituality and leadership	Motivates followers through fusing four fundamental forces of human existence: body, mind, heart and spirit	Fry (2003); Whittington et al. (2005)
E-leadership	Explores the influence of technologies on leadership in geographically dispersed teams	Avolio, Kahai and Dodge (2001); Malhotra, Majchrzak and Rosen (2007); Zaccaro and Bader (2003); Zigurs (2003)
Cross-cultural leadership	Comparative leadership studies, search for culture-specific and culture-universal leadership aspects, global leadership	Gelfand, Erez and Aycan (2007); House et al. (2004); Mobley and Weldon (2006); Story and Barbuto (2011)
Cognitive science leadership	Explains leaders' and followers' way of thinking and information processing, Implicit Leadership Theories	Epitropaki and Martin (2005); Lord and Brown (2004); Lord and Maher (1991); Lord et al. (2001)

As can be seen from this table, a wide range of contemporary leadership theories have been developed in recent years. Some of them, however, lack empirical evidence such as 'complexity leadership' and 'servant leadership', as well as 'spirituality and leadership'. Leadership studies in more recent studies tend to include both leaders and followers, contextual factors, leadership levels, and the dynamic interaction between leaders and followers (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009). In order to research the concept of leadership in an even more holistic way, some authors

suggest greater openness to the construct of leadership, specifically in the context of research methods. Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003) propose a more open and questioning approach and call for more precise, in-depth qualitative research which would be open to different vocabularies than ‘leadership-centric’ ones. Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber (2009) suggest the use of mixed methods designs. Such an approach would allow the integration of quantitative strategies, which have dominated previous leadership literature, with qualitative techniques and, for example, case studies. They also suggest to focus on the contextual factor of societal culture, on the process of how leadership occurs, on the information processing of leaders and followers, and on how they affect each other, their team, and their organisation. In this context, cross-cultural leadership and the cognitive science leadership research, and more precisely implicit leadership theory play a major role and will be discussed in greater detail in the following sections.

(i) Cross-Cultural Leadership

A consequence of globalisation is the interest in cross-cultural leadership which has fundamentally developed the leadership literature during recent years (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009). This branch of leadership research focuses primarily on comparative leadership studies between two or more countries (e.g. Dickson, Den Hartog and Mitchelson, 2003; Dorfman, 2004; Gelfand, Erez and Aycan, 2007). It attempts to identify both culture-universal and culture-specific aspects of leadership to determine what constitutes a global leader (e.g. House et al., 2004; Mobley, Gessner and Arnold, 1999; Story and Barbuto, 2011). The topic of cross-cultural leadership is central to the current study and will be addressed in more detail in Chapter 4.

(ii) Cognitive Science Leadership

The cognitive science leadership literature covers an array of approaches which have a common focus on explaining leaders' and followers' thinking and information processing. Cognitive science leadership theory is based on the definition that leadership is the process of being perceived as a leader by others (Lord and Maher, 1991). A basic component of the cognitive leadership literature is the concept of so-called schemas, which can be described as organising frameworks which help understand and make sense of a specific situation, context or experience. A study by Wofford, Goodwin and Whittington (1998) used the concept of schemas in the context of leadership research. They tested whether a leader's cognitive content and structure determines their behaviour, and subsequent follower outcomes. This approach is based on the argument that transformational and transactional leaders use different schemas to make sense of events, which in turn results in different leader behaviour and actions in order to cope with these events. Wofford, Goodwin and Whittington (1998) found support for its effect on transformational leadership, the results for transactional leadership, though, were not significant.

In the context of cognitive schemas, leadership literature also discusses the concept of prototypicality which demonstrates that followers are more attracted to leaders who are exemplars of groups of which followers are members or want to become members (Lord et al., 2001). Prototypes are cognitive structures or schemas which are shaped through the exposure to social events or interpersonal interactions (House and Aditya, 1997) and form an individual's so-called implicit theories. Based on this, the approach of implicit leadership theory developed (e.g. Lord and Emrich, 2001).

During recent years, cognitive science leadership literature has mainly focused on implicit theories and prototypes, and how these constructs affect the perceptions of leaders and followers when categorising each other (Epitropaki and Martin, 2005). This stream of research ‘has potential for enhancing existing theories of leadership in terms of helping to explain how leaders and followers attend to, process, and make decisions and develop’ (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009, p.428) and thus will be taken up in greater depth in the following section.

3.4 Implicit Leadership Theory

The concept of implicit leadership theories (ILTs) was initially introduced by Eden and Leviatan (1975) who advanced implicit personality theory (Schneider, 1973) in its application to leadership research. A seminal contribution in the field of implicit leadership theories was made by Lord and his colleagues (e.g. Lord, Foti and De Vader, 1984; Lord and Maher, 1991; Phillips and Lord, 1986). They define leadership as a ‘social perception, grounded in social-cognitive psychological theory that produces an influence increment for the perceived leader’ (Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001, p.283) and, thus, opt for a definition which involves two perspectives: the leader’s perspective and the perspective of the follower. This means they overcome the criticism of leadership definitions as being too leader-centric.

Lord and his colleagues based their theoretical concept on Rosch’s (1978) cognitive categorisation theory. The basic approach of categorisation theory is that stimulus persons (i.e. leaders) are classified by perceivers (i.e. their subordinates) in comparison to prototypes of a category (i.e. effective leader) (Rosch, 1978). Thus, ILTs describe the phenomenon that most individuals have a specific picture, or a cognitive structure of the nature of leaders and leadership in their mind (Offermann, Kennedy and

Wirtz, 1994; Schyns and Schilling, 2011). This structure helps them to make sense of leadership situations (Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck, 2004) and to perceive and recognise an individual as a leader (Schyns, Felfe and Blank, 2007). For a leader, it is vital to be perceived by their followers as a leader since effective leadership and being perceived as a leader are important aspects concerning an organisation's performance (Lord and Maher, 1991).

'Being perceived as a leader affects social and self-evaluations, creates or limits future job opportunities and enhances the ability of top leaders to garner the resources needed by their organizations' (Lord and Maher, 1991, p.6).

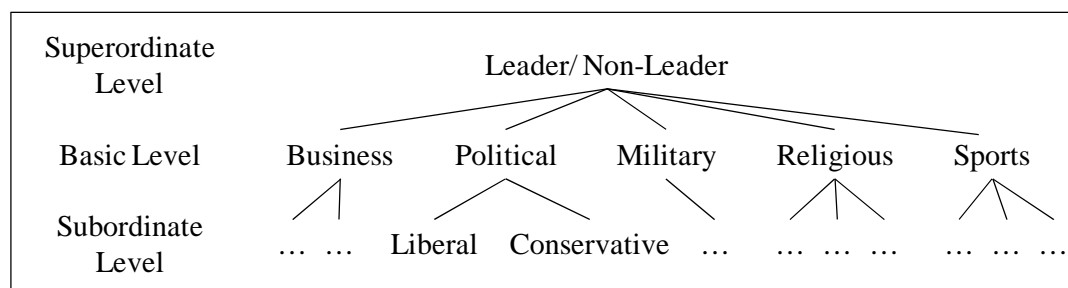
This highlights the central role of leadership perception in organisational processes and decision-making (Ayman, 1993). Schilling (2008) further defines implicit leadership theories

'as complex cognitive structures containing the beliefs held by individuals or collectives about the traits and behaviour typical of leaders, the causes for these traits and behaviours as well as about their consequences' (p.47).

This definition again points out that by applying ILT models, individuals attempt to explain and predict both their own behaviour, and that of others to develop their action strategies (Schilling, 2008).

Lord, Foti and De Vader (1984) explain that ILTs represent a cognitive structure, or schema in the human memory, which is organised into three hierarchical levels as shown in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: A Tentative Hierarchy of Leadership Categories (adapted from Lord, Foti and De Vader, 1984)



The superordinate level at the top is the most inclusive one and distinguishes between leaders and non-leaders. The basic level describes different types of leaders such as business, political, military, religious, or sports leaders. Lord, Foti and De Vader (1984) explain that perceivers would refer to basic level prototypes in order to generally differentiate between leaders and non-leaders. The lowest level in the vertical structure is the subordinate level which reflects different types of, for example, business or political leaders, such as liberal or conservative political leader.

The distinction between leader and non-leader on the basic level is influenced by two processes: recognition-based and inference-based processes (Lord, Foti and De Vader, 1984). The first process describes the phenomenon that an individual is recognised as a leader by another person because of their fit with the leadership prototype held by the latter. This process is thus driven by internal-dispositional determinants. Lord, Foti and De Vader (1984) further elucidate that such leadership prototypes can be described by trait characteristics such as, for example, 'intelligent', 'honest', 'understanding', 'verbally skilled', 'determined', 'decisive', and 'dedicated'. The second type of process explains that a leader can be inferred as such from, for example, favourable outcomes, or high performance. Hence, this process is based on external-situational determinants.

The construct of leader categories within leadership categorisation theory has long been recognised as stable and fixed, however, recent research has developed the idea of ILTs being flexible and fluid knowledge structures (Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001; Lord et al., 2001). Lord, Brown and Harvey (2001) argue that leadership is a part of a system with factors which 'act to create leadership simultaneously,

instantaneously, and dynamically' (p.284) which reflects the flexibility of the knowledge structures of ILTs.

Research has shown that ILTs develop at an early stage in life (Keller, 1999, 2003; Popper and Amit, 2009). Antonakis and Dalgas (2009), as well as, Ayman-Nolley and Ayman (2005) showed that ILTs are already inherent in children. Research has also shown, that differences in ILTs exist between individuals (Felfe, 2005). However, cultural differences in ILTs are even stronger than intra-individual differences (House et al., 2002). Hence, House et al. (2004) demonstrated, that culture, which reflects a socially shared aspect, influences implicit leadership theories. Epitropaki and Martin (2004), and Foti, Knee and Backert (2008) further showed that even when the social context of an individual changes their ILTs remain rather stable. The characteristics of ILTs, including both flexible and stable knowledge structures, can be explained by connectionist theory and represented by connectionist-level cognitive architectures.

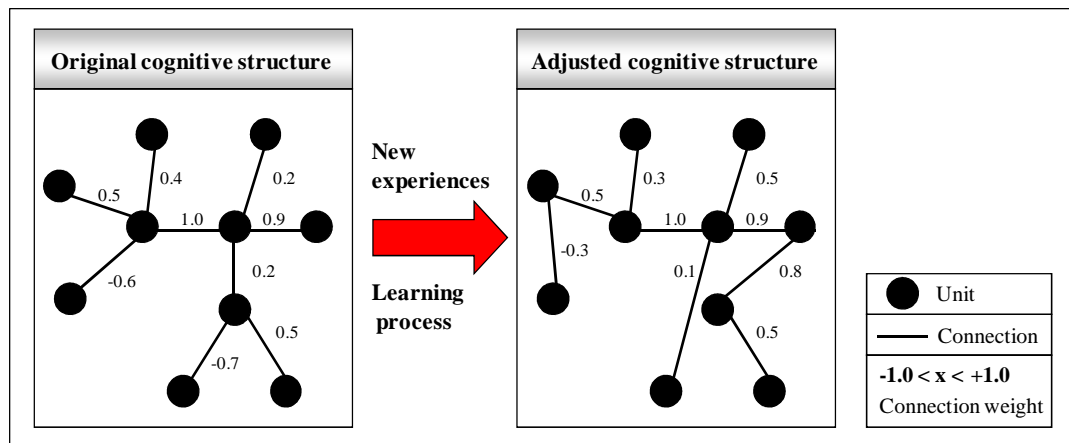
3.5 Connectionist Theory

Connectionist theory is a possible approach to explain human information processing and is discussed in the discipline of cognitive science (Stillings et al., 1995). The mind is seen by connectionists as an information processor which 'receives, stores, retrieves, transforms, and transmits information' in a parallel manner (Stillings et al., 1995, p.1). Connectionist models, or networks, are based on the neurophysiology of the brain with the neuron as the basic building element for understanding psychological processes (Dudai, 2006). The basic elements of connectionist networks are represented by so-called units. Such networks, also called schemas, are characterised by three aspects.

1. Units are activated through environmental stimuli.
2. Units are connected in parallel to other units.
3. The connections between units are weighted with the weight representing the strength of the connection between units (Bechtel and Abrahamsen, 2002).

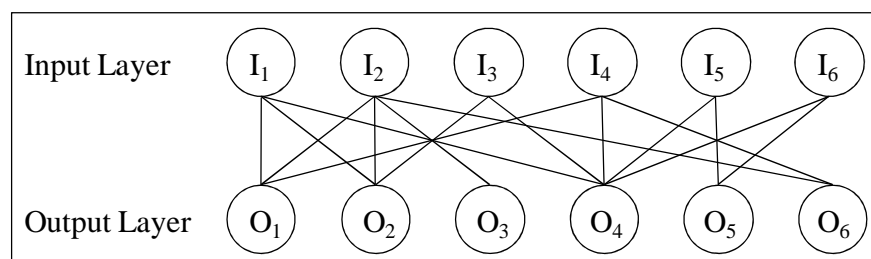
Within the cognitive structures of individuals who are faced with new experiences, connection weights are adjusted, which reflects a learning process within networks (Rousseau, 2001; Smith and DeCoster, 2000). Figure 3.3 shows such an adjustment of connections and connection weights.

Figure 3.3: Example of Adjustment of Cognitive Structures (Author's own)



Foti, Knee and Backert (2008) describe the architecture of connectionist models and their pattern of connections among units in greater detail. They explain that the number of layers (simple or multilayered) and the type of connections (feedforward or recurrent) represent a network. Simple two-layer networks include input units and output units as shown in Figure 3.4.

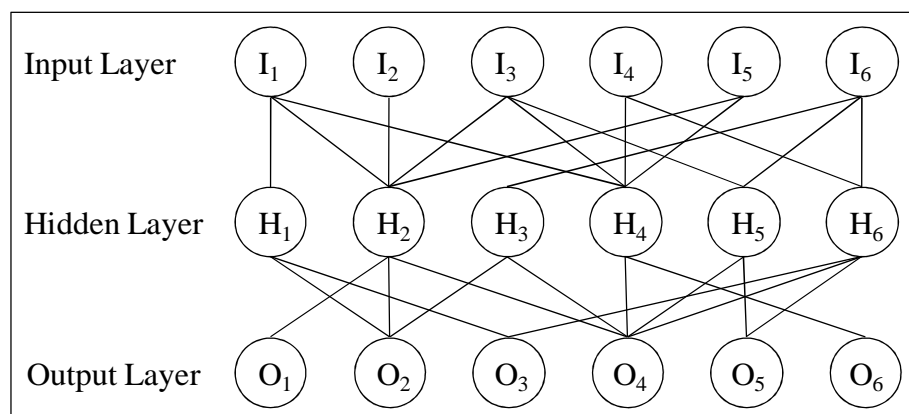
Figure 3.4: Example of a Two-Layered Connectionist Network (Author's own)



Foti, Knee and Backert (2008) illustrate a simple two-layered connectionist network with an example: the input pattern may be exemplars such as ‘Bill Clinton’ and ‘George Bush’ which are categorised in the output pattern of ‘past presidents of the United States’.

Figure 3.5 shows an example of a multilayered system which includes hidden units which intervene between inputs and outputs.

Figure 3.5: Example of a Multilayered Connectionist Network (Author’s own)



Feedforward systems have connections between input and output units, which may be linked by intervening layers of hidden units, which in turn influence the production of a specific pattern of output units. Recurrent networks are cognitive structures which are recreated based on the stored connection weights among units (McClelland and Rumelhart, 1986). Foti, Knee and Backert (2008) further illustrate recurrent networks using the example of male and female leaders. Different cognitive patterns are activated with regard to male or female leaders, thus, the output patterns also differ. Every time an individual interacts with a male or a female leader, the corresponding pattern will be recreated rather than searched for, or based on the stored connection weights among units (McClelland and Rumelhart, 1986).

Disciplines, such as cognitive science, cultural anthropology, and linguistics have been applying connectionist theory for over 20 years (McClelland and Rumelhart,

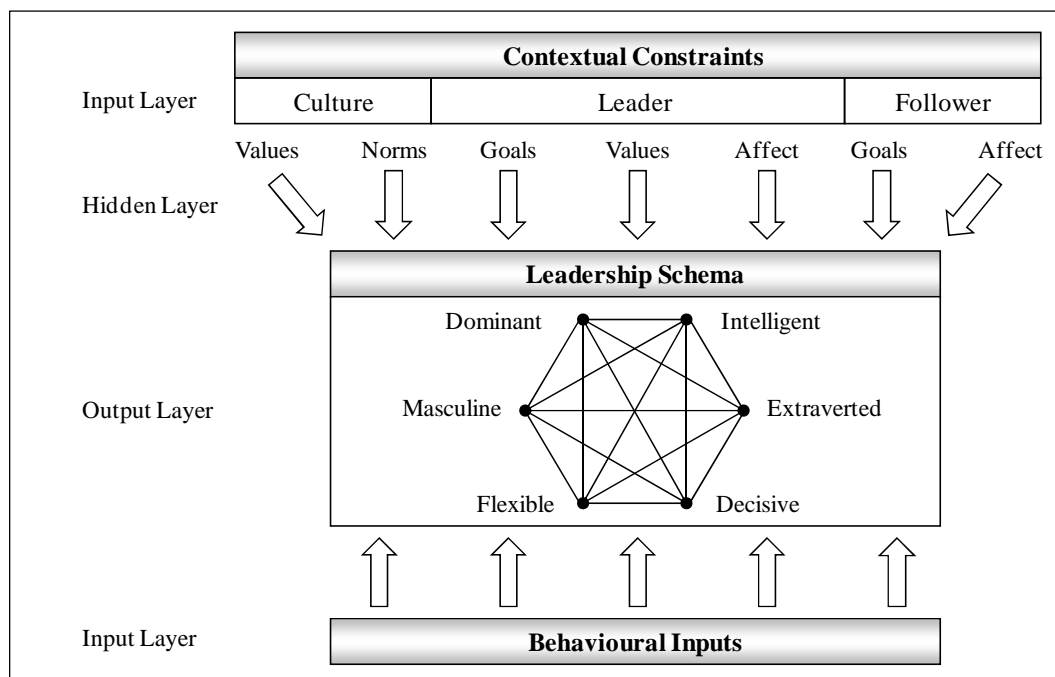
1986; Miller and Read, 1991; Strauss and Quinn, 1997). Its application to explain applied psychological phenomena such as leadership, however, is only a relatively recent development (Hanges et al., 2002; Lord and Brown, 2004; Somers, 1999) and will be discussed in the following section.

3.6 The Application of Connectionist Theory to Leadership Research

Lord, Brown and Harvey (2001) discuss how connectionist theory can be applied to leadership research, and more precisely to implicit leadership theories. They explain that their system, which is shown in Figure 3.6, consists of a leadership schema or prototype which includes a number of related leadership traits which form a connectionist network. According to Lord et al. (2001)

‘connectionist networks offer one potential solution to explaining how our perceptual, interpretive, and behavioral generation processes embed leadership in a flexible task and social system’ (p.320).

Figure 3.6: Schematic Illustration of Contextual Constraints on a Recurrent Connectionist Network Showing Reciprocal Connections between Leadership Schema Elements (adapted from Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001)



The connectionist network shows all possible links between the different traits which reflects the recurrent or mutually activating nature of this network (Smith, 1996) and is considered as the output unit. The behaviour of leaders and the contextual constraints can activate and stimulate the creation of the connectionist network, and thus are considered as the input units. Units within a connectionist network can also be activated by units of the same level (Lord et al., 2001). This means, for example, the activation of the attribute 'intelligent' may also indirectly activate the attributes 'flexible' and 'decisive', depending on the strength of the connections between the corresponding attributes. Such mutual activation or inhibition, which can complete cognitive patterns through gap-filling processes (Rumelhart et al., 2006), is characteristic of connectionist networks. For example, a follower who cannot observe decisive behaviour from a potential leader (which means there is no activation of this attribute by a behavioural input), but who knows that this leader is intelligent and flexible, may consider the leader as decisive because this unit can be indirectly activated by the attributes 'flexible' and 'intelligent' (Lord et al., 2001).

As mentioned above, contextual factors may affect the activation of the connectionist network. These factors include culture, leaders, and followers. Each of these contextual constraints are considered to have various features which provide diverse inputs to the leadership schema in the middle of Figure 3.6. These multiple features are illustrated by the broad arrows. As can be seen from Figure 3.6 the inputs from the contextual constraints proceed through constructs such as perceivers' values, norms, goals, and affect to the output of the leadership schema (Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001). These constructs represent a hidden layer between inputs and outputs. The hidden unit of 'affect' stands for the perceiver's characteristic affective tone which

is likely to be a relevant influencing factor of connectionist networks at the individual level. Srull and Wyer (1989) explain that affective processing happens very fast and with minimal cognitive effort. Hence, it is likely to be a relevant first factor for the processing of any social or environmental stimulus. This is in line with Murphy and Zajonc (1993) who propose that all kinds of stimuli are initially processed on an affective level. Hall and Lord (1995) also argue that affective processing is a component of leadership perceptions and plays a major role when it comes to a quick judgement about generally liking or disliking somebody. This process would build the basis for subsequent more detailed cognitive, and affective processing. Lord et al. (2001) conclude that ‘affective tone may produce an important internal constraint on subsequent perceptions of leaders and the effectiveness of leader behaviors’ (p.326).

All contextual constraints either increase or decrease the activation of each of the units within the connectionist network in the middle of Figure 3.6. The more a specific input pattern (i.e. leadership situation) causes a specific pattern of interconnected units, the more stable levels of activation are created, and the better the fit between the activation pattern and the different aforementioned constraints. This status is called an attractor of the network and reflects the creation of a mental unit such as a category or prototype (Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001). Such prototypes provide the basis for explaining implicit leadership theories and, thus, contribute to the understanding of the process of leadership perception.

What is interesting about these schemas is that they are influenced by individuals’ cultural background (House et al., 2004). The aim of the next chapter is therefore, to link the themes of leadership and culture and to discuss developments in cross-cultural leadership research.

3.7 Summary

As was detailed in this chapter, initial leadership research concentrated on individual, mostly male leaders, working for large companies in the private sector in the US. Today, the interest in leadership research has a much broader focus and includes a wider range of organisations. This research has evolved from a focus on individual leaders to a more complete leadership context, which also takes into consideration aspects such as the role of followers, work settings, and culture. Although leadership has been defined by numerous researchers in various ways, consensus exists that it represents a social group phenomenon, which is characterised by the process between leaders and followers who should perceive leaders as such in order to effectively contribute to organisational goals. While leadership was initially described according to leaders' characteristics, it is now, therefore, regarded as a more complex social process including dyadic, shared, relational, strategic, and global concepts of leadership (Avolio, 2007; Yukl, 2010). Leadership effectiveness is also a relevant issue within leadership research and is mainly concerned with investigating the fit between leadership approach and organisational context.

This chapter also discussed the development of leadership theories, from early contingency theories (e.g. Fiedler, 1967) to transformational and charismatic leadership theories (e.g. Bass 1985), and finally contemporary leadership theories. Recent leadership research is influenced by three dominant phenomena: globalisation, liberalisation and technology (Neera, Anjane, Shoma, 2010) and focuses on topics such as authentic leadership (e.g. Walumbwa et al., 2008) and expatriate adjustment (e.g. Festing and Maletzky, 2011). A major field in the area of contemporary leadership research concerns implicit leadership theories (ILTs) which form part of the cognitive science approach to leadership. This approach overcomes most criticism of previous

theories such as being too leader-centric, or their lack of empirical evidence. ILTs are based on cognitive schemas and focus on leaders' and followers' thinking and information processing. They argue that most individuals hold a specific cognitive schema about effective leaders and leadership. These schemas help individuals make sense of leadership situations and are created and influenced by individuals' environments (Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001). The chapter closed by describing how these schemas can be represented by connectionist models.

From the review of the leadership literature, two aspects feed into the construction of the research questions which are based on exploring the structure and the content of cognitive leadership schemas. First, the research questions take into account the role of leaders and followers, and, hence, overcome the criticism of leadership research as being too leader-centric. Second, the aforementioned cognitive leadership schemas, or implicit leadership theories represent the primary unit of analysis for addressing these research questions. As was described, these schemas consist of units (content) and connections among these units (structure). The research questions, therefore, address these two aspects: the structure and the content of cognitive leadership schemas.

CHAPTER IV

CROSS-CULTURAL LEADERSHIP

4.1 Introduction

The field of cross-cultural leadership has emerged in recent years due to the globalisation of organisations ‘that encourage and, at times, require leaders to work from and across an increasingly diverse set of locations’ (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009, p.438). Cross-cultural leadership research primarily involves comparative studies between nations which investigate differences between leadership styles, and which identify what constitutes global leaders.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of cross-cultural leadership research. The origins of cross-cultural leadership will be presented and culture-free versus culture-bound approaches to cross-cultural leadership will be discussed. Major trends within this field of research will be outlined with a specific focus on culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories. The chapter closes with a comparison of system differences in France and Germany, and societal cultures. French and German management models and practices, and a review of leadership in France and Germany will be presented.

4.2 The Origins of Cross-Cultural Leadership Research

Cross-cultural leadership forms part of the broader field of cross-cultural organisational behaviour which ‘has a long past but a short research history’ (Gelfand, Erez and Aycan, 2007, p.481). Investigations into cross-cultural organisational behaviour (OB) increased in the latter part of the twenty-first century due to globalisation (Gelfand, Erez and Aycan, 2007). In the 1960s and 1970s the topic of

culture was mostly ignored (Barrett and Bass, 1976) and OB theories were generally developed and tested in Western contexts (Gelfand, Erez and Aycan, 2007). The role of cross-cultural theory within OB research only became more relevant with the emergence of Hofstede's (1980) cultural findings. Since then, research in OB acknowledges that models developed from a Western perspective will not necessarily be applicable in the Far East, and vice versa (e.g. Erez and Earley, 1993).

4.3 The Culture-Free versus Culture-Bound Approach

Comparisons of management behaviour and leadership styles across cultures resulted in a discussion of the potentially influencing role of societal culture and the emergence of what is known as culture-free versus culture-bound approaches. Various researchers have debated these perspectives in the literature (e.g. Adler and Bartholomew, 1992; Child, 1981; Kumar, 1988; Steinmann and Scherer, 1998; Tayeb 1994; von Keller, 1981; Wirth, 1992). The culture-bound approach assumes that societal culture impacts on leadership styles. In contrast, the culture-free approach negates cultural influences on leadership behaviour.

Proponents of the culture-free approach consider leadership as not being influenced by culture, and thus believe cross-cultural management research to be irrelevant (e.g. Kumar, 1988; Perlitz, 2004). They argue that management concepts and instruments can be applied universally i.e. independent of culture. Such a perspective is described as a top-down-approach with the aim of defining universal rules which are valid and independent of culture (Steinmann and Scherer, 1998).

Cultural universalism distinguishes between universalists representing the parochial management approach and the more moderate economic relativists (von Keller, 1981). The latter assume that management techniques differ in relation to the

status of socio-economic development. This approach was discussed in the late 1950s and early 1960s by Harbison and Myers (1959) and Kerr et al. (1960). They argue that economic development, industrialisation and an increase in the use of technologies lead to a certain homogenisation and convergence of management know-how, and thus cultural differences disappear over time (Perlitz, 2004). The parochial management approach is even more radical in that it assumes that there exists only one possible way to manage effectively and this is reflected in the individual's inherent style (Kumar, 1988). An example of such an ethnocentric approach is management studies carried out in the US which are based on American cultural norms and management methods specific to that context, but which assume that US management concepts are universally transferable to other cultures (Boyacigiller and Adler, 1991). This is based on the justification that successful management of organisations requires specific features, such as planning, motivation, and control (von Keller, 1981). These can be accomplished by a series of principles and methods (e.g. planning methods, motivation principles, etc.), which have general validity and can therefore be used successfully in a universal way regardless of culture (von Keller, 1981).

The culture-bound or culturalist view, on the other hand, is described as a bottom-up approach, where management is seen as a function of culture (Adler, 1983; Adler and Bartholomew, 1992). It argues that management concepts and instruments have to be adapted to local peculiarities. The culturalist view assumes that different cultures require different leadership behaviours and that management 'know-how' which has been developed in one culture is not transferable to other cultures. In their review of trends in the international OB and human resource management (HRM) literature, Adler and Bartholomew (1992) state that 'culture's impact on managerial behaviour has become well recognized' (p.551). Of the more than 28,000 articles they

considered in their review, over 90 per cent underlined the impact of culture on these fields. Leung et al. (2005) confirm Adler and Bartholomew's (1992) findings and conclude 'research on culture and IB [international business] is definitely a "growth" area' (p.374).

The present cross-cultural leadership study is in line with the evidence of cultural influence on managerial behaviour resulting from Adler's and Bartholomew's (1992) review, and follows the culture-bound approach to leadership. Major trends which follow this culture-bound perspective of leadership will be presented in the next section.

4.4 Major Trends in Cross-Cultural Leadership Research

This section summarises major trends in cross-cultural leadership research. The role of culture as a moderator of leadership will be briefly outlined, and the themes of global and comparative leadership will be discussed. The leadership aspects of the GLOBE study will be detailed leading into the concept of culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories.

4.4.1 Culture as a Moderator of Leadership

One approach to linking the topics of leadership and culture is to explore the indirect impact of culture as a moderator on leadership (Gelfand, Erez and Aycan, 2007). Culture is assumed to moderate the relationship between leadership practices and performance outcomes. In one such study, Walumbwa, Lawler and Avolio (2007) collected data from 825 employees in China (N = 213), India (N = 210), Kenya (N = 159) and the US (N = 243). Their study found that individuals with a collective orientation reacted more positively to transformational leadership, while individuals

with an individual orientation reacted more positively to transactional leadership. Dorfman et al. (1997) analysed six leadership behaviours (charismatic, contingent punishment, contingent reward, directive, participative, and supportive) across five societies: Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, Mexico and the US. Their sample consisted of 1,598 managers and professionals of multinational and national companies. They found that three of the leadership behaviours (charismatic, contingent reward, and supportiveness) were positively related to employee outcomes across all five societies. The other three leader behaviours were linked to different findings, for example, contingent punishment only had a positive impact in the US, and directive behaviour only had a positive impact in Mexico and Taiwan. These studies provide evidence of the relationship between culture and leadership and underline the role of culture as a moderator of leadership.

4.4.2 Global Leadership

A second major topic of interest in the area of cross-cultural leadership research concerns global leadership and aims to identify leaders 'who are able to effectively lead across a variety of cultures' (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009, p.438). This approach is discussed in academic literature (e.g. Mobley, Gessner and Arnold, 1999; Mobley and McCall, 2001; Mobley and Weldon, 2006) and popular press alike (e.g. Green et al., 2003).

Van Dyne and Ang (2006) suggest that in order to be an effective leader, managers must spend time in different cultures to gain international experience. A further approach focuses on competencies which it is believed a manager should possess in order to lead effectively across cultures (Mendenhall, 2001). Relevant to this approach is not the knowledge managers may have of one or two specific cultures, but

rather broad experiences and competencies which allow them to lead across several cultures. In this context, the themes of emic and etic leadership behaviours are discussed (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009). The terms emic and etic originated from linguistics but were later introduced into cross-cultural psychology Berry (1969). Phonemics refers to sounds which can only be related to one specific language, whereas phonetics refers to sounds which can be found across all languages (Pike 1967). Emics refer to ideas and behaviours which are specific to one culture and etics refer to ideas and behaviours which are general or universal in more cultures (Gelfand, Erez and Aycan, 2007). Thus, the aim of global leadership research is to investigate leadership behaviours across cultures and to distinguish between culture-general and culture-specific behaviours.

The discussion of what constitutes a global leader is closely related to concepts of global mindset (e.g. Boyacigiller et al., 2004; Clapp-Smith, Luthans and Avolio, 2007) and research on cultural intelligence (e.g. Alon and Higgins, 2005; Earley, Murnieks and Mosakowski, 2007; Thomas, 2006). Despite disagreements about the concept of global leadership itself (Morrison, 2000), the different approaches acknowledge that culture is a factor which might affect the preference for a particular leadership behaviour in a specific societal culture. This is also the case for comparative leadership research presented in the next section.

4.4.3 Comparative Leadership

A third important topic within cross-cultural leadership literature concerns studies which compare the effectiveness of leadership styles between two or more cultures. These studies represented the initial type of research in cross-cultural leadership and are still relevant in this area (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009;

Dickson, Den Hartog and Mitchelson, 2003; Dorfman, 2004; Gelfand, Erez and Aycan, 2007; Kirkman, Lowe and Gibson, 2006).

A very common approach in comparative leadership studies is to investigate the extent to which a leadership model developed in one culture can be applied to other cultures. These studies typically measure the direct impact of a particular cultural dimension on leadership. For example, one such study based on data from 47 countries by Smith, Peterson and Schwartz (2002) investigated the influence of cultural values on the sources of guidance that managers select to cope with work events. In a study about leaders' goal priorities across 15 countries, Hofstede et al. (2002) found that cultural dimensions correlated with some of the goals investigated such as individualism and long-term orientation, which correlated positively with the importance of future profits. Further research investigates the influence of culture on the use of power and influence tactics (e.g. Rahim and Magner, 1996; Rao, Hashimoto and Rao, 1997). A study by Fu et al. (2004), which was carried out across 12 countries analysed the perceived effectiveness of influence strategies at an individual and societal level. The researchers found that both individual beliefs and societal cultural values impacted on the perception of influence strategies. The GLOBE study can also be considered as a comparative leadership study and will be presented in the next section.

4.4.4 Cross-Cultural Leadership in the GLOBE Study

The GLOBE study is the most recent and seminal contribution to research on cross-cultural leadership (Gelfand, Erez and Aycan, 2007). The study investigated societal and organisational cultural values and practices as well as leadership style preferences. To ensure the comparability of the term leadership, GLOBE researchers developed a definition which corresponds to the understanding of leadership in all of

the participating countries. Leadership was defined as ‘the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members’ (House and Javidan, 2004, p.15) and was explored by means of six implicit leadership theories. These are: charismatic/value-based, team-oriented, participative, autonomous, humane-oriented, and self-protective leadership (House et al., 2004). Table 4.1 presents the six GLOBE leadership dimensions and details the corresponding primary subscales. A complete list of the individual leadership attributes which build the primary subscales can be found in Appendix A.

Table 4.1: GLOBE Leadership Dimensions and Corresponding Leadership Subscales (adapted from Hanges and Dickson, 2004)

Leadership dimension	Primary leadership subscale
Charismatic/Value-Based	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Charismatic 1: Visionary • Charismatic 2: Inspirational • Charismatic 3: Self-sacrifice • Integrity • Decisive • Performance oriented
Team-Oriented	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Team 1: Collaborative team orientation • Team 2: Team integrator • Diplomatic • Malevolent (reverse scored) • Administratively competent
Self-Protective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-centered • Status conscious • Conflict inducer • Face saver • Procedural
Participative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Autocratic (reverse scored) • Non-participative (reverse scored)
Humane-Oriented	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modesty • Humane oriented
Autonomous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Autonomous

One of the major goals of the study was to explore beliefs of the participating societies about effective leadership. This led to the development of more than 100 leadership attributes and behaviours which form the basis of the aforementioned six implicit leadership theories. The study found that while many of the leadership attributes investigated vary between the participating nations, a number of these attributes seem to be universally accepted as contributing positively to effective leadership. This finding concerns 22 attributes which belong to the charismatic/value-based and team-oriented implicit leadership theories. The attributes are: 'administratively skilled', 'communicative', 'confidence builder', 'coordinator', 'decisive', 'dependable', 'dynamic', 'effective bargainer', 'encouraging', 'excellence oriented', 'foresight', 'honest', 'informed', 'intelligent', 'just', 'motivational', 'motive arouser', 'plans ahead', 'positive', 'team builder', 'trustworthy', and 'win/win problem solver' (Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck, 2004, p.677).

A further major finding from GLOBE concerns the link between societal culture and the six implicit leadership theories. The GLOBE study found that certain cultural value dimensions enhanced the preference for a particular leadership behaviour and denominated these implicit leadership theories (ILTs) as culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories (CLTs). Javidan, House and Dorfman (2004) explain that

'in general, cultural dimension values, not practices, are related to CLT leadership dimensions. Both values and leadership CLTs represent desired end states: one reflects culture, the other leadership attributes' (p.45).

Table 4.2 illustrates how the cultural value dimensions are correlated to the six leadership dimensions.

Table 4.2: The GLOBE Leadership Dimensions and their Cultural Value Predictors (adapted from Javidan, House and Dorfman, 2004)

Cultural value dimensions	Leadership dimensions	
	positively correlated	negatively correlated
Performance Orientation (only cultural dimension which is a significant predictor of all 6 CLT dimensions at organisational level)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • charismatic/value-based • team-oriented • participative • autonomous • humane-oriented 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • self-protective
Uncertainty Avoidance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • self-protective • team-oriented • humane-oriented 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • participative
Future Orientation and Humane Orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • humane-oriented • team-oriented • charismatic/value-based 	
In-group Collectivism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • charismatic/value-based • team-oriented 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • self-protective
Gender Egalitarianism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • participative • charismatic/value-based 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • self-protective
Institutional Collectivism		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • autonomous
Power Distance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • self-protective 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • charismatic/value-based • participative

The latest GLOBE book (Chhokar, Brodbeck and House, 2007) provides a detailed analysis of quantitative and qualitative studies from 25 specific countries and presents exhaustive insights into culturally influenced leadership preferences. This approach of combining research methods represents a further trend in cross-cultural research which shifts from exploration to explanation of cross-cultural differences (van de Vijver and Leung, 2000) and, thus, requires an adaptation of methods.

The next section takes a closer look at the concept of culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories, as this element of the GLOBE study is relevant for the construction of the present cross-cultural study.

4.5 Culturally Endorsed Implicit Leadership Theories

The concept of culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories forms part of the theoretical framework of the GLOBE study. GLOBE researchers found that organisational and societal values are significantly related to leadership prototypes, namely implicit leadership theories (Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck, 2004). The cultural dimension of, for example, ‘performance orientation’ is positively related to the prototype of ‘charismatic/value-based leadership’. This means that culture may influence information processing and the concepts of leaders and leadership which individuals have in their mind.

Ensari and Murphy (2003) provide evidence for cultural influences on information processing. They carried out a study among 87 American students, representing more individualistic cultural values, and 100 Turkish students, representing more collectivistic cultural values. Ensari and Murphy (2003) found that individualistic cultures perceive charismatic leadership based on recognition-based perceptions, whereas collectivistic cultures perceive charisma based on inference-based perceptions. This means that in more individualistic societies, leadership is perceived as effective to the extent that an individual’s behaviour fits the characteristics of the perceiver’s prototypical schema of an ‘effective’ leader. In more collectivistic societies, leadership effectiveness is perceived as an inference which is, for example, based on a group’s or organisation’s performance outcomes (Ensari and Murphy, 2003).

Other studies which analysed cultural influence on implicit leadership theories further found that there is variation in leadership prototypes between hierarchical levels. For example, Den Hartog et al. (1999) collected data from 2,161 respondents in the Netherlands who formed part of a panel of households which regularly participated in survey questionnaires. Their task consisted of rating twice a list of 22 leadership attributes. These attributes were: 'calm', 'communicative', 'compassionate', 'concern for subordinate's interests', 'confidence builder', 'courageous, not afraid to risk his/her neck', 'diplomatic', 'dominant', 'formal', 'innovative', 'inspirational', 'integrating (viewpoints and interests)', 'long term oriented', 'modest', 'orderly', 'participative, allowing room for subordinate's opinions', 'persuasive/convincing', 'rational', 'self knowledge', 'team builder', 'trustworthy', and 'vision'. First, respondents had to rate the attributes according to their importance in being a top manager (i.e. leader of an organisation), and second, for being a lower level manager (i.e. department supervisor). Respondents were at least 19 years old and had at least one year of (part-time) work experience.

Den Hartog et al.'s (1999) results showed that the attributes of being innovative, visionary, persuasive, long-term oriented, diplomatic and courageous were considered more important for top managers than for lower level managers. The characteristics of lower level managers were attributes such as concern for subordinates' interests, team building, and a participative style. For the attributes labelled trustworthy, communicative and calm, no significant differences were found, but these were considered relevant for both kinds of managers. The attributes dominant, formal and modest scored low and were considered non-desirable characteristics for managers. While being modest was considered less negative for lower than for higher level managers, being dominant was rated less negative for higher than for lower level

managers (Den Hartog et al., 1999). One limitation of Den Hartog et al.'s (1999) hierarchical level study is that it was only carried out in the Netherlands although the authors suggest replicating it in other countries, and across cultures.

Despite these hierarchical level differences, variation across cultures was found to be stronger and was found to account for more than variation according to groupings such as hierarchies, departments, occupation, gender, and age (Zander and Romani, 2004). Further studies provide empirical evidence that implicit theories or cognitive structures are significantly related to societal culture (e.g. Calori, Johnson and Sarnin, 1992; Markóczy, 1995; Schneider and DeMeyer, 1991), and to organisational level (e.g. Hauenstein and Foti, 1989; Ireland et al., 1987; Melone, 1994).

The GLOBE study, as well as research carried out by Hanges, Lord and Dickson (2000) and Hanges et al. (2006), provide empirical support for CLTs. Hanges and colleagues adopt an information processing perspective and use connectionist theory to describe the relationship between leadership and culture and to explain that culture influences individuals' leadership prototypes or schemas. Hanges et al. (2006) suggest that 'differences in the structure of leadership schemas [...] are related to cultural values even when the content of the schema is held constant' (p.21). This assertion is based on previous research by Shaw (1990) who developed a cognitive categorisation model of intercultural management which focuses in particular on the interaction between expatriate managers and host country subordinates. He explains that culture affects information processing in three ways:

- (a) Culture has an effect on the attributes which are believed to be typical of leaders, which means culture has an effect on the schema content.
- (b) Culture has an effect on the cognitive complexity among the schema content, which means culture has an effect on the structure of the schema.

(c) Culture has an effect on the level of automaticity with which information is processed when a leadership situation is encountered.

Although there is variance between individuals' leadership schemas (Lord and Brown, 2004), societal culture is a major determinant of the constitution of individuals' leadership schemas (House et al., 1999; Shaw, 1990). Several empirical studies such as the study by Hanges et al. (2001) provide evidence for the assumption that societal culture influences the structure of a cognitive leadership schema. There also exists empirical evidence for the assumption that national culture influences the content of leadership schemas. Gerstner and Day (1994) compared leadership prototypes across cultures and found variation in the leadership attributes which were seen as most typical for business leaders across eight countries. Further evidence about how culture influences leadership perceptions is provided by Chong and Thomas (1997). They analysed how two different ethnic groups in New Zealand which held different leadership prototypes reacted to similar leadership styles. In conclusion, there exists a wide variety of empirical evidence for the influence of culture on implicit leadership theories which supports the concept of culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories.

4.6 Cross-Cultural Leadership Research in France and in Germany

As this cross-cultural study is specifically interested in France and Germany, this section will address leadership research in France and in Germany in order to highlight a culture-bound perspective and to explain why differences in leadership behaviour might exist between both countries. Since societal culture is transmitted across generations (e.g. House and Javidan, 2004) and thus is a product of a country's history a brief summary of history and system differences between France and Germany will be provided. Societal culture results of the GLOBE study for both

countries will be outlined; differences between French and German management models will be discussed; and French and German business practices will be presented. The chapter will close with a comparison between leadership in France and in Germany in order to highlight differences in this area and to provide evidence for the culture-bound approach from French and German literature.

4.6.1 French and German System Differences

From a historical perspective, the territory of both countries, France and Germany, initially was of Carolingian origin. The separation, though, began already in 843 AD with the Treaty of Verdun. The initial realm of Charlemagne which was inherited by his son, Louis the Pious, was divided among his three sons: Lothair, King of Middle Francia; Pepin, King of Aquitaine; and Louis the German, King of East Francia (Schneidmüller, 1996).

The region of Alsace-Lorraine was especially affected by French and German history, belonging geographically sometimes either to France as today, or to Germany such as after the German-French war in 1870/71. The ‘Schuman-Plan’ which was signed in 1950 and which led to the European Coal and Steel Community in 1951 represented the first German-French commercial agreement. Today, exchange and collaboration between the two countries takes place on many levels. The German-French Association of Youth (Deutsch-Französisches Jugendwerk, www.dfjw.org), for example, fosters the exchange between French and German young people. The German-French University (Deutsch-Französische Hochschule, www.dfh-ufa.org) supports exchange programmes between French and German students and offers a multitude of double-degree programmes. The German-French Chamber of Industry and Commerce facilitates the exchange between French and German companies

(www.france-allemande.fr) and French and German business people are united in German-French business clubs across France and Germany (www.clubs-des-affaires.org).

Despite common historical roots, shared history and strong co-operation at multiple levels, France and Germany, however, remain attached to their cultural specificities. Centralism is still noticeable in France, even though decentralising endeavours have focused on transferring more administrative power to the French regions (Große, Lüger and Thiériot, 2008), the focus remains on Paris, be it Paris and the region of Ile-de-France as a powerful economic engine of France, or, for example, the French railroad network, which leads radially from Paris to other destinations. Education and especially the system of the '*grandes écoles*', which produces a kind of educational elite, is a further issue which is very specific to French culture and as mentioned by Pateau (1999) and Geistmann (2002) a possible factor contributing to cultural differences.

The aim of the French system of '*grandes écoles*' which can also be described as 'elite universities' is to educate the top 8-10 per cent of high-school graduates. These universities cover all areas except law and medical science (Große, Lüger and Thiériot, 2008). Almost all of France's current leaders in administration, politics, military, business, trade, and technology were educated in a '*grande école*' (Bourdieu, 1989). Roussillon and Bournois (1997) point out that once a young executive from a prestigious school enters working life, they are usually given leadership responsibilities. This can be considered unfair in comparison to graduates who have proven their competence through extensive work experience, but who graduated from a school which is considered less prestigious. Additionally, the social cohesion and solidarity within graduation years and among alumni of these '*grandes écoles*' is very

strong. Based on these social networks, graduates of such schools can relatively easily circulate between civil service, government, and business jobs (Barsoux and Lawrence, 1997).

In contrast to French centralism, Germany is characterised by federalism where numerous political decisions such as decisions related to educational topics are made at the level of federal states (Große, Lüger and Thiériot, 2008). German culture is certainly influenced by German history, and especially by the role Germany played during World War II, the period after 1945 characterised by the separation of East and West Germany and the reunification in 1989. Hence, even though France and Germany have some common historical roots and share a common frontier, both countries have developed a strong national identity and culture which are different from each other. How this affects the co-operation between both countries at a business level and more specifically in terms of leadership will be discussed in the sections below.

4.6.2 The French and German Societal Culture Results from Hofstede and GLOBE

This section outlines French and German cultural values from Hofstede's (1980, 1991) research and societal cultural values and practices deriving from the GLOBE study with the aim of showing how France and Germany were found to differ in terms of value dimensions. Table 4.3 illustrates the index values and the corresponding ranks of Hofstede's (1980, 1991) cultural dimensions for France and Germany.

Table 4.3: Hofstede's Cultural Dimension Indexes for France and Germany (adapted from Hofstede, 1991)

Dimensions of culture	France	Germany (West)
Power Distance	PDI: 68 Rank: 15/16 ¹	PDI: 35 Rank: 42/44
Individualism versus Collectivism	IDV: 71 Rank: 10/11	IDV: 76 Rank: 15
Masculinity versus Femininity	MAS: 43 Rank: 35/36	MAS: 66 Rank: 9/10
Uncertainty Avoidance	UAI: 86 Rank: 10/15	UAI: 65 Rank 29
Long-Term versus Short-Term-Orientation	Not available	LTO: 31 Rank: 14
Indulgence versus Restraint	Not available	Not available

As can be seen from Table 4.3, Hofstede (1980, 1991) found much higher power distance values for France than for Germany (West), but both countries ranged high on the individualism index. While Germany (West) ranked relatively high on the masculinity versus femininity index, France ranked relatively high on the uncertainty avoidance index. Regarding the long-term versus short-term orientation index, no data are available for France. Germany ranged relatively in the middle of this index. Concerning the indulgence versus restraint index, also no data are available.

In contrast to Hofstede's findings from about 30 years ago, Table 4.4 shows more recent research results and illustrates country means for French and German (East and West) societal cultural values ('should be') and practices ('as is') as well as the band² in which the countries are located.

¹ Rank 15/16 means that there is another society which has the same PDI score as France.

² 'Bands A>B>C>D are determined by calculating the grand mean and standard deviations across all society "As Is" and "Should Be" scales respectively for the GLOBE sample countries. These means and standard deviations are then used to calculate low, medium, and high bands of countries' (Brodbeck and Frese 2007, p.162).

Table 4.4: French and German Country Means for Dimensions of Societal Culture (adapted from Chhokar, Brodbeck and House, 2007, p.162 and p.567)

Dimensions of culture	France		Germany	
	Score	Band	Score	Band
Societal practices ('as is')				
Power Distance	5.28 ³	A	5.25 (W) 5.54 (E)	B (W) A (E)
Uncertainty Avoidance	4.43	B	5.22 (W) 5.16 (E)	A (W) A (E)
Assertiveness	4.13	B	4.55 (W) 4.73 (E)	A (W) A (E)
Future Orientation	3.48	C	4.27 (W) 3.95 (E)	B (W) B (E)
Performance Orientation	4.11	B	4.25 (W) 4.09 (E)	B (W) B (E)
Institutional Collectivism I	3.93	B	3.79 (W) 3.56 (E)	C (W) C (E)
In-Group Collectivism II	4.37	B	4.02 (W) 4.52 (E)	C (W) B (E)
Humane Orientation	3.40	D	3.18 (W) 3.40 (E)	D (W) D (E)
Gender Egalitarianism	3.64	A	3.10 (W) 3.06 (E)	B (W) B (E)
Societal values ('should be')				
Power Distance	2.76	C	2.54 (W) 2.69 (E)	C (W) C (E)
Uncertainty Avoidance	4.26	C	3.32 (W) 3.94 (E)	D (W) C (E)
Assertiveness	3.38	B	3.09 (W) 3.23 (E)	C (W) B (E)
Future Orientation	4.96	C	4.85 (W) 5.23 (E)	C (W) B (E)
Performance Orientation	5.65	C	6.01 (W) 6.09 (E)	B (W) B (E)
Institutional Collectivism I	4.86	B	4.82 (W) 4.68 (E)	B (W) B (E)
In-Group Collectivism II	5.42	B	5.18 (W) 5.22 (E)	C (W) C (E)

³ 'Respondents rated the items on a 7-point Likert-type scale. For some scales, the response indicators ranged from 1, indicating high agreement, to 7, indicating high disagreement. For other scales, the verbal anchors in the 7-point scale reflected the end points on a continuum (e.g., 1 = assertive, 7 = non-assertive)' (House and Javidan 2004, p.21).

Table 4.4 continued

Dimensions of culture	France		Germany	
	Score	Band	Score	Band
Societal values ('should be')				
Humane Orientation	5.67	B	5.46 (W) 5.44 (E)	B (W) B (E)
Gender Egalitarianism	4.40	B	4.89 (W) 4.90 (E)	A (W) A (E)

As can be seen from Table 4.4, in contrast to Hofstede's (1980, 1991) findings, France and Germany follow similar trends regarding the dimension of 'power distance'. Both countries demonstrate lower value scores on the societal values in comparison to the practice scores. This means both cultures show 'a preference for a more egalitarian approach to status' (Brodbeck and Frese, 2007, p.159). In France, however, 'power distance' should not be compared to hierarchical distance which is still an omnipresent and important element in French culture (Castel et al., 2007). D'Iribarne (1996) explains that while power distance might be reduced in one unit of an organisation, e.g. within a particular office, the distance to those who are further up in the hierarchy remains high. This corresponds to the French 'logic of honour' which proclaims that French people 'desire to avoid interference from higher-ups' and which contributes to 'reproducing and perpetuating hierarchical distance' (Castel et al., 2007, p.568).

A similar trend to that for 'power distance' can be observed for the dimension of 'uncertainty avoidance': for both countries the value scores are lower than the practice scores. This is an indicator that managers in France and Germany prefer 'to get rid of the many rules, regulations, and constraints' (Brodbeck and Frese, 2007, p.163). This trend is even stronger for German managers than French managers.

The dimension of 'assertiveness' follows the same trend as 'power distance' and 'uncertainty avoidance': in France and in Germany the value scores are lower than the practice scores. This trend is again much stronger for Germany. According to Brodbeck

and Frese (2007) this is an indication that interpersonal relations should become less confrontational in Germany. In France, however, such a 'style is considered normal, and even desirable in daily interactions' (Castel et al., 2007, p.566).

The French and German results for the dimension of 'future orientation' demonstrate higher value scores than practice scores. The scores for France, however, are rather low and could be explained by the desire among an increasing number of French people to become civil servants which is a job 'that offers absolute job security for life' (Castel et al., 2007, p.568). Thus, future planning is less important. While the scores of East Germany follow the GLOBE trend of a preference for higher future orientation, the West German scores are exceptional. The practice score 'ranks among the highest 25%, whereas the "Should Be" score ranks within the lowest 25% of all GLOBE countries' (Brodbeck and Frese, 2007, p.164). Managers in West Germany, thus, appear to prefer reducing 'future oriented' behaviours consisting of aspects such as 'a non-risky attitude of delayed gratification, [and] planning and investment into [sic] the future' (Brodbeck and Frese, 2007, p.164).

Concerning the dimension of 'performance orientation', the value scores are higher than the practice scores for both countries. While this value score is the highest among German value scores, the French value score is lower which may be explained by ascribed status. Castel et al. (2007, p.569) point out that 'sometimes a person is considered to have already partially succeeded in life when gaining admission to a prestigious institution'. The prestigious institution refers to the '*grandes écoles*' where entrance exams are very challenging, but once successful, almost all students pass the study programme.

The practice and value scores for the dimensions of 'institutional collectivism' and 'in-group collectivism' are rather moderate in French and German societies. Such a

trend seems to be ‘typical for highly developed Western societies’ (Brodbeck and Frese, 2007, p.164). The rather high score for French societal values along the dimension of ‘in-group collectivism’ has to be highlighted. This reflects the emphasis French people accord to their family and family values (Castel et al., 2007).

France and Germany follow a similar trend regarding the dimension of ‘humane orientation’: the value scores are higher than the practice scores. Brodbeck and Frese (2007) explain the relatively low societal practice score in Germany by German companies in which social interaction ‘tends to be more task oriented, straightforward, and less “kind” than in many other countries’ (p.165). In France, the relatively low societal practice score may be explained by French people considering a ‘humane orientation’ as the task of the government and the business world: ‘[the] French are primarily moved by self-interest, but [...] they expect humanism in the social system and in the business world’ (Castel et al., p. 569). This is specifically reflected by laws and regulations which offer secure working conditions such as a minimum wage. While French employees benefit from a minimum-wage legislation, the German government is still debating on the broad introduction of such a minimum wage and has only introduced minimum wages for particular occupational groups (www.bundesregierung.de).

Concerning the dimension of ‘gender egalitarianism’, in France and in Germany the scores for societal values are higher than for societal practices. The difference between practice and value scores in Germany, however, is much higher than in France and according to Brodbeck and Frese (2007) also much higher than for other GLOBE countries. This suggests that German managers favour greater equality of opportunities for women and men. In 2011, this desire was expressed in the debate about introducing a quota for women at top management level which finally led to an agreement of

voluntary self-commitment between industry and government to do so (www.bundesregierung.de). In France, despite the law on workplace equality (July 1983), differences in the pay of men and women still persist. This to some extent explains the desire of French managers to strive for higher gender egalitarianism (Castel et al., 2007).

As can be seen from the score analysis of the societal cultural practices and values in France and in Germany, cultural differences between both societies exist. Even though, France and Germany to some extent have a shared history and have a common border, which means they are rather close from a geographical perspective, their societal cultures differ. France is rather influenced by Latin cultural values and is part of the GLOBE Latin Europe cluster, whereas Germany is characterised by Germanic cultural values and forms part of the Germanic Europe cluster in the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004).

4.6.3 Management by Objectives in France and Germany

Pateau is one of the French researchers who has examined the influence of culture on French and German leadership behaviour. He suggests that differences in leadership behaviour across both cultures exist and assumes that the application of a similar management model would result in different approaches of its operationalisation in France and Germany (Pateau, 1997). He argues that during the last 40 years, American and subsequently Japanese management models have served as archetypes worldwide, but that a large number of empirical studies show how different a universally-held theory is applied in different cultures. Pateau (1997) illustrates this using the concept of 'management by objectives' which was introduced by Peter F. Drucker in the 1950s (Drucker, 1954). The original concept is based on goal

orientation, regular control of goal achievement, goal adaptation, employees' participation in defining goals, as well as efficiency control and assessment of performance by means of the comparison of target and actual business results (Fuchs-Wegner, 1987). Pateau (1997) adds that the successful implementation of this concept in its original meaning requires being very familiar with American culture.

The concept of 'management by objectives' was introduced in France in the early 1970s with the aim of changing the prevailing traditional hierarchical and bureaucratic structures and, in particular, to enhance participation and internal communication (Bamberger and Riot, 1987). The concept in French was termed '*direction participative par objectifs (DPPO)*', in English participative management by objectives (Gelinier, 1968). As the French description signals, the focus was on introducing participation to change aspects such as a strong centralisation of power and the inability of senior management to delegate decision-making to lower levels (Mérigot and Labourdette, 1980; Morin, 1977; Trépo, 1975). However, the introduction of the original American concept of 'management by objectives' failed because it was not compatible with the prevailing French management concepts of the time (Bamberger and Riot, 1987).

In Germany the concept of 'management by objectives' was introduced in the late 1970s to replace the so-called 'Harzburger Modell' which was prevalent in the 1960s and 1970s (Müller, 1987). A key feature of this model is that responsibility is separated between the employee who is responsible for their own operations, and the manager who has the responsibility to lead and who is seen more as an administrator of the model than as a leader⁴ (Höhn, 1987). The concept of 'management by objectives'

⁴ Although the term '*Führer*' ('leader', as used for Hitler) was used in the years after the Third Reich its subsequent use became taboo as it still is today (Schlosser 2005). In the 1960s and 1970s, the leader of a company was therefore called 'administrator' (*Verwalter*).

is called in German '*Führung durch Zielvereinbarung*', which translates to 'management by agreement on objectives'. The idea is, thus, to focus on the agreement of objectives between managers and employees. However, the setting of the objectives to be achieved is not practised uniformly. Some superiors discuss the objectives with their subordinates as the management concept in its original American form suggests, while others just set the goals without any discussion (Albach, 1983). Hence, in Germany the operationalisation of the American concept also did not proceed as expected.

To summarise, as the example of the American management model 'management by objectives' shows, its theoretical transfer to other societal cultures is possible, but might be operationalised differently and give rise to different business practices. Differences between French and German business practices will be addressed in the next section.

4.6.4 Differences between French and German Business Contexts

A number of researchers have examined differences between French and German leaders. The majority of research discusses both the co-operation and misunderstandings that can occur in a mixed French and German work environment and provide practical advice regarding how to collaborate efficiently with the respective other culture. These publications will be outlined, starting with early French-German comparative leadership studies. Pateau's (1999) work will be presented next and the findings for French and German societies as part of multi-country studies will be discussed.

(i) *Early French-German Comparative Studies*

Early empirical studies which analysed differences in leadership styles across different cultures – including France and Germany – include a study by Sadler and Hofstede (1976) who investigated employees' preferences for specific types of leadership using Tannenbaum's and Schmidt's (1958) measure ranging from 'boss-centered' to 'subordinate-centered leadership'. Sadler and Hofstede (1976) found a preference for more 'boss-centered' leadership in France versus more 'subordinate-centered' leadership in Germany. This is in line with a study by Schaupp (1978) whose findings provide support for Sadler's and Hofstede's (1976) research.

As can be seen from these early empirical studies which compared the preferences of leadership styles between societal cultures, differences were discovered for the two countries of interest in the present cross-cultural study.

(ii) *Pateau's (1999) French and German Comparative Research*

Based on the findings of the early comparative studies between France and Germany, Pateau (1999) carried out the most extensive bicultural study on France and Germany to date. The findings were based on more than 300 interviews, which were carried out with employees of companies involved in a mixed French-German business context, including some interviews with students who had spent lengthy internships in both countries.

The focus of Pateau's (1999) research was on exploring differences between French and German leaders to explain possible sources of conflict emerging within such a bicultural work context. His results report differences regarding the general organisation of work and leadership styles, including delegation. Pateau's (1999) study highlights a different attitude towards hierarchy, as well as differences in the way in

which both cultures communicate. Table 4.5 summarises the differences found by Pateau (1999).

Table 4.5: Differences Emerging in a French-German Bi-Cultural Work Context (adapted from Pateau, 1999)

Differences between France and Germany		
	France	Germany
<i>Organisation of work</i>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flexibility • Creativity, Improvisation • Overview 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Precision • Structure • Detail
<i>Leadership style</i>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Superior is expected to take quick decision -> respect for hierarchy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consensus-orientated • Long discussions before decision
<i>Communication</i>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Implicit • Person-orientated 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explicit • Task-orientated

Pateau reports that Germans are perceived by French as being very precise and structured in organising their work, which is at the same time perceived as inflexible (Pateau, 1999). In contrast, the French way of work organisation is perceived by Germans as allowing for high levels of improvisation, which is associated with a lack of planning. Thus, in a mixed business context, French flexibility and German precision might conflict. Further sources of conflict include the high attention to detail that is characteristic of a German approach to work, contrasting with the French approach of keeping track of the overall context which is linked to a rather general way of working (Pateau, 1999).

Other differences between French and German people in a business context concern leadership styles. From a French perspective, the Germans are perceived as being highly consensus-orientated, which can be observed in extensive and long discussions until decisions are finally made. In France, such an approach is perceived

as being rather ineffective, where in order to accelerate decision-making it is expected that superiors take decisions even without absolute consensus. This also reflects the importance and respect for hierarchy that exists in France (Pateau, 1999).

Regarding communication, Pateau (1999) details that French people tend to communicate in a rather implicit and indirect way, while Germans use a very direct and explicit way of communicating. This might be linked to a general difference between French and Germans in a business context which asserts that French people are more person-orientated, while Germans are more task-orientated. For example, when a French person attempts to criticism performance of a specific task, this has to be communicated carefully and in an implicit way because it might be considered as a criticism of the actual person involved (Pateau, 1999). It is, therefore, possible that a precise and direct German style may conflict with a rather implicit and eloquent French one.

As described in section 4.6.3, Pateau (1997) assumes that differences in leader behaviour can be related to a different operationalisation of the same management models and can be explained by different societal cultural backgrounds. Pateau (1999) argues, for example, that differences in implementing management concepts can be linked to different attitudes towards authority which may be traced back to specific cultural orientations. According to Pateau, German people are used to living in a culture of community (*'Gemeinschaftskultur'*). This assertion refers to the time before 1871 when the territory that is today known as Germany consisted of numerous small, but sovereign states. Hence, in a particular place where everybody knows everybody else, authority is represented by a person who is traditionally elected as 'first among equals' (Pateau, 1997, p.275). France, however, was and still is to some extent, a centralised state where policy has always been executed from the centre (Große, Lüger

and Thiériot, 2008). Pateau (1997) concludes that history, national education systems and basic forms of organisation will contribute to the differences between French and German people in a business context in the future.

This argument is consistent with Geistmann (2002) who developed a concept to foster intercultural competence and used the example of France and Germany to illustrate this. Geistmann (2002) posits that the differences between both cultures are related to the political structure and its differing development throughout history i.e. centralism in France versus federalism in Germany. In addition, he identifies the different education systems as contributing to differences. In France, for example, future leaders are educated in the '*grandes écoles*'. In Germany, such an elite education system is not as institutionalised as it is in France (Geistmann, 2002).

To summarise, Pateau's (1999) research provides empirical evidence for differences between French and German people who cooperate in a business context. Both, Pateau (1997, 1999) and Geistmann (2002) agree that these differences can be explained by different historical and political backgrounds (i.e. centralism versus federalism), and different education systems in France and in Germany. A further approach to explain differences between French and German business practices will be presented in the following section.

(iii) Hall's (1976) Approach to Explaining Differences between French and German Business Practices

Hall and Hall (1990) compared aspects of French and German cultures in terms of communication and time, though did not focus specifically on leadership behaviour. The main differences between French and German culture from their research concern communication, specifically regarding high and low context. Low context cultures are

characterised by a very direct, precise communication style which provides a high amount of information. According to Hall and Hall (1990), Germany is a low context culture, whereas France is a high context culture. This means that in France, participants in a conversation need to read between the lines and a sense of information being communicated is derived from the context and the situation. This is similar to Pateau's (1999) description of a more implicit communication style in France compared to a more explicit way of communicating in Germany.

Further, Hall (1976) differentiates between a monochronic and polychronic approach to time which means that in some cultures activities are structured sequentially (monochronic cultures), while in other cultures attention is paid to doing many activities at once (polychronic cultures). German people are more monochronic in their approach to activities, whereas French people display more polychronic behaviours. Hall and Hall (1990) conclude that difficulties in French-German collaboration are, therefore, possible considering these differences. However, their model lacks empirical evidence and would thus benefit from investigation.

Kittler, Rygl and Mackinnon (2011) reviewed 26 studies carried out between 1991 and 2007, which applied Hall's (1976) low-/high-context framework, in order to identify a consistent classification of societies based on empirical evidence. They conclude that:

'Instead of resulting in a state-of-the art country classification, the study shows that virtually all studies that utilized HC/LC country classifications are based on less-than-adequate evidence and stem from dated, unsubstantiated claims which can even be traced back to Hall's own anecdotal-evidence-based classification' (Kittler, Rygl and Mackinnon, 2011, p.78).

Hence, there is evidence that Hall and Hall's (1990) research is inconsistent and the classification of societies into high- and low-contexts is limited (Kittler, Rygl and Mackinnon, 2011).

(iv) France and Germany as Part of Multi-Country Studies

Besides studies that exclusively address a French-German context, both cultures have been part of multi-country studies (e.g. Chhokar, Brodbeck and House, 2007; Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004).

One such study, which was carried out by German-speaking authors Reber, Jago and Böhnisch (1993), aimed to analyse differences in leadership behaviour between six European countries and the US. Their research is based on the Vroom/Yetton model (Vroom and Yetton, 1973), which focuses on different types of decision strategies among leaders and which asserts that decisions are made in relation to a respective situation. The study was replicated by Reber et al. (2000) and additional data was collected from a total of 4,104 managers in seven European countries: Finland, Austria, Germany, Switzerland, France, Poland and the Czech Republic. Both studies included France and Germany and found differences in decision-making strategies across the countries investigated. Germany, as part of the researchers' Germanic cluster, which also included Austria and Switzerland, was found to display a rather consensual culture in decision-making processes. The findings also showed that French people displayed more authoritarian behaviours in leadership situations compared to the members of the Germanic cluster, and significantly more participative behaviours in comparison to the respondents from Poland and Czech Republic. The results of the latter study (Reber et al., 2000) supported the notion of a dominant effect of societal culture on the leadership behaviour of managers. Cultural differences were found to explain 76 per cent of the systematic variance in such behaviour. This was also found in the initial study by Reber, Jago and Böhnisch (1993) where cultural differences explained 71 per cent of the variance. This research by Reber and colleagues is consistent with the catalogue of

studies investigating the relationship between culture and leadership and provides additional evidence for a societal cultural effect on leadership behaviour.

(v) *Summary of the French and German Comparative Studies*

The above review of French and German co-operation in a business context shows that differences in France and Germany have been investigated using a number of approaches. Early French-German comparative studies highlight different leadership styles in France and in Germany. This is also evident in Pateau's (1999) work which also focused on differences in the organisation of work and communication. The work of Reber and colleagues (e.g. Reber et al., 2000) highlighted differences in decision-making strategies in France and in Germany, and in the French education system. The literature discussed in the above sections contributes to the overall debate on the impact of societal culture on management and leadership behaviour. The French-German research confirms this relationship, as can be seen from the differences identified between both societies in a business context. The next sections will look more precisely at leadership in France and Germany.

4.6.5 Leadership in France and Leadership in Germany

The purpose of this section is to concentrate on more recent research about leadership in France and in Germany. To start with, the translation of the term leadership into French and German language will be outlined in order to analyse its meaning from a linguistic perspective. Subsequently, characteristics of French and German leadership will be discussed with a particular focus on the country findings of the GLOBE study.

(i) The Translation of Leadership into French and German Language

References to leadership in the French language tend to use the Anglicism term of leadership. 'Le Petit Robert' (2007) defines leadership as 'the function, position of leader' (*'fonction, position de leader'*), and 'dominant position' (*'position dominante'*). 'Leader' is defined as 'boss, superior, spokesperson' (*'chef, porte-parole'*) and as 'the person that is at the head of a movement, or a group' (*'personne qui prend la tête d'un mouvement, d'un groupe'*) (p.1437). Further, the French translation of leader (*'dirigeant'*) and the associated verb *'diriger'* are of interest. *'Dirigeant'* is defined as 'person who directs, leads' (*'personne qui dirige'*) (Robert, 2007, p.747). The verb is defined as 'conduct, lead (a company, an operation, business affairs) as responsible superior' (*'conduire, mener (une entreprise, une opération, des affaires) comme maître ou chef responsable'*) and it is also defined as 'make move in a direction' (*'faire aller dans une direction'*) (Robert, 2007, p.747). Thus, the French meaning of leadership is related to a person who has a dominant position in order to indicate the direction.

In the German language a translation for leadership exists. According to the Duden Dictionary (Wermke, Kunkel-Razum and Scholze-Stubenrecht, 2002), 'leadership' (*'Führung'*) is defined as 'responsible leading' (*'verantwortliches Leiten'*), 'leading position' (*'führende Position'*), 'a leading group of people' (*'führende Personengruppe'*) (Wermke, Kunkel-Razum and Scholze-Stubenrecht, 2002, p.387). An examination of the Duden Dictionary of Etymology (Klosa, Scholze-Stubenrecht and Wermke, 1997, p.210) gives further evidence of the origin of the term. Information is provided on the verb 'to lead' (*'führen'*). Its meaning is 'to set something in motion' (*'in Bewegung setzen'*). The main meaning, is 'to direct, to lead' (*'leiten'*) and 'to define the direction' (*'die Richtung bestimmen'*). Leadership in Germany is related to responsibility and to the dynamic of defining a direction.

To summarise, in France and in Germany, the meaning of the term leadership is related to somebody who indicates or defines a direction. The following two sections will discuss leadership in France and in Germany as investigated by researchers of cross-cultural leadership.

(ii) Leadership in France

France is characterised by rather Latin cultural values and forms part of the Latin Europe cluster in the GLOBE study. Further societies within this cluster are Israel, Italy, Portugal, Spain, and the French speaking part of Switzerland. The GLOBE study (House et al., 2004) found that these are characterised by a preference for leadership styles fostering charismatic and value-based leader behaviour, as well as team-oriented and participative leader behaviours. These behaviours include leader abilities such as being visionary and inspirational, as well as being a good communicator (Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck, 2004).

House, Hanges and Ruiz-Quintanilla (1997) explain that French people favour two types of leaders which are first, a strong and charismatic kind of leader and, second, a coalition former or team builder such as the former presidents De Gaulle or Mitterrand. Castel et al. (2007) add that both French managers and employees do not appreciate being supervised very closely. Instead, the task of the manager is to provide a 'strong dynamic direction' and to encourage 'consensual team building' (Castel et al., 2007, p.548). An interesting feature, however, is that it is not a requirement for a French manager to be highly charismatic or visionary (Barsoux and Lawrence, 1997). Rather, occupying a leadership position and the ascribed status which this affords is to some extent a guarantee that leaders will earn the respect of their subordinates.

The peculiarity of the French higher education system previously described, leads Castel et al. (2007) to conclude that even if leadership characteristics such as the ability to motivate, competence and future orientation are perceived as being important for effective leaders, the difference is made through personal contacts and social networks. This is regarded as the key differentiator between a good leader and an outstanding leader. The relevance of personal relationships is also described by Altman (1993) who explains that family-owned businesses in which interpersonal relationships play a major role, and which are led by the so-called '*patron*' (i.e. boss or company chief) are still of high importance in France. These familial relationships include 'loyalty, protection, succession, and the exercise of authority' (Castel et al., 2007, p.551). To conclude, it would seem that being a strong, charismatic, and team-oriented leader is an important prerequisite to being a good leader in France, but it is personal relationships and networks, as well as knowing one's own position within the network, which contributes to being an exceptional leader.

(iii) Leadership in Germany

Germany is characterised by cultural values which are specific to the Germanic Europe cluster in the GLOBE study. Austria, the Netherlands, and Switzerland are also part of this cluster within which, the preference is for charismatic and value-based leaders, who value participative leadership and encourage independent thinking (Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck, 2004). While the general preference for specific leadership styles is rather similar to France, differences can be found when taking a closer look at leadership styles. The Germanic Europe cluster, for example, is the one with the highest scores for participative leadership in the GLOBE study (Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck, 2004).

Since data collection for the GLOBE study was carried out during the mid-1990s, German results were separated into those for the former GDR East and former FRG West. It is reported that while some differences exist between East and West German leadership values, both regions are united by the common trend of valuing participative leadership (Brodbeck and Frese, 2007). Other studies carried out in the 1990s, which compared East and West German work attitudes and value systems, support these findings and report more similarities than differences between East and West (Boehnke et al., 1994; Macharzina, 1993). One comparative study between East and West, which was carried out shortly after reunification in 1990, revealed that similar leadership styles are favoured in both parts of Germany (Wuppertaler Kreis, 1992). It found that technical competence and task orientation are both important elements of effective leadership in East and West Germany. This is in line with research by Glunk, Wilderom and Ogilvie (1997) who reviewed a large amount of literature dealing with German management styles in both single country and cross-cultural comparative studies.

In order to describe the German leadership context, it is important to consider the notion of leadership itself. The literal translation of leader is '*Führer*', a term which has a negative connotation because it was used in the context of Hitler and the Nazi regime during World War II (Brodbeck and Frese, 2007). Brodbeck and Frese (2007) explain that the more depersonalised translation of '*Führungskraft*' (i.e. someone who leads) is more positively connoted and therefore preferred.

This negative connotation of the term leadership might be one explanation as to why the amount of leadership research in Germany (Müller, 1995) is relatively low in comparison to, for example, the US (e.g. Yukl, 2010), especially after the World War II

period. In this era a (stereo)typical German business leader could be characterised as a person

‘with a formal interpersonal style and straightforward behavior, technically skilled, a specialist rather than a generalist, neither bureaucratic nor authoritarian, and one who emphasizes *Technik* (i.e. technical excellence)’ (Brodbeck and Frese, 2007, p.168).

In the 1970s and 1980s, the focus of German management principles evolved with a change in societal attitudes from purely materialistic to post-materialistic values. In other words, during the post-war period people’s attitudes and behaviour were primarily focused on acquiring material wealth before a need for post-materialistic values emerged. This change involved a preference for management principles fostering concepts such as participation, inspiration and empowerment linked to values such as self-fulfilment and life satisfaction (Zander, 1995). At the same time, German leadership styles became influenced by Anglo-American management competencies with a focus on social skills, participation, as well as the ability to delegate, motivate, and inspire followers (Lawrence, 1994; Regnet, 1995; Wiendieck, 1990).

More recently, German leadership has been characterised by participation through co-determination. This is reported by Szabo et al. (2002) for the whole Germanic Europe cluster. Bass and Stogdill (1990) report that German participative leadership styles reflect the expectations of employees that they will be involved in decision-making. Once a decision has been made, employees prefer to carry out the task autonomously (Glunk, Wilderom and Ogilvie, 1997; Warner and Campbell, 1993).

Brodbeck and Frese (2007) summarise that

‘within Germany, outstanding leadership is associated with [a] high performance orientation, technical competency, autonomy, straightforwardness, constructive controversy, and participation’ (Brodbeck and Frese, 2007, p.194)

or in short ‘tough on the issue, tough on the person, participative in nature’

(Brodbeck, Frese and Javidan, 2002, p.16).

To conclude, it would seem that being a participative leader is an essential element to being a good leader in Germany. In contrast to France, the exceptional German leader is, however, characterised by being participative through taking into account the opinion of their followers, as well as showing confidence in their professional competencies which is expressed through delegation of responsibility and autonomy.

(iv) The GLOBE Results of the 22 Universal Leadership Attributes for France and Germany

As explained in section 4.4.4, one of the major findings of the GLOBE study concerned the list of 22 leadership attributes which seem to be universally accepted as contributing positively to effective leadership. Table 4.6 shows the scores obtained by the GLOBE study for the attributes for France and Germany East (former GDR) and West (former FRG), as well as the GLOBE leadership dimensions of which they form part. It presents the ranked results for France and Germany, where ranks are presented in brackets. The results are interpreted on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (greatly inhibits outstanding leadership) to 7 (contributes greatly to outstanding leadership).

Table 4.6: Values of Universal Positive Leader Attributes for France and Germany (based on House et al., 2004)

Attribute	France	Germany		Leadership Dimension
		East	West	
Confidence builder	5.38 (8)	6.12 (7)	6.03 (13)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Decisive	5.40 (7)	6.16 (6)	6.12 (8)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Dynamic	5.51 (2)	6.42 (3)	6.37 (3)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Encouraging	5.19 (17)	6.11 (9)	6.09 (9)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Excellence oriented	5.26 (12)	6.44 (2)	6.28 (4)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Foresight	5.21 (16)	5.59 (20)	5.69 (21)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Honest	5.26 (13)	6.21 (5)	6.08 (11)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Just	5.18 (18)	5.43 (22)	5.81 (18)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Motivational	5.44 (4)	6.12 (8)	6.15 (6)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Motive arouser	5.56 (1)	6.40 (4)	6.37 (2)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Plans ahead	5.08 (20)	5.80 (18)	5.98 (16)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Positive	5.15 (19)	6.11 (10)	6.14 (7)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Trustworthy	5.26 (11)	6.48 (1)	6.42 (1)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Administratively skilled	3.92 (22)	5.84 (16)	5.50 (22)	Team-Oriented
Communicative	5.45 (3)	5.47 (21)	5.74 (20)	Team-Oriented
Coordinator	4.92 (21)	5.77 (19)	5.81 (19)	Team-Oriented
Dependable	5.31 (10)	6.11 (13)	6.00 (15)	Team-Oriented
Effective bargainer	5.22 (15)	6.11 (12)	6.06 (12)	Team-Oriented
Informed	5.42 (5)	6.11 (11)	6.00 (14)	Team-Oriented
Intelligent	5.31 (9)	6.07 (14)	6.15 (5)	Team-Oriented
Team builder	5.41 (6)	5.88 (15)	6.09 (10)	Team-Oriented
Win/win problem solver	5.24 (14)	5.80 (17)	5.82 (17)	Team-Oriented

As can be seen from this table, the values of the leadership attributes for Germany are generally higher than for France. The five leadership attributes which were rated highest in France are: ‘motive arouser’, ‘dynamic’, ‘communicative’, ‘motivational’, and ‘informed’. In Germany, the five most important leadership

attributes are: 'trustworthy', 'excellence oriented', 'dynamic', 'motive arouser', and 'honest' (East), respectively 'intelligent' (West). Hence, there is some overlap between French and German preferences for particular leadership attributes, but there exist differences in the priority of the importance of them. 'Communicative' and 'informed' are ranked less important in Germany (rank 21/20 and rank 11/14) than in France, whereas 'trustworthy' and 'excellence oriented' are ranked less important in France (rank 11 and 12) than in Germany. Thus, according to the GLOBE results, differences in the importance of leadership attributes between France and Germany exist, but the difference is in the detail.

4.7 The Research Questions, Hypothesis and Propositions Deriving from the Literature Review

The review of the literature for this study has centred on leadership in France and in Germany, CLTs, the measurability of the concept of culture, and the importance of the role of leaders and followers in the leadership process. Following this review, three research questions, eight hypotheses and three propositions can be derived which are shown in Table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7: The Research Questions, Hypotheses, and Propositions

Question 1	Does the structure of effective leadership schemas differ between French and German managers and employees in a business context?
Hypotheses	<p><i>H1</i>: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French and Germans in a business context, regardless of their corresponding hierarchical level.</p> <p><i>H2</i>: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French managers and French employees.</p> <p><i>H3</i>: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between German managers and German employees.</p> <p><i>H4</i>: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will be more similar between individuals of the same nationality than between individuals of the same hierarchical level.</p>
Question 2	Does the structure of effective leadership schemas in a French and German business context differ between home and host managers?
	<p><i>H5</i>: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French managers who are working for French organisations in France and French expatriate managers who are working for French organisations in Germany.</p> <p><i>H6</i>: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between German managers who are working for German organisations in Germany and German expatriate managers who are working for German organisations in France.</p> <p><i>H7</i>: If the content is held constant, the leadership schema structure will be more similar between German managers in Germany and German expatriate managers in France than between German expatriate managers in France and French managers in France.</p> <p><i>H8</i>: If the content is held constant, the leadership schema structure will be more similar between French managers in France and French expatriate managers in Germany than between French expatriate managers in Germany and German managers in Germany.</p>
Question 3	How does the content of effective leadership schemas differ between French and German managers and employees in a business context?

Table 4.7 continued

Propositions	<p><i>P1:</i> The content of French cognitive leadership schemas will be rather characterised by attributes which form part of charismatic, team-oriented and participative leadership styles. In comparison, German cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily characterised by attributes which form part of a participative leadership style.</p> <p><i>P2:</i> The content of managers' cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily composed of innovative, visionary, long-term oriented, diplomatic and courageous leadership attributes. In comparison, the employees' cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily composed of more social and participative attributes such as team building and concern for subordinates' interests.</p> <p><i>P3:</i> The content of the cognitive leadership schemas will be more similar between home and expatriate managers of the same nationality, than between home and expatriate managers of a different nationality, but who live and work in the same country.</p>
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4.8 Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the literature on cross-cultural leadership that forms much of the basis of the focus of this study. The origins of this area of research were presented including the phenomenon of globalisation, which has contributed to increased interest and calls for more investigations into cross-cultural organisational behaviour and leadership. In this context, two approaches were discussed: the culture-free versus the culture-bound approach to leadership. While the culture-free approach neglects the potential influence of societal culture on leadership styles, the culture-bound perspective considers culture as an important determinant of different leadership styles in different societal cultures. The latter approach is in line with the perspective of the present cross-cultural leadership study.

The chapter reviewed the major trends in cross-cultural leadership. It was shown that whatever the trend, be it the discussion of the role of culture as a moderator of leadership, or the concepts of global or comparative leadership, there is consensus about the relationship that exists between societal culture and leadership. Following a

discussion of the approach to cross-cultural leadership in the GLOBE study, a review of culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories was carried out. CLTs explain that the preference for a particular leadership style is affected by societal culture (House et al., 2004). This means that it influences the content and the structure of CLTs (Shaw, 1990). Hence, CLTs also contribute to the discussion and exploration of the relationship between the concepts of leadership and culture.

The chapter then presented a brief overview of French and German historical and systemic differences. Cultural values as investigated by Hofstede and the GLOBE study, management models, business practices, and leadership in France and Germany were presented. The country comparisons showed that the application of similar management models in France and in Germany has led to a different operationalisation of these models. It was detailed that leadership in France is associated with charismatic and team-oriented leadership with a focus on personal relationships and networks, whereas in Germany the focus is on participative leadership and on underlining the professional competencies of followers by delegating responsibility and autonomy of tasks.

Based on the review of the cross-cultural leadership literature and the earlier reviews of the measurability of the concept of culture and the importance of the role of leaders and followers in the leadership process, this chapter concluded with an overview of the main research questions, hypotheses, and propositions to be addressed in this thesis.

CHAPTER V

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will outline the research methodology employed in the study. First, the research questions, hypotheses and propositions will be outlined followed by a description of the philosophical approach underpinning the chosen methodology. Second, a description of the research design will be provided which will include details about the research setting and the methods used. The design of the questionnaire as well as the design of the interview guidelines will be presented. Third, the processes of data collection and data analysis will be discussed, including a description of the software used to investigate the collected data. The chapter closes with a brief summary.

5.2 The Research Questions, Hypotheses, and Propositions

The purpose of this section is to detail the research questions of this study and to derive the corresponding hypotheses and propositions based on the literature review. Research question number one and number two both deal with the schema structure of cognitive leadership networks in France and in Germany, whereas the third research question addresses the content of cognitive leadership networks in these two societies. Table 5.1 summarises the research questions, hypotheses and propositions.

Table 5.1: The Research Questions, Hypotheses and Propositions

Question 1	Does the structure of effective leadership schemas differ between French and German managers and employees in a business context?
Hypotheses	<p><i>H1</i>: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French and Germans in a business context, regardless of their corresponding hierarchical level.</p> <p><i>H2</i>: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French managers and French employees.</p> <p><i>H3</i>: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between German managers and German employees.</p> <p><i>H4</i>: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will be more similar between individuals of the same nationality than between individuals of the same hierarchical level.</p>
Question 2	Does the structure of effective leadership schemas in a French and German business context differ between home and host managers?
Hypotheses	<p><i>H5</i>: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French managers who are working for French organisations in France and French expatriate managers who are working for French organisations in Germany.</p> <p><i>H6</i>: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between German managers who are working for German organisations in Germany and German expatriate managers who are working for German organisations in France.</p> <p><i>H7</i>: If the content is held constant, the leadership schema structure will be more similar between German managers in Germany and German expatriate managers in France than between German expatriate managers in France and French managers in France.</p> <p><i>H8</i>: If the content is held constant, the leadership schema structure will be more similar between French managers in France and French expatriate managers in Germany than between French expatriate managers in Germany and German managers in Germany.</p>

Table 5.1 continued

Question 3	How does the content of effective leadership schemas differ between French and German managers and employees in a business context?
Propositions	<p><i>P1:</i> The content of French cognitive leadership schemas will be rather characterised by attributes which form part of charismatic, team-oriented and participative leadership styles. In comparison, German cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily characterised by attributes which form part of a participative leadership style.</p> <p><i>P2:</i> The content of managers' cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily composed of innovative, visionary, long-term oriented, diplomatic and courageous leadership attributes. In comparison, the employees' cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily composed of more social and participative attributes such as team building and concern for subordinates' interests.</p> <p><i>P3:</i> The content of the cognitive leadership schemas will be more similar between home and expatriate managers of the same nationality, than between home and expatriate managers of a different nationality, but who live and work in the same country.</p>

The first two research questions are derived from culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories and mainly based on the research of Hanges et al. (2006), House et al. (2004), Den Hartog et al. (1999) and Shaw (1990). Both questions address the topic of cognitive leadership schemas which are characterised by their content (i.e. leadership attributes) and their network structure. As this study is interested in the perception of leadership across cultures, the leadership networks should be comparable. Hence, the unit of investigation of the first two research questions is the schema structure and not the content. This follows Hanges et al.'s (2006) finding that 'differences in the structure of leadership schemas [...] are related to cultural values even when the content of the schema is held constant' (p.21). Thus, the content of the leadership schemas in this cross-cultural study was derived from previous research and was similar for all respondents regardless of their nationality. How the content of the leadership schemas was determined will be described in section 5.4.2 which details the design process of the survey questionnaire.

The first research question asks: Does the structure of effective leadership schemas differ between French and German managers and employees in a business context? Its purpose is to compare leadership schemas between cultures, i.e. France and Germany, and between the hierarchical levels of managers and employees. This idea is based on research by Den Hartog et al. (1999) who found that in addition to cultural influence, differences in the structure of leadership schema derive from different hierarchical levels. According to Zander and Romani (2004), however, the variation across cultures is stronger than the variation between hierarchies. Therefore, a first set of hypotheses reads as follow:

Hypothesis 1: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French and German people in a business context, regardless of their corresponding hierarchical level.

Hypothesis 2: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French managers and French employees in a business context.

Hypothesis 3: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between German managers and German employees in a business context.

Hypothesis 4: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will be more similar between individuals of the same nationality than between individuals of the same hierarchical level.

The second research question addresses: Does the structure of effective leadership schemas in a French and German business context differ between home and host managers? Its purpose is to compare leadership schemas of home and expatriate managers in order to be able to investigate a supposed change in leadership schemas

due to a change of the working environment. This is based on research by Rousseau (2001) and Smith and DeCoster (2000) who explain that the connection weights within the cognitive structures of individuals undergo adjustment, when they are faced with new experiences. Such a change reflects a learning process within cognitive schemas. From this derives the next set of hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French managers who are working for French organisations in France and French expatriate managers who are working for French organisations in Germany.

Hypothesis 6: If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between German managers who are working for German organisations in Germany and German expatriate managers who are working for German organisations in France.

Epitropaki and Martin (2004) further detail that when the social context (i.e. working in a different country) changes implicit leadership theories tend to remain rather stable which means change in cognitive structures only takes places at a slow pace. This leads to the final set of hypotheses:

Hypothesis 7: If the content is held constant, the leadership schema structure will be more similar between German managers in Germany and German expatriate managers in France than between German expatriate managers in France and French managers in France.

Hypothesis 8: If the content is held constant, the leadership schema structure will be more similar between French managers in France and French expatriate managers in Germany than between French expatriate managers in Germany and German managers in Germany.

The third research question focuses on the content of cognitive leadership networks and follows Shaw's (1990) assumption that culture impacts on the attributes that are believed to be typical of leaders (i.e. culture impacts on the schema content). The third research question asks: How does the content of effective leadership schemas differ between French and German managers and employees in a business context? Hence, this question aims to uncover similarities and differences in cognitive leadership schemas of the respective sample groups in order to contribute to the discussion of universal and culture-specific leadership attributes.

The first proposition is based on results of the GLOBE study which investigated preferences of leadership styles across cultures. Castel et al. (2007) found that French middle managers preferred leadership styles fostering charismatic, team-oriented and participative leader behaviours. German middle managers also preferred charismatic/value-based leader behaviours, but specifically preferred a more participative leadership style (Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck, 2004). Thus, the first proposition is:

Proposition 1: The content of French cognitive leadership schemas will be rather characterised by attributes which form part of charismatic, team-oriented and participative leadership styles. In comparison, German cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily characterised by attributes which form part of a participative leadership style.

The second proposition is based on results of research by Den Hartog et al. (1999) which found differences in leadership attribute preferences at top and lower level management. They discovered that attributes such as being innovative, visionary, persuasive, long-term oriented, diplomatic and courageous were considered more relevant at higher levels of management, whereas the attributes such as caring for

subordinates, team building and participation were more important at lower levels of management. The second proposition, hence, is:

Proposition 2: The content of managers' cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily composed of innovative, visionary, long-term oriented, diplomatic and courageous leadership attributes. In comparison, the employees' cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily composed of more social and participative attributes such as team building and concern for subordinates' interests.

The last proposition is based on Epitropaki and Martin (2004) who found that implicit leadership theories remain rather stable even when the social context changes. Hence, a supposed change in cognitive structures would only occur at a slow pace. The third proposition is:

Proposition 3: The content of the cognitive leadership schemas will be more similar between home and expatriate managers of the same nationality, than between home and expatriate managers of a different nationality, but who live and work in the same country.

The way in which these research questions, hypotheses and propositions will be explored, will be described in the following sections which will be introduced by a review of the philosophical perspective taken in this study.

5.3 The Philosophical Approach

In general, and as can be seen from the literature review, research on cross-cultural leadership and management is largely characterised by a positivist epistemology and an associated quantitative research methodology which involves 'the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables' (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994, p.4). The aim of such an approach is to establish general causal laws,

akin to those of the natural sciences (Benton and Craib, 2001). Positivists do not question the form and nature of reality, rather 'an apprehendable reality is assumed to exist, driven by immutable natural laws and mechanisms' (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p.109). Proponents of this approach are guided by a realist ontology (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). This means positivists consider their reality to be separate from the language which is used to describe it (Johnson and Clark, 2006). Thus, an objective reality is assumed to exist. In positivism, research begins in a deductive way. Deduction means that conclusions are based on facts or premises. Given that these facts or premises are considered to be true and valid, the conclusions upon which they are based are also assumed to be true and valid (Pritchard, 2006). In positivism, theory is developed through the use of reason. This theory is then transformed into a model, which is subsequently tested. The aim of empirically testing the model is to investigate the extent to which it supports the collected data (Johnson and Clark, 2006).

Major criticism regarding the adoption of a positivist view in social science is related to the extension of scientific methods to the domain of human social life (Behling, 1980). Critics of this approach also argue that it excludes reference to meaning and purpose. According to Guba and Lincoln (1994)

'human behavior, unlike that of physical objects, cannot be understood without reference to the meanings and purposes attached by human actors to their activities' (p.106).

They explain that qualitative data can help overcome this criticism. It is argued that such data can deliver deeper insight into human behaviour, is of a more explorative character, and can provide contextual information which cannot be captured by using quantitative techniques alone (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Researchers who engage in qualitative methods focus on the importance of individual meaning and the complexity of the situation under investigation (Creswell, 2007).

Thus, the philosophical position which underpins this study is postpositivism. Positivism may only explain this research to some extent and thus, a perspective that goes beyond positivism seems to be more appropriate to overcome its limitations. In this study postpositivism does not represent an antipositivistic stance which for some authors summarises all epistemological approaches that do not follow a positivist perspective (Stewart, 2001). The term postpositivism, as interpreted in this study, considers the position of positivism as important, though not ample enough to explore reality in the most holistic way. Postpositivism affirms the causal complexity of social reality, acknowledging that our knowledge about this reality is not complete. Guba (1990) summarises that

‘in the positivist version it is contended that there is a reality out there to be studied, captured and understood, whereas postpositivists argue that reality can never be fully apprehended, only approximated’ (p.22).

Thus, postpositivists acknowledge that the complexity of social reality can be captured to some extent, though not perfectly by means of theories which are developed in a deductive way. Postpositivists refer to an inductive approach to enrich theory building. Induction takes into consideration that even if an assertion or premise is true, a conclusion which is drawn from such an argument may be false (Pritchard, 2006).

The philosophical approach of postpositivism is characterised by the application of multiple methods to capture as much of reality as possible, but as with positivism, the focus is on discovering and verifying theories (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). To explain the nature of reality of their research, proponents of postpositivism interpret their findings by comparing them to pre-existing knowledge, while considering that replicated findings might be true, but can always be falsified (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Increasingly, postpositivists use qualitative methods to gather more situational information, and to investigate more natural settings. The additional use of

qualitative methods in the research process enriches theory and our knowledge about reality, while the generality of this theory is still tested using quantitative techniques. Following such an approach, the subsequent sections will detail the adoption of a postpositivist perspective to the context of this cross-cultural study.

5.4 The Research Design

Following a postpositivist perspective, this study pursues a mixed methods approach in order to ensure that the conclusions reached represent a comprehensive view of cross-cultural leadership. The relationship between national culture and leadership will be tested quantitatively and will explore the cognitive leadership networks of managers and employees. According to Creswell (2009) the purpose of quantitative research is to test objective theories by examining the relationship among variables which can be measured and subsequently analysed by using statistical procedures. Researchers engaging in quantitative techniques are aimed at ‘testing theories deductively, building in protections against bias, controlling for alternative explanations, and being able to generalize and replicate the findings’ (Creswell, 2009, p.4).

To enrich the quantitative findings of the study, qualitative techniques will be applied. Qualitative research helps explore and understand the meaning which is ascribed to social or human problems by individuals or groups (Creswell, 2009). Qualitative data are usually collected in the participant’s environment and their analysis focuses on inducing from particular to general themes, with the researcher interpreting the meaning of the data (Creswell, 2007).

The combination of quantitative and qualitative enquiry is called mixed methods and is posited to be more than the sum of the analyses of quantitative and

qualitative data. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) explain that through the combination of both approaches a study can become stronger than through the use of either qualitative or quantitative research on its own. This approach is in line with the recommendations of authors such as Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003) and Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber (2009), who recommend the application of mixed method designs to the area of leadership in order to gather more in-depth data. A mixed methods approach is also in line with the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004), which applied a multiple set of methods to investigate the link between societal culture and leadership across more than 60 societies.

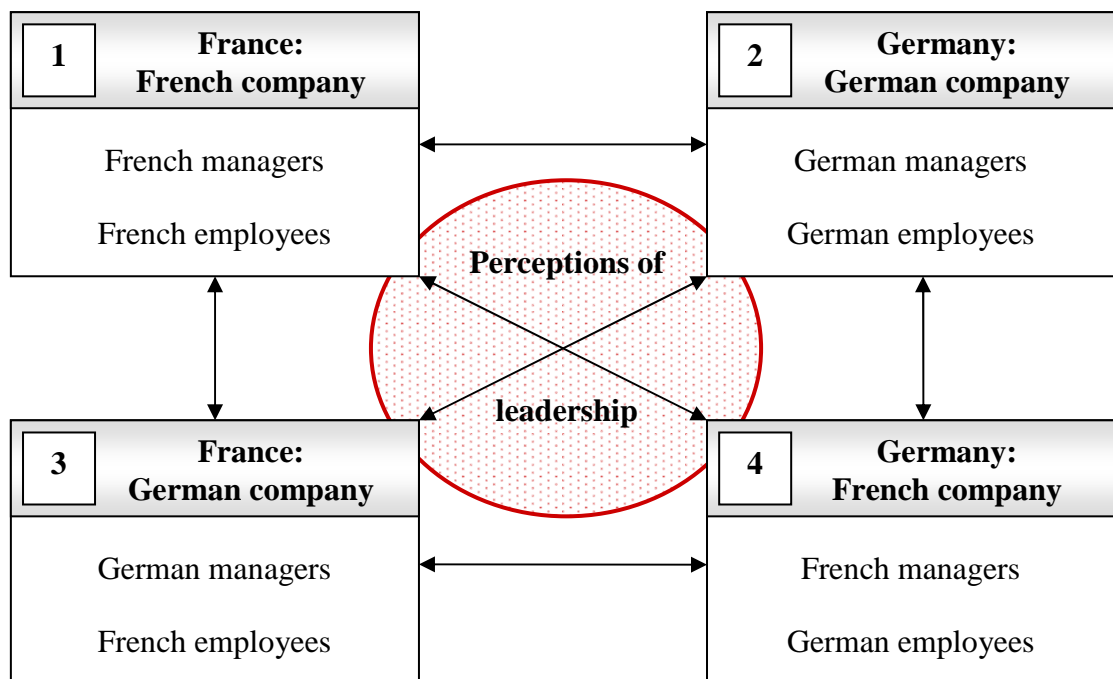
To summarise, this cross-cultural investigation will, in the first instance, allow for the quantitative testing of the aforementioned hypotheses. Additionally, the propositions will be investigated by qualitative methods in order to develop a broader understanding of the relationship between national culture and leadership perceptions. This approach, driven by a postpositivist perspective, endeavours to provide a picture of reality that is as comprehensive as possible by combining quantitative and qualitative techniques. The subsequent sections will address the operationalisation of these theoretical considerations and present the methods applied in this study.

5.4.1 The Research Setting

The specific research setting was constructed in order to provide answers to the research questions and to allow for comparisons between the single samples at different cultural and hierarchical levels. This includes comparisons at the inter-cultural level (i.e. between France and Germany) and at the inter-hierarchical level (i.e. between managers and employees). In this study, managers are considered to be those who have managerial responsibilities which means, managers are in charge of personnel and lead

a number of employees. The rationale of comparisons at the hierarchical level is based on the work of Lord and Maher (1991), who explain that leadership is most effective when leaders and followers have similar perceptions of effective leadership. This means that followers are more motivated to follow when their expectations about leadership correspond to their leader's actual leadership behaviour (Lord and Maher, 1991). A further set of comparisons can be drawn between managers and their expatriate counterparts in order to explore whether perceptions of leadership change due to the exposure to the foreign, or host environment. Figure 5.1 illustrates the research setting.

Figure 5.1: Research Setting Showing the Different Sample Situations



As can be seen from the figure, the research setting consists of four different sample dyads:

1. A pure French sample consisting of companies of French origin, which means their headquarters are located in France. Respondents are managers and employees of French nationality.

2. A pure German sample consisting of companies of German origin which are located in Germany. Respondents are managers and employees of German nationality.
3. A mixed French-German sample consisting of companies of German origin which are located in France. Respondents are German expatriate managers and their French subordinates.
4. A mixed German-French sample consisting of companies of French origin which are located in Germany. Respondents are French expatriate managers and their German subordinates.

5.4.2 The Design of the Questionnaire

The main purpose of the questionnaire was to collect data about the perceptions of leadership across France and Germany. More specifically the data from the questionnaire were used to construct cognitive leadership networks or schemas for the respondents to test the hypotheses about the structure and the content of leadership schemas as addressed in section 5.2 of this chapter and which are based on previous research (Hanges et al., 2006; Hanges, Lord and Dickson, 2000; Shaw, 1990).

The questionnaire (cf. Appendix B) consisted of three sections: first, a general section to introduce the leadership attributes which were used in this investigation; second, a section which presented attributes in a pairwise manner to measure and construct leadership networks which were based on respondents' relatedness ratings of the attribute pairs; third, a demographic section to collect information on the profile of respondents. Table 5.2 summarises the different sections of the questionnaire.

Table 5.2: Overview of the Survey Questionnaire Content

	Section 1	Section 2	Section 3
What?	Leadership attributes and definitions	Leadership attributes in pairwise presentation	Demographic details
How?	7-point scale from 1 (greatly inhibits a person from being an effective leader) to 7 (contributes greatly to a person being an effective leader).	Relatedness ratings to be rated on a 5-point scale from 1 (not at all related) to 5 (highly related).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal background • Family background • Work background • Educational background • Information about organisation
Source	22 universal leadership attributes from GLOBE (Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck, 2004).	Set of 10 attributes out of 22 universal attributes to be considered most contributing to outstanding leadership in France and Germany.	Adapted from the GLOBE questionnaire (House et al., 2004).

(i) Questionnaire: Section 1

The first step to develop section 1 of the questionnaire consisted of identifying the set of leadership attributes which could be used to capture leadership schemas of the different sample groups in France and in Germany. A key criterion for the inclusion of the leadership attributes was that they be universally accepted as contributing to effective leadership as this was the object of investigation. Hanges et al.'s (2006) research provided initial information with regard to the leadership attributes, but did not specify how the list of 17 universal attributes was compiled. This list includes the following attributes: 'collaborative', 'consultative', 'decisive', 'diplomatic', 'dynamic', 'excellence oriented', 'group-oriented', 'inspirational', 'intellectually stimulating', 'just', 'loyal', 'motivational', 'plans ahead', 'team builder', 'trustworthy', 'visionary', and 'win/win problem solver'. Hanges et al. (2006) only mention that they based their choice of units on the research of Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck (2004) which forms the chapter on culturally endorsed leadership profiles in the GLOBE study (House et

al., 2004). The GLOBE study, however, provides a list of 22 leadership attributes which were universally found to contribute to outstanding leadership (House et al., 2004). In total, the study by Hanges et al., (2006) and the GLOBE study have nine attributes in common. These are: 'decisive', 'dynamic', 'excellence oriented', 'just', 'motivational', 'plans ahead', 'team builder', 'trustworthy', and 'win/win problem solver'. All other attributes form part of the GLOBE leadership dimensions of charismatic/ value-based and team-oriented leadership styles.

Since Hanges et al.'s (2006) research did not specify the basis of their universal attributes, Prof. Paul Hanges was contacted by the author and asked about how best to select leadership attributes for the construction of the cognitive leadership schemas. He recommended to base further research on the GLOBE leadership attributes. Such an approach would, on the one hand, enable direct comparability with the GLOBE study and, on the other hand, would ensure that the logic of this investigation was as traceable as possible. Furthermore, the GLOBE study clearly describes the criteria which must be fulfilled in order for an attribute to be considered universal. Thus, the first section of the questionnaire presents the set of 22 GLOBE leadership attributes and their definitions.

The respondents were asked to rate the degree to which those attributes contribute to a person or inhibit a person from being an effective leader on a 7-point scale. Table 5.3 provides an overview of these attributes and their definitions.

Table 5.3: Universal Leadership Attributes as Defined by House et al. (2004)

Attribute	Definition
1. Administratively skilled	Is able to plan, organise, coordinate and control work of large numbers (over 75) of individuals.
2. Communicative	Communicates with others frequently.
3. Confidence builder	Instills others with confidence by showing confidence in them.
4. Coordinator	Integrates and manages work of subordinates.
5. Decisive	Makes decisions firmly and quickly.
6. Dependable	Is reliable.
7. Dynamic	Is highly involved, energetic, enthused, motivated.
8. Effective bargainer	Is able to negotiate effectively, able to make transactions with others on favourable terms.
9. Encouraging	Gives courage, confidence or hope through reassuring and advising.
10. Excellence oriented	Strives for excellence in performance of self and subordinates.
11. Foresight	Anticipates possible future events.
12. Honest	Speaks and acts truthfully.
13. Informed	Is knowledgeable; aware of information.
14. Intelligent	Is smart, learns and understands easily.
15. Just	Acts according to what is right or fair.
16. Motivational	Stimulates others to put forth efforts above and beyond the call of duty and make personal sacrifices.
17. Motive arouser	Mobilizes and activates followers.
18. Plans ahead	Anticipates and prepares in advance.
19. Positive	Is generally optimistic and confident.
20. Team builder	Is able to induce group members to work together.
21. Trustworthy	Deserves trust, can be believed and relied upon to keep his/her word.
22. Win/win problem solver	Is able to identify solutions which satisfy individuals with diverse and conflicting interests.

(ii) Questionnaire: Section 2

The second section of the questionnaire collected the relatedness-ratings of all possible pairwise combinations of the universal attributes of section one. Initially it was planned to carry out the rating task with all 22 attributes which would have required

respondents to complete a total of $n*(n-1)/2 = 231$ ratings. Pretests, however, showed that it would take respondents too much time complete the questionnaire and would lead to more complex schema structures needing to be explored. Therefore, and to avoid the risk of a poor response rate, it was decided to limit the choice of universal attributes. This issue was also discussed with Prof. Paul Hanges and Prof. Dr. Felix Brodbeck who was a co-author in one of Hanges et al.'s (2001) publications. As a result of these discussions the GLOBE list of 22 universal leadership attributes was reduced to ten attributes, which meant a total of 45 pairs of attributes to rate. The set of ten leadership attributes includes: 'confidence builder', 'decisive', 'dynamic', 'excellence oriented', 'informed', 'intelligent', 'motivational', 'motive arouser', 'team builder', and 'trustworthy' and is based on the country specific GLOBE findings for France and Germany. The country specific GLOBE findings for the single leadership attributes are not detailed in the GLOBE study itself, but were provided by Prof. Paul Hanges.

Table 5.4 summarises the scores obtained by the GLOBE study for the set of ten attributes for France and Germany East (former GDR) and West (former FRG), as well as the GLOBE leadership dimensions of which they form part. Ranks are presented in brackets and relate to the initial ranking among the 22 leadership attributes. The results are interpreted on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (greatly inhibits outstanding leadership) to 7 (contributes greatly to outstanding leadership).

Table 5.4: Values of Ten Universal Positive Leader Attributes for France and Germany (based on House et al., 2004)

Attribute	France	Germany		Leadership Dimension
		East	West	
Confidence builder	5.38 (8)	6.12 (7)	6.03 (13)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Decisive	5.40 (7)	6.16 (6)	6.12 (8)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Dynamic	5.51 (2)	6.42 (3)	6.37 (3)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Excellence oriented	5.26 (12)	6.44 (2)	6.28 (4)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Informed	5.42 (5)	6.11 (11)	6.00 (14)	Team-Oriented
Intelligent	5.31 (9)	6.07 (14)	6.15 (5)	Team-Oriented
Motivational	5.44 (4)	6.12 (8)	6.15 (6)	Charismatic/ Value-Based
Motive arouser	5.56 (1)	6.40 (4)	6.37 (2)	Charismatic/ Value-Based
Team builder	5.41 (6)	5.88 (15)	6.09 (10)	Team-Oriented
Trustworthy	5.26 (11)	6.48 (1)	6.42 (1)	Charismatic/ Value-Based

The ten leadership attributes for the construction of the connectionist networks have been selected based on calculations of the weighted means of the attributes' scores for France and Germany (East and West).

(iii) Questionnaire: Section 3

The questions in section three of the questionnaire related to demographic information and provided data on the respondents' personal and family background, as well as on their educational background and work experience. Respondents were, for example, asked about their nationality, the country where they currently lived and worked, and the ownership of their company in order to match them to the target sample. Respondents were also asked about their parents' place of birth and the languages which were spoken during their childhood. This set of questions was aimed to gather information about the respondents' cultural background and the extent to which they were coming from a more German or a more French cultural background.

Questions regarding the respondents' work background focused on the particular position of the respondents within their companies and asked for aspects such as the number of years of work experience, their hierarchical level, and the kind of work which was primarily done in their work unit. The information about respondents' hierarchical level was important to match them to the target samples of managers and employees. The questionnaire closed with questions on the respondents' current organisation, asking for their company's size and sector, which were relevant information to describe contextual factors of the respondents. Most of the demographic questions were in line with those from the GLOBE study which also collected data within organisations for cross-cultural comparisons.

5.4.3 The Questionnaire Administration

The questionnaire was designed as an online survey using [surveymonkey.com](https://www.surveymonkey.com). Major advantages of such a web-based administration are that it is fast, flexible and highly cost effective (Cook, Heath and Thompson, 2000). The rapid development of the internet as a mean of data collection has been noted in the literature on survey research, and the internet is now widely recognised as an option for data collection (Dillman and Bowker, 2001). Electronic mail and web-based surveys have the potential to reach large numbers of respondents inexpensively and can contribute to rapid replies (Schmidt, 1997). This means that online surveys are attractive for economic reasons. Online surveys are also believed to be easy to use (Parker, 1992) and can be completed at the respondent's pace (Cook, Heath and Thompson, 2000). Another aspect, which is appealing to respondents is that online surveys offer more innovative interfaces than do paper surveys (Schillewaert, Langerak and Duhamel, 1998). This is believed to increase the usability and readability of survey questionnaires. There are, however, some

limitations to online surveys. A first limitation deals with the representativeness of the surveyed sample and the corresponding response rate. Sheehan and McMillan (1999) observed that response rates of e-mail surveys appear to be lower than response rates of paper-based mail surveys. They therefore suggest that researchers who wish to engage in internet survey methods should try to increase their response rates (Sheehan and McMillan, 1999). A higher response rate, though, does not necessarily mean higher representativeness (Krosnick, 1999). According to Krosnick (1999), research suggests that surveys with very low response rates can be more accurate than surveys with higher response rates. Aoki and Elasmr (2000) conclude that if the internet is used for general population surveys, these limitations have to be overcome. However, if it is used within specific populations which are internet literate, it can offer more advantages than traditional modes of data collection could provide (Aoki and Elasmr, 2000).

Dillman (2000) developed 14 principles which help limit the four traditional sources of survey error in internet surveys. These are coverage error, sampling error, measurement error, and non-response error. The principles for the design of web surveys are presented in Table 5.5 which also details their adaptation to the online survey of this study.

Table 5.5: Principles for the Design of the Online Survey (adapted from Dillman, 2000)

No.	Dillman's principles	Adapted principles
1.	Introduce the web questionnaire with a welcome screen that is motivational, emphasises the case for responding, and instructs respondents on the action needed for proceeding to the next page.	The survey was introduced with a welcome screen, detailing the purpose of the study as described in the introducing letter of the paper version of the questionnaire (cf. Appendix B).
2.	Provide a PIN number for limiting access only to people in the sample.	Respondents were provided with a personalised link which directed them to the survey.

Table 5.5 continued

No.	Dillman's principles	Adapted principles
3.	Choose as the first question an item that is likely to be interesting to most respondents, easily answered, and fully visible on the first screen of the questionnaire.	The survey started with the leadership attributes and definitions which had to be rated on a 7-point scale. This question was fully visible on the screen.
4.	Present each question in a conventional format similar to that normally used on paper self-administered questionnaires.	The format of the online survey followed a similar format to the paper version of the questionnaire.
5.	Restrain the use of colour so that figure/ground consistency and readability are maintained, navigational flow is unimpeded, and measurement properties of questions are maintained.	A simple and basic blue colour scheme which was suggested by the survey provider was used which did not disturb readability or navigational flow.
6.	Avoid differences in the visual appearance of questions that result from different screen configurations, operating systems, browsers, partial screen displays and wrap-around text.	Once the survey was created online, the visual and functional appearance was tested in different operating systems and browsers.
7.	Provide specific instructions on how to take each necessary computer action for responding to the questionnaire and other necessary instructions at the point where they are needed.	All instructions were carefully described and pretested before the online survey was open to respondents.
8.	Use drop-down boxes sparingly, consider the mode implications, and identify each with a "click here" instruction.	The online survey did not use any drop-down boxes, all possible clicking-options were written out, and an additional box for "other" responses was included.
9.	Do not require respondents to provide an answer to each question before being allowed to answer any subsequent ones.	The questions on each page could be answered in random order. Before going to the next page, respondents were reminded to fill in missing answers, if they forgot to reply to questions on that page.
10.	Provide skip directions in a way that encourages marking of answers and being able to click to the next applicable question.	Questions could be skipped within one page. Respondents could go back to previous pages and change answers.

Table 5.5 continued

11.	Construct web questionnaires so they scroll from question to question unless order effects are a major concern, and/or telephone and web survey results are being combined.	The online survey was constructed so that respondents could scroll from question to question within one page. To move to either previous or next pages, the corresponding buttons had to be clicked.
12.	When the number of answer choices exceeds the number that can be displayed in a single column on one screen, consider double banking with an appropriate grouping device to link them together.	The number of answer choices did not exceed the number that could be displayed in a single column on one screen.
13.	Use graphical symbols or words that convey a sense of where the respondent is in the completion process, but avoid ones that require significant increases in computer memory.	The survey provider offers the possibility of including a bar which shows what percentage of the survey has been completed. This was provided in the survey.
14.	Exercise restraint in the use of question structures that have known measurement problems on paper questionnaires, e.g. check-all-that-apply and open-ended questions.	No check-all-that-apply questions were used in the survey. Only simple open-ended questions were used, e.g. for the respondents' education.

The second of Dillman's principles addresses the source of sampling error, which limits access to people in the sample. It is closely linked to coverage error which provides each solicited sample member with a known (Dillman and Bowker, 2001). Principles 6, 11 and 13 are also concerned with coverage error. They mostly deal with technological issues relating to how respondents receive and respond to the survey (Dillmann et al., 1998).

The limitations concerning measurement error are addressed by eight principles: 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, and 14. They relate to: differences which occur between the presentation of the survey on the programmer's screen and the presentation of the survey on the respondent's screen, problems which are unique to internet questionnaires (use of drop-down boxes and skip directions), and issues which are

important when online surveys are complemented by paper questionnaires (Dillman and Bowker, 2001).

The issue of non-response error is addressed by nine of the principles: 1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 11, 13, and 14. Their purpose is to limit the frustration of respondents which could lead to non-response. These principles involve introducing the online survey with an attractive first screen (principle 1) so that participants who might be less computer literate are encouraged to continue the online survey. Non-response can also be limited by starting the online survey with an easily answerable question (principle 3), by avoiding the inappropriate use of drop-down boxes (principle 8), or by showing respondents how far they already progressed in the online survey (principle 13) (Dillman and Bowker, 2001).

5.4.4 The Design of the Interview Schedule

In addition to the questionnaire, interviews were carried out in order to provide deeper insights than could be provided by the questionnaire alone. Interviews enable detailed information to be gathered about participants and, therefore, provide additional knowledge to capture reality in a more complete way as is suggested by a postpositivist philosophy (Creswell, 2009). Carrying out interviews allows the researcher to have control over the line of questioning. The qualitative data that is gathered through interviews provides additional and richer insights through the individual perspectives of the interviewees. Creswell (2009) suggests, however, that not all interviewees are equally articulate and perceptive and that some interviewees might need more information to be able to answer the interview questions.

For the present study, four different versions of semi-structured interview schedules were developed (cf. Appendix E). These comprise the home managers'

version, the home employees' version, the expatriate managers' version and the version for employees who were supervised by an expatriate manager.

The interviews were semi-structured and the questions were mainly open-ended to elicit more depth on participants' views (Creswell, 2009). The content of the interviews varied depending on the status of the respondent (manager or employee, expatriate or home manager, employee with expatriate or home manager). All interview schedules had in common a general part on leadership in a business context and on the relationship between manager and employee. The interview questions in the general part on leadership in a business context were derived from the core leadership literature including Avolio, Bass and Jung (1999), Bass and Bass (2008), Bass and Stogdill (1990), and Yukl (2010). This literature includes investigations about different leadership behaviours, e.g. transformational and transactional styles, which can be captured quantitatively by the MLQ. In the present study, for example, one of the questions in the general section asked for the interviewees' description of effective leadership in a business context with the aim of capturing their perspectives on the concept of leadership behaviour.

The questions which asked about the relationship between manager and employee were based on literature dealing with the theme of the leader-follower relationship (e.g. Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995; Lord and Maher, 1991; Schyns and Day, 2010; Yukl, 2010). One question of the leader-member exchange scale (LMX 7), for example, asks 'Do you know where you stand with your leader... do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do? (rarely, occasionally, sometimes, fairly, often, very often)'. In the present study one question asked whether and how regularly employees received feedback from their managers and another question asked about the

nature of communication between employee and manager when employees need advice or input from their manager.

For the manager interviews, additional elements concerned questions regarding leadership training, intercultural training and questions which focused on the degree of exposure to cultures other than the current one. The additional questions asking about the manager's leadership and intercultural training were derived from the core leadership literature (Bass and Bass, 2008; Bass and Stogdill, 1990; Yukl, 2010) and literature about intercultural training (Black and Mendenhall, 1990; Tung, 1998). The latter literature sets out that intercultural training is effective in order to prepare managers for foreign assignments. One of the questions in the present study asked, for example, whether managers had completed any intercultural training in their career to date. The questions focusing on the degree of exposure to cultures other than the current one were based on the theoretical work of Shaw (1990) who assumed that societal culture has an effect on the structure of cognitive leadership schemas. In this section, interviewees were asked where and for how long they had worked abroad.

The expatriate interviews had an additional section on the specificities of expatriation, and focused on the two cultures of France and Germany. The questions which were asked in this section were derived from the work of Brodbeck and Frese (2007), Castel et al. (2007), and Pateau (1999). Pateau (1999), for example, interviewed employees of companies in France and Germany about their experiences with working with the other culture. In the context of the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004), Brodbeck and Frese (2007) and Castel et al. (2007) interviewed German and French managers about their specific views about leadership in Germany and leadership in France and about the leadership characteristics of outstanding leaders. Questions in the present study asked, for example, about the personal qualities and competences which

were necessary to be successful in the position in the host country and whether these were different from what would be needed in a comparable position in the home country.

5.4.5 The Translation of the Questionnaire and the Interview Schedule

The questionnaire was designed in English and then translated into French and German and subsequently back-translated into English as recommended by Brislin (1986). Furthermore, to limit any bias caused by incorrect translations, official translations of relevant parts of the questionnaire were obtained from both the French and German GLOBE research coordinators. These official translations were particularly important for the translation of the leadership attributes and their definitions. This was to ensure consistency with those parts of the questionnaire which were based on the GLOBE research project. In total four versions of the questionnaire were designed: manager and employee versions in German and in French. Similarly, the interview schedule was designed first in English, then translated into French and German and subsequently back-translated into English.

5.5 The Data Collection

The period of data collection is best described in three phases. These are: (1) the pilot phase; (2) the quantitative data collection phase; and (3) the qualitative data collection phase. Table 5.6 provides an overview of when each data collection phase was completed.

Table 5.6: Overview of the Data Collection Phase

	Pilot phase	Questionnaire phase	Interview phase
Time frame	April 09 – July 09	Aug 09 – Sept 10	Oct 09 – Oct 10
Aim	Questionnaire tested: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Time • Wording • Online functionality Interviews tested: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Time • Wording Companies contacted	Questionnaire online-link sent to companies to collect required number of questionnaire responses.	Contacted potential interviewees, agreed on interview meetings, and carried out interviews with respondents who had already filled in the questionnaire.

5.5.1 The Pilot Phase

The pilot phase involved pre-testing the questionnaire and the interviews, as well as contacting companies to gain their participation in the study. The aim of pre-testing the questionnaire was to measure the time needed to complete it, to verify that the wording was understandable, and to test that the online version of the questionnaire was running accurately. The interview guidelines were pre-tested to obtain an idea of how long the different types of interviews would take, as well as to verify the wording and the flow of the questions. Both the questionnaire and the interview schedules were pretested. Eight respondents participated in the pilot questionnaire and subsequently in a pilot interview. Most of these respondents were fluent in both languages. This approach was to ensure that the meaning of questions would be the same in both languages. Linguistic adjustments were consequently made where necessary. Four personnel interviews were carried out and four on the telephone. Four of the respondents were native German speakers and four of them native French speakers. The pilot questionnaires and interviews were not included in the analysis as not all of them precisely matched the target sample. For example, one of the pilot German managers worked for a French company in France, but previously worked for a German

company, and one of the pilot French managers worked for a Japanese company in Germany, but previously worked for a French company in Germany.

During the pilot phase, initial contact was made with companies in France and in Germany in two specific sectors, namely the automotive and financial sector. A short description of the research itself, its contribution and the importance of supporting this study was sent to each human resource department by email.

5.5.2 The Questionnaire Phase

The questionnaire phase involved a number of key steps which were repeated several times sequentially. First, potential respondents were contacted to gain their participation in the study. Second, once those agreeing to participate were identified an email was prepared and sent to all potential respondents within the company. The email detailed the aims of the study and included the link to the online survey and a deadline date by which the questionnaire needed to be completed. Third, when this deadline expired and the number of responses was still very low, a reminder was prepared and the contact person within each company was asked to forward the reminder to all participants.

Initially, only companies in the two specific sectors, namely the automotive and the financial sector, and managers at a middle management level were contacted to ensure comparability between samples. Due to low response rates, which might be partly explained by the economic crisis which had impacted on both these sectors, both of these requirements were subsequently relaxed. It was decided to accept respondents to participate in the survey regardless of their sector or level of management.

Again, contact was made with the human resource departments of the companies of interest which fitted to the research setting (as described in Figure 5.1 in

section 5.4.1). Most of these contacts were arranged through local Chambers of Commerce and Industry. However, several difficulties were encountered in both countries. In Germany, for example, work councils need to approve the administration of external surveys and it was difficult to gain their support because they receive many such enquiries on a daily basis. In France, it was even more difficult to convince companies to participate in this research study carried out by a German student. In particular, this concerned participants in the purely French research setting (cf. box 1 in Figure 5.1), potential respondents did not see the benefit of participating in the research.

In a second step, organisations such as the French-German Chamber of Commerce and Industry were contacted as well as French-German business clubs in both countries because it was assumed that their awareness and understanding of the necessity of such research would be much higher. Further respondents were acquired through alumni-networks of universities, which worked very well for the French respondents, as well as by means of professional networks such as the online-platform xing.com in Germany. Table 5.7 summarises the exact numbers per contact source.

Table 5.7: Numbers of Respondents per Contact Source

Source	French respondents	German respondents
Companies	43.2% (N = 64)	69.4% (N = 109)
Business Clubs	3.4% (N = 5)	4.5% (N = 7)
Alumni	45.3% (N = 67)	0
Xing	8.1% (N = 12)	26.1% (N = 41)
Total	148	157

As can be seen from Table 5.7 the French respondents were mainly sourced from companies and alumni networks, while the German respondents were mainly sourced from company contacts and xing.com. As a result, the final sample is very

diverse, but the key unit of analysis of this study concerns individuals, respectively employees and managers from different cultures, and this aspect was ensured within each contact source.

5.5.3 The Interview Phase

This final section of the questionnaire asked whether the respondent was willing to do an interview. If so, contact details of the respondents were gathered and interview partners were subsequently contacted to agree on interview times. Interviews were carried out in France in French companies with French managers and French employees. Interviews were carried out in Germany in German companies with German managers and employees. Furthermore, French and German expatriate managers and their subordinates were interviewed. Interviews were carried out in the interviewees' native language, either face-to-face or on the telephone depending on the interviewee's preference. Most of the interviews at the beginning of the interview phase were carried out on a face-to-face basis; later interviews were done mainly over the telephone. This approach of starting with face-to-face interviews and continuing by telephone interviews was primarily due to the limited travel budget of the researcher. Initial interviews in France were carried out in the context of two visits to companies in the Paris region. Later interviews on the telephone were carried out with respondents who were working for companies which were more dispersed all over France. The German face-to-face interviews were mainly carried out in the southwest of Germany,. Telephone interviews were carried with the respondents from more northern and eastern parts of Germany.

At the beginning of every interview interviewees were asked whether they would agree to being recorded. They were assured that their information would be

treated in an anonymous way and that they would not be identified in the research write up. They were informed that if they did not want to respond to specific questions, they could refuse to do so. All interviews were recorded and transcribed by transcription companies afterwards.

5.6 The Composition of the Sample

The decision about the sample size was mainly based on the sizes of samples of previous research which used the Pathfinder software (Schvaneveldt, 1990) to analyse cognitive network structures. A comparable study by Hanges et al. (2001), which investigated cognitive leadership schemas across different cultures collected data from about 50 MBA students in each of their cultures of interest: 33 from Germany, 50 from the US, 54 from Mexico. Another study by Hanges, Lim and Duan (2004) on combat teams and their superiors showed that for every one leader, data on about six followers was collected: in total, data were collected from 57 superiors and 331 subordinates. Foti, Knee and Backert (2008) collected data from 75 students in order to construct trait networks of student leaders. Kivlighan (2008) surveyed 32 counsellor trainees and 42 experienced counsellors and applied Pathfinder network analysis to examine the changes in their procedural and procedural structural knowledge. Kivlighan and Kivlighan (2009) also applied Pathfinder network analysis in a subsequent study and interventions for 33 group counselling trainees and three experienced group therapists. Davis (2008) examined the cognitive structures of 51 government employees of a Western city who participated in a workforce diversity training programme and compared these to the cognitive structures of four experienced (with on average ten years of workforce diversity experience) workforce diversity consultants. Based on the sample sizes of these studies which applied the Pathfinder network analysis producing

significant results, it was decided to target a response of 50 questionnaires and to carry out ten interviews within each sub-sample as specified in Figure 5.1.

In total 380 online questionnaires were commenced, 309 were fully completed and 305 could be correctly matched to the target sample. Four of the questionnaires did not fit to the target sample, as these respondents were either working as French managers in German companies in Germany, or vice versa as German managers in French companies in France. A total of 84 interviews were carried out of which eight were part of the pilot study. Thus, 76 interviews matched the target sample and will be used for the qualitative analyses. Table 5.8 presents the number of responses for both questionnaires and interviews.

Table 5.8: Number of Respondents Considered in the Analysis

Sample	Number of questionnaires	Number of interviews
F R A N C E		
French company		
• French managers	58	6
• French employees	34	5
Sub-total	92	11
German company		
• German managers	38	11
• French employees	25	10
Sub-total	63	21
G E R M A N Y		
German company		
• German managers	51	15
• German employees	56	11
Sub-total	107	26
French company		
• French managers	31	13
• German employees	12	5
Sub-total	43	18
Total responses	305	76

As can be seen from Table 5.8, the number of questionnaires collected from domestic employees with an expatriate manager as a superior is rather low. It was quite difficult to gain access to these employee samples, therefore it was decided to focus on a sufficient number of their managers and to accept the low number of employees as a limitation of this study. Consequently, the number of interviews carried out with these employee samples is also rather low, but at least five interviews per sample group were carried out. The number of interviews carried out with French managers and employees in France is also rather low. As already described above, it was difficult as a German student to gain access to the purely French respondents, although the language was not a problem at all.

The sample is rather heterogeneous as participants were drawn from diverse backgrounds in terms of company sector and size. Table 5.9 details the French nationality sample in comparison to the German nationality sample, regardless of the country where they were currently working and living. More details will be presented in the descriptive statistics section 6.2 of the questionnaire analysis Chapter 6. The sample description in this section serves as an overview of the profile of the respondents.

Table 5.9: Overview of the Profiles of the German and the French Respondents

		French respondents	German respondents
Total number of questionnaires		148	157
Company sector			
	Automotive	25.7% (N = 38)	21.0% (N = 33)
	Financial services	32.4% (N = 48)	3.2% (N = 5)
	Energy	8.1% (N = 12)	6.4% (N = 10)
	Machine manufacturing	7.4% (N = 11)	14.6% (N = 23)
	Transportation	4.7% (N = 7)	4.5% (N = 7)
	IT	3.4 (N = 5)	28.0% (N = 44)
	Other	18.3% (N = 27)	22.3% (N = 35)
Company size			
	1-9 employees	2.0% (N = 3)	3.2% (N = 5)
	10-49 employees	4.1% (N = 6)	1.3% (N = 2)
	50-249 employees	9.5% (N = 14)	20.4% (N = 32)
	250-499 employees	10.8% (N = 16)	22.9% (N = 36)
	500-999 employees	2.7% (N = 4)	3.2% (N = 5)
	1,000 and more employees	70.9% (N = 105)	49.0% (N = 77)
		French respondents	German respondents
Type of work primarily done within unit			
	Administration, planning, support services, IT, purchasing	12.8% (N = 19)	14.7% (N = 23)
	Engineering, manufacturing, production, R&D	12.2% (N = 18)	20.4% (N = 32)
	Finance or accounting	27.7% (N = 41)	13.4% (N = 21)
	Marketing, sales, communication	26.3% (N = 39)	29.9% (N = 47)
	HRM, personnel management	3.4% (N = 5)	1.9% (N = 3)
	Consulting, strategy, project management	5.4% (N = 8)	12.1% (N = 19)
	Other	12.2% (N = 18)	7.6% (N = 12)

As can be seen from Table 5.9 in total 148 respondents of French nationality participated in the study and a total of 157 German respondents participated. This table

shows that more than half of the French respondents worked in the automotive (25.7%) and financial services (32.4%) sectors, while more than half of their German counterparts worked in the automotive sector (21.0%), in machine manufacturing (14.6%), and the IT sector (28.0%). Concerning the company size, more than two thirds of the French respondents (70.9%) worked in large companies with 1,000 or more employees. About 20% worked in small and medium sized companies with either 50 to 249 employees (9.5%) or 250 to 499 employees (10.8%). In comparison to their French counterparts, only half of the German sample (49.0%) worked for large companies with 1,000 or more employees and another 40% worked for small and medium sized companies with either 50 to 249 employees (20.4%) or 250 to 499 employees (22.9%). Concerning the type of work, which was primarily done in the unit in which the respondents worked, Table 5.9 shows that most of the French respondents worked in finance or accounting (27.7%), and in marketing, sales or communication (26.3%). Most of the German respondents also worked in marketing, sales or communication (29.9%), or were employed in engineering, manufacturing, production or research and development (20.4%).

Hence, the sample was derived from a wide range of sources, but the focus within the present study was on the key unit of analysis of individuals, namely managers and employees from different cultures. This was ensured through all sample groups. The focus of this study was not on the contextual factors such as company size and sectors, and therefore the diversity of these factors should not limit the representativeness of the cross-cultural sample.

5.7 The Data Analysis

The process of data analysis consisted of three steps. First, all of the questionnaire data were inputted into the statistics software program SPSS. Second, the network data were prepared for analysis using the Pathfinder analysis software PC Knot, and third, the interview data were prepared to be inputted into the qualitative analysis software QSR NVivo.

5.7.1 The Questionnaire Analysis

The main purpose of the questionnaire was to collect data in order to construct the respondents' cognitive leadership networks. The analysis process of the network data itself was characterised by comparisons at different cultural and hierarchical levels in order to provide answers to the research questions and hypotheses. The set of comparisons is summarised in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Comparisons of Leadership Networks and their Outcome

Comparison	Outcome
1. French and German respondents	General networks of the French and the German respondents (i.e. regardless of their hierarchical level and the country where they were living and working).
2. Leadership networks of the managers and the employees	General networks of the managers and the employees (i.e. regardless of their nationality and the country where they were living and working).
3. Leadership networks of the French respondents in France and the German respondents in Germany	General networks of the respondents of the same nationality and the same country of residence, regardless of their hierarchical level
4. Leadership networks of the domestic managers and their employees; comparisons at inter-cultural and inter-hierarchical level	Specific networks of the French managers and French employees in France and of the German managers and German employees in Germany
5. Leadership networks of the domestic and the expatriate managers; comparisons at intra-cultural, inter-cultural and inter-functional level	Specific networks of the French managers in France, the French managers in Germany, the German managers in Germany and the German managers in France
6. Leadership networks of the employees with home manager as a direct superior and the employees with expatriate manager as a direct superior	Specific networks of the French employees in France with either a French home or a German expatriate manager as a direct superior and specific networks of the German employees in Germany with either a German home or a French expatriate manager as a direct superior.
7. Leadership networks of the managers and employees of each situation (cf. Figure 5.1)	Specific networks of all sample groups to compare the fit between the managers' and the employees' leadership networks of each situation.

As can be seen, the comparisons start at a rather general level with aggregated sample groups and develop further to very detailed comparisons of specific sample groups. This approach is based on the idea that by increasing the level of specificity in the samples, this might help uncover the different strength of potential factors which influence the structure of the leadership networks.

The purpose of the first comparison is to compare leadership networks based only on the nationality of the respondents. The averaged network data of all the French respondents will be compared to the averaged network data of all the German respondents, regardless of the hierarchical status of the respondents and the country where they were living and working during the phase of data collection. This comparison is expected to be an initial indicator of possible differences and similarities between the French and German perceptions of leadership and, thus will help provide insights into the relationship between national culture and leadership.

The second comparison aims at comparing leadership networks at the hierarchical levels of managers and employees, regardless of the respondents' nationality and regardless of the respondents' country of residence and work. This comparison in addition to the first comparison is based on the assumption that the nationality of the respondents is more important regarding perceptions of leadership than the hierarchical position. If the leadership networks are more similar when compared at hierarchical level than at national level, the nationality of the respondents is presumed to have more impact on the structure of the leadership schemas than does the hierarchical level.

The aim of the third comparison is to compile the leadership networks of respondents who share the same nationality and the same country of residence and work. This means the averaged leadership networks of the French respondents in France will be compared to the averaged leadership networks of the German respondents in Germany, regardless of the hierarchical position of the respondents. This is also intended to contribute to the assumption that the nationality of the respondents is more important regarding perceptions of leadership than the hierarchical position.

The fourth comparison will be a set of comparisons between the specific samples of the purely national samples of managers and employees as described in the boxes 1 and 2 of the research setting (cf. Figure 5.1). Comparisons at intercultural level will be drawn between the averaged leadership networks of the French managers working for French companies in France and the averaged leadership networks of their German counterparts working for German companies in Germany. Similar comparisons of leadership networks will be drawn between the French and the German employees. A further comparison in this set concerns the comparison between hierarchical levels. This means the averaged leadership networks of the French managers will be compared to the averaged leadership networks of the French employees. The same comparison will be drawn for the German sample. Again, these comparisons test possible differences in the degree of impact of nationality and hierarchical level on the structure of leadership schemas.

The fifth set of comparisons aims at drawing comparisons at manager level between home and expatriate managers in order to test the hypothesis that schema structures are different due to exposure to a different cultural environment. Comparisons will be drawn at intracultural level; this means between the averaged leadership networks of the French managers in France and the averaged leadership networks of the French expatriate managers in Germany, as well as between the averaged leadership networks of the German managers in Germany and the averaged leadership networks of the German expatriate managers in France. Further comparisons will be drawn at intercultural level; this means between the French managers in France and the German expatriate managers in France, as well as between the German managers in Germany and the French expatriate managers in Germany. A last comparison will concern an inter-functional comparison between the expatriate

managers of both nationalities, which means a comparison between the averaged leadership networks of the French expatriate managers in Germany and the averaged leadership networks of the German expatriate managers in France. This comparison is assumed to uncover similarities and differences among expatriate managers' leadership networks.

The sixth set of comparisons are similar comparisons to those described in the fifth set, but at the employee level. This means the averaged leadership networks of the French employees working in French companies in France will be compared to the averaged leadership networks of the French employees working in German companies in France. The same comparison will be drawn for the German employees. These comparisons are based on the assumption that the employees who were working with a direct superior coming from a different cultural background might have different perceptions of effective leadership due to exposure to a different work environment than their counterparts working with a direct superior of the same cultural background.

A final set of comparisons between hierarchical levels within each situation will explore the fit between managers' perceptions of effective leadership and those of employees. According to (Lord and Maher 1991), the better the fit between the perceptions of leadership of a manager and an employee is, the more effective a leader will be perceived to be. Thus, this set of comparisons will allow for analyses which explore whether leadership perceptions between manager and employee are more similar in an intra-cultural setting, as illustrated in boxes 1 and 2 of Figure 5.1 versus an intercultural setting, as represented in boxes 3 and 4. The aim of these analyses is to assess the extent of the influence of national culture on whether a manager can effectively lead his or her employees.

5.7.2 The Pathfinder Associative Network Analysis

According to Huff (1990) cognitive structures can be represented in different ways. To analyse and present leadership networks, this study follows Schvaneveldt's Pathfinder Associative Network (Schvaneveldt, 1990) method. This method was used in previous similar cross-cultural investigations (e.g. Hanges et al., 2006) which are based on connectionist theory. Further, the Pathfinder method was applied successfully in several contexts, such as research about basic memory (Cooke, 1992), about expertise knowledge (Rose, Rose and McKay, 2007), about effects of knowledge on learning in an academic context (Hoz, Bowman and Kozminsky, 2001), about knowledge structures (Acton, Johnson and Goldsmith, 1996) and about medical contexts (Gomez, Schvaneveldt and Staudenmayer, 1996; West et al., 2000). Cooke (1992) found that the Pathfinder method generally presents cognitive structures better than do techniques such as multidimensional scaling. This is in line with Mohammed (1995) who states that the Pathfinder method is a technique which allows for modelling the information processing processes of organisational members in an accurate way.

(i) The Properties of Pathfinder Networks

The Pathfinder technique is based on graph theory and uses so-called proximity data. Proximity is another term for the distance between two items or nodes which are used as an input to generate networks (Schvaneveldt, 1990). According to Davis (2008) 'Pathfinder statistically ensures that linked nodes are more related than indirectly linked or unlinked nodes' (p.41). The Pathfinder method sets out that all nodes are linked and a direct link between nodes is only kept if the distance between two nodes is smaller or equal to the sum of all other indirect links. This means that the remaining links in a network illustrate the shortest distances between nodes.

Two parameters are used to define Pathfinder networks, namely r and q . ‘The r -parameter is the Minkowski r -metric, which determines how the distance between two nodes is computed’ (Davis, 2008, p.41). The r -parameter ranges between 1 and infinity. For ordinal data, the parameter should be set as $r = \infty$. The q -parameter determines the length of the longest path in a network and ranges between 2 and $n-1$ with n being the number of items in a network. This means, when $q = n-1$ the number of links in the network is unlimited because the longest possible path between nodes is only allowed to have $n-1$ links (Dearholt and Schvaneveldt, 1990).

(ii) *The Pathfinder Software PC Knot*

The Pathfinder software PC Knot is used to adopt the Pathfinder Associative Network method (Schvaneveldt, 1990) and allows the calculation of different quantitative measures. It also provides graphical representations of the cognitive networks. Important measures for this study are coherence and similarity. The coherence measure (coh) provides information on the consistency of the data as described by Schvaneveldt (2009):

‘The coherence of a set of proximity data is based on the assumption that relatedness between a pair of items can be predicted by the relations of the items to other items in the set. First, for each pair of items, a measure of relatedness (the indirect measure) is determined by correlating the proximities between the items and all other items. Then, coherence is computed by correlating the original proximity data with the indirect measures. The higher this correlation, the more consistent are the original proximities with the relatedness inferred from the indirect relationships of the items’ (p.14).

The coherence measure is a value between 0 and 1, with 1 indicating high coherence. Schvaneveldt (2009) suggests that networks with coherence measures which are lower than .20 should not be considered for further calculations. Low coherence values indicate that respondents did not, or could not, take the rating task seriously and this will not deliver networks which provide significant data (Dearholt and

Schvaneveldt, 1990). It is recommended that this data be excluded from further analyses.

The similarity measure calculates how similar two networks are by building the 'ratio of the number of links shared by [the] two networks over the number of links found in either of the two networks' (<http://interlinkinc.net/FAQ.html>). Hence, this measure is determined by the number of common links between two networks. The similarity measure is a value between 0 and 1, with 0 indicating no similarity, or no link in common and 1 which signifies that networks are identical (Schvaneveldt, 2009).

When similarity is calculated by the PC Knot software, the output provides information on the number of links in common (com), the expected number of common links (ccom), the similarity (sim), the expected similarity (csim), and a probability (tprob) value which can be used as a statistical test. The latter value is comparable to a t-test and indicates whether two networks are significantly similar or not (Gomez, Schvaneveldt and Staudenmayer, 1996).

(iii) The Network Data Administration

As was described in section 3.5 connectionist networks are characterised by attributes or units which are connected in parallel to each other. In order to measure such networks, every possible pair-combination between units of such a network has to be captured. The criterion which is measured is the degree of relatedness between attributes.

The specific relatedness ratings of each respondent of the present study were captured by the survey questionnaire and subsequently transformed into a matrix which is the data format needed for the computation of cognitive networks using the Pathfinder software PC Knot. The next step consisted of calculating the coherence

measure for each cognitive network of every single respondent. The r -parameter was set to infinity and the q -parameter to $n-1 = 9$. Networks with coherence values of less than .20 were excluded from further calculations. Furthermore, the networks were averaged corresponding to the respective samples of comparison. Similarity measures were calculated and graphical presentations compiled accordingly. The results of the network data and the corresponding comparisons are reported in the following chapter.

5.7.3 The Interview Analysis

The interview analysis consisted of three main steps. First, two companies were identified; one was instructed to transcribe the French interviews, the other to transcribe the German interviews. All interview records were prepared accordingly to be sent to the two companies. Second, every single transcription coming back from the companies was checked and corrected where necessary. Some of the transcripts were of very poor quality due to their poor recording quality, however, only one out of the 76 interviews was of such poor recording quality that it could not be transcribed. This concerned one of the interviews which were carried out with the sample group of the German managers working in German companies in Germany. Thus, instead of 15 interviews as stated in Table 5.8, only 14 interviews could be used. Third, the corrected transcripts were uploaded into the qualitative data analysis software QSR NVivo which supports the structuring and coding of interviews (Creswell, 2009).

As the purpose of the interviews was to gain deeper insight into the relationship between national culture and leadership from the perspective of managers and their employees, the analysis of the interviews followed a comparative approach in order to find similarities and differences between the single sample groups. Hence, the interview findings in Chapter 7 will be presented accordingly.

5.7.4 NVivo

The interview transcripts were uploaded into the qualitative analysis software QSR NVivo. In order to keep the structure of the samples as outlined in Figure 5.1, eight different folders were created, one for each sample group. All interviews were coded in the next step. Initially, codes were created as so-called free nodes (i.e. the codes were unstructured). Free nodes were subsequently sorted by themes and created as tree nodes following a meaningful structure. All codes were labelled in English in order to guarantee the comparability of the interviews which were originally carried out in French and in German language. The interview quotes which will be presented in the interview analyses chapter 7 were translated into English.

5.8 Validity and Reliability

As was described in section 5.7.2, cognitive structures can be represented in different ways (Huff, 1990). This study follows Schvaneveldt's Pathfinder Associative Network (Schvaneveldt, 1990) method, which has been used in previous similar cross-cultural investigations based on connectionist theory (e.g. Hanges et al., 2006). The Pathfinder technique is based on graph theory and uses so-called proximity data. Proximity is another term for the distance between two items or nodes which are used as an input to generate networks (Schvaneveldt, 1990). Researchers applying Pathfinder have found that – due to its configural nature – this method generally represents cognitive structures better than do techniques such as multidimensional scaling (Acton, Johnson and Goldsmith, 1994; Cooke, 1992; Cooke, Durso and Schvaneveldt, 1986; Goldsmith, Johnson and Acton, 1991). Kraiger and Wenzel (1997) also suggest that Pathfinder networks have higher validity than multidimensional scaling representations.

According to Acton, Johnson and Goldsmith (1994), the validation of Pathfinder as a measure of cognitive structures in the context of knowledge organisation and learning is based on the assumptions that, first, some ideal organisation of the domain exists and, second, that cognitive structures become more like this ideal with increasing experience and expertise. In the domain of knowledge organisation and learning, two common approaches to establishing validity exist. First, by demonstrating that similarity to a referent network increases after instruction, and, second, by demonstrating that similarity to a referent network is a predictor of other measures of achievement, such as examination scores (Acton, Johnson and Goldsmith, 1994). Using student samples, researchers demonstrated in several studies that students' cognitive structures changed before and after instruction. For example, McGaghie and his colleagues showed that medical students' cognitive structures of pulmonary physiology became increasingly similar to faculty networks, and the coherence of the network structures improved after instruction (McGaghie et al., 2000; 1996). Similar reports regarding predictive validity have been reported in studies of learning in the areas of computer programming (Acton, Johnson and Goldsmith, 1994), complex video games (Day, Arthur and Gettman, 2001), accounting (Curtis and Davis, 2003) and counseling (Kivlighan and Kivlighan, 2010). The present study, however, is not concerned with predictive validity since it does not set out to link these networks to particular outcomes, or to examine how these cognitive schemas vary over time. Instead, its purpose is to investigate the structure and the content of cognitive leadership networks across countries and hierarchical networks.

Regarding the validity of the cognitive schemas identified in the present study, no previous research has used the Pathfinder analytical tool to construct cognitive leadership networks of French and German managers. However, a number of previous

studies have used Pathfinder to establish the structure of other cognitive domains. For example, Goldsmith, Johnson and Acton (1991) assessed student knowledge structures in the domain of statistics by applying Pathfinder and found that it provided a valid measurement of cognitive structures. These researchers called for the method to be applied to the investigation of structures in other domains. Subsequent research has used Pathfinder to evaluate, for example, cognitive training outcomes among a student and a professional sample (Davis, Curtis and Tschetter, 2003), to construct trait networks of student leaders (Foti, Knee and Backert, 2008), and to construct leadership schemas of international MBA students (Hanges et al., 2001).

The ten leadership attributes chosen for the present study were selected from the list of 22 universal leadership attributes used in the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004). Pretests, however, showed that it would take respondents too much time to complete the questionnaire and would lead to extremely complex schema structures needing to be explored. This issue was discussed with experts in the field of cognitive leadership schemas in a cross cultural context - Prof. Paul Hanges and Prof. Dr. Felix Brodbeck who was a co-author in one of e.g. Hanges et al.'s (2001) publications - who agreed that a smaller number of key attributes could be considered. Therefore, and to avoid the risk of a poor response rate, it was decided to limit the choice of universal attributes to ten. These ten attributes are based on the country specific GLOBE findings for France and Germany, which were provided by Prof. Paul Hanges who is one of the GLOBE study editors. These attributes for the construction of the connectionist networks were selected based on calculations of the weighted means of the attributes' scores for France and Germany. The ten leadership attributes with the highest scores were included in the list reflecting the ten most important attributes in France and in

Germany. This elaborate selection process is considered to contribute to the validity of the structures identified, since their relevance to these particular contexts has been established in the GLOBE research. The study by Goldsmith, Johnson and Acton (1991) reports evidence to show that as few as ten attributes can be used to calculate a network without affecting the predictive validity of results. In addition, the testing of the hypotheses will provide evidence of whether the cognitive leadership networks are similar or different according to the nationality of respondents and their hierarchical level in their organisation, thus providing an indicator of the convergent and discriminant validity of the networks.

Regarding the criterion of reliability, the coherence measure (coh) provides information on the consistency of the data as described by Schvaneveldt (2009). It is a value between 0 and 1, with 1 indicating higher levels of coherence. Schvaneveldt (2009) suggests that networks with coherence measures which are lower than .20 should not be considered during further calculations. Low coherence values indicate that respondents are not rating consistently - perhaps because they are not taking the rating task seriously - which will not produce networks that provide significant data (Dearholt and Schvaneveldt, 1990). It is recommended that this data be excluded from further analyses. In the present study, all cognitive leadership networks with a coherence value lower than .20 were expelled from further analyses in order to guarantee a high level of consistency among the networks.

5.9 Summary of the Research Methodology

The research methodology chapter presented the research questions of this cross-cultural investigation and discussed the philosophical approach of postpositivism.

This perspective is considered to be the most appropriate to provide answers on the research questions. Furthermore, the research design outlined the research setting and the specific French and German sample groups. The research design provided greater detail of the conceptualisation of the survey questionnaire and the interview schedules. The process of data collection was presented next, including the pilot phase, the questionnaire and the interview phase. A brief overview of the sample was given and the chapter concluded with the description of the data analysis process and the different software used to investigate the gathered data.

CHAPTER VI

THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

6.1 Introduction to the Survey Questionnaire Results

This chapter outlines the quantitative research findings of this study of cross-cultural leadership. The descriptive statistics will detail the profile of the participants and will be followed by comparisons of the structure of the aggregated cognitive leadership networks of the respondents. These will be compared at different levels between the different samples as described in the research setting (cf. Figure 5.1) in Chapter 5 in order to provide answers to the research questions. The chapter closes with a summary of the quantitative research findings.

6.2 Descriptive Statistics

The aim of this section is to present an overview of the demographic details of the participants in this study. This will include information about the respondents' personal background as well as their family background. Further information relates to their work background, their organisational and their educational background. The data will be presented by comparing the French respondents with the German respondents. All data were collected by the survey questionnaire which can be found in Appendix B.

6.2.1 The Personal and Family Background of Respondents

The following tables will provide information on the personal and family background of the respondents and compare samples based on their nationality. This means the French respondents will be compared to the German respondents regardless of the country where they were currently living and working.

Table 6.1: The Respondents' Personal Background

		French respondents	German respondents
Total number		148	157
Age in years		35.2 (Mean) 8.3 (Standard Deviation)	40.0 (M) 8.5 (SD)
Gender			
	Female	41.2% (N = 61)	25.5% (N = 40)
	Male	58.8% (N = 87)	74.5% (N = 117)
Country of birth			
	France	95.9% (N = 142)	1.3% (N = 2)
	Germany	.7% (N = 1)	93.6% (N = 147)
	Other	3.4% (N = 5)	5.1% (N = 8)
Current country of living and working			
	France	79.1% (N = 117)	24.2% (N = 38)
	Germany	20.9% (N = 31)	75.8% (N = 119)

As can be seen from Table 6.1 in total 148 French and 157 German individuals responded to the questionnaire. The French sample was slightly younger (35 years) than the German sample (40 years) and consisted of 40.1% female respondents, while only a quarter (25.5%) of the German respondents was female. Almost all of the French respondents were born in France, and nearly all of the German respondents were born in Germany. Furthermore, Table 6.1 shows where respondents were living and working during the phase of data collection: 31 French expatriates who were living in Germany participated in the study in comparison to 38 German expatriates who were living in France. The French expatriates had spent almost eight years in Germany, though the distribution is quite dispersed ($SD = 6.9$ years). Most of the French expatriates had spent five years or less in Germany (Median = 4.5), with only a small number living and working in Germany for a very long period of time. Concerning the German expatriates in France, the distribution is less dispersed than for their French

counterparts, but the trends are similar. German expatriates had spent on average about eight years and four months in France, though most had spent seven years or less in France (Mdn = 5.7 years). Considerably fewer of the German expatriates had spent a very long time in France.

The following table presents information on respondents' family background to provide more details on the cultural environment in which respondents grew up.

Table 6.2: The Respondents' Family Background

		French respondents	German respondents
Mother's country of birth			
	France	87.8% (N = 130)	1.9% (N = 3)
	Germany	2.7% (N = 4)	89.8% (N = 141)
	Other	9.5% (N = 14)	8.3% (N = 13)
Father's country of birth			
	France	91.2% (N = 135)	1.3% (N = 2)
	Germany	3.4% (N = 5)	86.6% (N = 136)
	Other	5.4% (N = 8)	12.1% (N = 19)
Languages spoken during childhood			
	French	96.6% (N = 143)	7.0% (N = 11)
	German	6.1% (N = 9)	96.2% (N = 151)
	Other	9.5% (N = 14)	9.6% (N = 15)

The majority of French respondents grew up in a French environment (i.e. both parents were of French nationality). The same can be said for the German respondents whose parents were mostly born in Germany. Regarding the 'other' responses, most of the French respondents' parents came from a French-speaking background, for example Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia, or Senegal, as well as Madagascar and Belgium. Concerning the 'other' responses of the German sample, most of the respondents' parents had an Eastern European background. They were born in countries such as the Baltic States, Poland, Czech Republic, Romania, and Croatia. Other countries, where

German respondents' parents were born included Turkey, as well as Russia and the German-speaking countries of Austria and Switzerland. The country, where respondents' parents were born, logically influences the languages which were spoken during the respondents' childhood. Almost all of the French respondents spoke French (96.6%), some of them also spoke German (6.1%), or other languages corresponding to their parents' country of birth. Regarding the German sample, most of the German respondents spoke German (96.2%), and some of them French (7.0%) or other languages (9.6%) during their childhood. In conclusion, the majority of the French respondents grew up in a French cultural environment and are considered to have a very strong French cultural background. Most of the German respondents had been educated in a German cultural environment and are presumed to have a very strong German cultural background.

6.2.2 The Work Background of Respondents

In this section the French and German respondents' work background is presented. Table 6.3 provides information on the respondents' work experience.

Table 6.3: The Respondents' Work Experience

	French respondents	German respondents
Number of years of full-time work experience	12.9 years (M) 8.1 (SD)	16.2 years (M) 9.8 (SD)
Number of years worked for current employer	9.2 years (M) 7.0 (SD)	10.7 years (M) 8.3 (SD)

As can be seen from Table 6.3, French respondents had less full-time work experience in comparison to their German counterparts. This finding can best be explained by age, as the German sample was generally older than the French sample. A closer look, though, reveals that the French respondents had for their, on average,

younger age relatively more work experience than their German counterparts which is probably due to differences in the education systems between both countries. Further, French respondents had worked for their current employer for on average about nine years and two months, whereas German respondents had been with their current employer slightly longer: ten years and eight months.

The following table provides details on the languages which they used in their workplace.

Table 6.4: The Respondents' Languages at Work

		French respondents	German respondents
Languages used at work			
	French	91.2% (N = 135)	30.6% (N = 48)
	German	30.4% (N = 45)	94.3% (N = 148)
	English	70.3% (N = 104)	62.4% (N = 98)
	Other	6.1% (N = 9)	2.5% (N = 4)

The French respondents mostly use their mother tongue (91.2%) at work. English also seems to be an important language which is spoken at work by 70.3% of the French respondents. The German language (30.4%) is especially used by the French respondents who were working in Germany. Regarding the use of languages within the sample of German respondents, the situation is very similar to their French counterparts. 94.3% of the German respondents spoke their mother tongue at work, 62.4% also used the English language, and 30.6% spoke French. French was mostly spoken by those German managers who were currently working in France. Spanish was the most frequent other language which was used at French and German respondents' work places. Table 6.5 presents information on hierarchical levels within the respondents' companies.

Table 6.5: The Respondents' Data on Hierarchical Levels

		French respondents	German respondents
Hierarchical levels within companies			
	Top management (board level)	99.3% (N = 147)	91.7% (N = 144)
	Senior management	96.6% (N = 143)	79.0% (N = 124)
	Middle management	93.2% (N = 138)	91.1% (N = 143)
	Front line management	82.4% (N = 122)	84.7% (N = 133)
	Non-manager	96.6% (N = 143)	59.2% (N = 93)
Respondents' hierarchical level			
	Top management (board level)	6.1% (N = 9)	10.2% (N = 16)
	Senior management	22.9% (N = 34)	13.4% (N = 21)
	Middle management	29.7% (N = 44)	19.7% (N = 31)
	Front line management	1.4% (N = 2)	13.4% (N = 21)
	Non-manager	39.9% (N = 59)	43.3% (N = 68)
Years in leadership position		10.9 years (M) 7.0 (SD)	9.1 years (M) 7.0 (SD)
Number of employees to lead		31 people (M) 5 people (Median)	118 people (M) 11 people (Median)

The first set of data in Table 6.5 shows which hierarchical levels existed in the companies where respondents worked. In almost all of the French respondents' companies, nearly all hierarchical levels exist. In the companies where the German respondents worked, less hierarchical levels existed. Concerning the hierarchical level at which respondents worked, the second set of data in Table 6.5 shows that almost all of the French respondents at manager level worked in a middle management or higher position, while the number of German respondents in a manager position was rather equally distributed between the different management levels. The French managers who occupied a leadership role were almost two years longer in their position than their German counterparts: the French managers were in their leadership position on average about eleven years, while the German managers were only about nine years in similar

positions. This means the French managers were generally younger when they started their first leadership position. The number of employees managed, however, differed highly between the French and the German respondents who were in such a position. The German managers ($M = 118$, $Mdn = 11$) led more employees than their French counterparts ($M = 31$, $Mdn = 5$).

6.2.3 The Educational Background of Respondents

Table 6.6 summarises the educational background of respondents.

Table 6.6: The Respondents' Educational Background

		French respondents	German respondents
Qualifications			
	Apprenticeship, or its equivalent	3.4% (N = 5)	31.8% (N = 50)
	Bachelor, o.i.e.	19.6% (N = 29)	21.7% (N = 34)
	Master, o.i.e.	79.1% (N = 117)	77.1% (N = 121)
	PhD, o.i.e.	10.1% (N = 15)	6.4% (N = 10)
	Other	1.4% (N = 2)	5.1% (N = 8)
Area of qualifications			
	Business administration	71.0% (N = 105)	45.9% (N = 72)
	Engineering	15.5% (N = 23)	28.0% (N = 44)
	Industrial engineering	2.7% (N = 4)	7.6% (N = 12)
	Law	3.4% (N = 5)	1.9% (N = 3)
	Other	7.4% (N = 11)	16.6% (N = 26)

Table 6.6 shows that most of the French respondents held a masters degree or equivalent qualification (79.1%) and were qualified in the area of business administration (71.0%). Regarding the German respondents, the distribution of qualifications is more dispersed. About a third of them had completed an apprenticeship, or equivalent. Slightly more than a fifth held a bachelor degree and 77.1% of the German respondents held a master degree, or equivalent. The degrees of

‘Diplom, Magister, Staatsexamen’ which are specific German university degrees are included in this category. This type of degree was very common in Germany before the change of degrees according to the Bologna Process which is aimed at creating a common European Higher Education System. More than a fifth of the German respondents (22.9%, N = 36) held such a degree. Concerning the area of qualifications, this is also more dispersed for the German respondents than for the French respondents. A total of 46% of the German sample were qualified in the area of business administration, 28% were qualified in the field of engineering, and 8% had qualifications in industrial engineering.

6.2.4 Summary of the Descriptive Statistics

To conclude from the descriptive statistics, it can be seen that both the French and the German samples are rather diverse, not in terms of their cultural background, but in terms of their work and educational background. It should be borne in mind for the following sections that the French respondents grew up in a very much French cultural environment and the German respondents grew up in a very strong German cultural background. The French respondents were rather characterised by working for large companies in the automotive and financial services sector and having a business education background. The German respondents came mainly from large and medium-sized companies in the automotive, IT and machine manufacturing sectors, and held degrees from a business and engineering educational background.

6.3 Comparisons of the Structure of the Cognitive Leadership Networks

The aim of the following comparisons in the next sections is to provide empirical evidence for the assumed link between national culture and the perception of leadership. Comparisons will be drawn at different levels as described in Table 5.10 in section 5.7.1 with the purpose of testing the assumed impact of national culture on the structure of the cognitive leadership networks of respondents. To begin with, comparisons will be drawn at the aggregated level of the respondents' nationalities, regardless of their place of work and residence, regardless of the nationality of the company in which they were working at the time of data collection, and regardless of the hierarchical level the respondents occupied. As this chapter progresses, comparisons will become more and more specific and compare the aggregated leadership networks of the single samples as described in Figure 5.1.

6.3.1 Comparison of the Leadership Networks of the French and the German Respondents

The first comparison as presented in Table 6.7 is drawn between the aggregated leadership networks of the French and the German respondents, regardless of their hierarchical level, the nationality of their company and the country where they were currently living and working at the time of data collection. This comparison is aimed at drawing a general picture of the leadership networks of the French and the German respondents and at testing the first hypothesis which posits that the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French and Germans in a business context, regardless of their corresponding hierarchical level.

Table 6.7: Comparison of the Leadership Networks of the French and the German Respondents

French respondents			German respondents	
coh =.83; N = 101			coh =.78; N = 111	
sim	csim	com	ccom	tprob
.29	.15	5	2.31	p =.075

Table 6.7 presents the Pathfinder results for the French respondents compared to their German counterparts. As can be seen, the networks are rather different, as both the similarity (sim =.29) value and the number of links in common (com = 5) are very low. Both expected values (csim =.15, ccom = 2.31) are even lower, while the probability (tprob) that the networks would share the given number of links is not as low. This indicates that networks are quite dissimilar, therefore hypothesis 1 is supported.

The graphical presentation of the networks shows that ‘motive arouser’ is the most central and relevant attribute within the French respondents’ leadership network. This attribute shares the most links with other attributes. ‘Confidence builder’ is the next relevant attribute within the French network, sharing three links with other attributes. Within the leadership network of the German respondents, a list of five attributes seems to be relevant, as they are all connected with three links to other attributes. These five attributes are: ‘confidence builder’, ‘informed’, ‘motivational’,

‘motive arouser’, and ‘trustworthy’. Even if both networks share some links and some central attributes, general differences exist between the leadership networks of French and German respondents as indicated by the low similarity measure. The purpose of the following comparisons is to underline this finding.

6.3.2 Comparison of the Leadership Networks of the Managers and the Employees

The next series of networks as shown in Table 6.8 present a general comparison between the aggregated leadership networks of the managers and the employees, regardless of their nationality, the nationality of their company and the country where they were living and working at the phase of data collection. This comparison is calculated to contribute to the test of hypothesis 4 which posits that the structure of the leadership schemas will be more similar between individuals of the same nationality than between individuals of the same hierarchical level. This means, national culture is believed to have stronger influence on leadership networks than does the hierarchical level.

Table 6.8: Comparison of the Leadership Networks of the Managers and the Employees

Managers			Employees	
coh =.76; N = 123			coh =.79; N = 89	
sim	csim	com	ccom	tprob
.75	.61	9	6.56	p <.001

As can be seen from Table 6.8 the networks of the managers and the employees in this study are very similar. The similarity value (sim =.75) is high, the networks have 9 links in common (com) and the probability value (tprob) is very low, which signifies that networks are significantly similar. Differences, however, exist in the number of relevant attributes. Within the managers' network, five attributes – 'confidence builder', 'dynamic', 'motivational', 'motive arouser', and 'team builder' – are each connected to three other attributes. However, within the employees' network this is only the case for three attributes. These concern: 'informed', 'motive arouser' and 'trustworthy'.

The comparisons outlined thus far provide initial evidence that national culture appears to have stronger influence on leadership networks than does the hierarchical level. The networks comparing French and German managers are less similar (sim=.29) than those comparing managers and employees across the entire sample (sim=.75).

6.3.3 Comparison of the Leadership Networks of the French Respondents in France and the German Respondents in Germany

The next comparison involves the leadership networks of the French respondents in France and the German respondents in Germany. This means, besides the nationality of the respondents, the location where respondents were living and working during the phase of data collection is also considered.

Table 6.9: Comparison of the Leadership Networks of the French Respondents in France and the German Respondents in Germany

France: French respondents			Germany: German respondents	
coh = .81, N = 74			coh = .79, N = 85	
sim	csim	com	ccom	tprob
.36	.23	5	3	p = .017

Table 6.9 shows that both the similarity value (sim = .36), and the number of links in common (com = 5), are rather low. The expected values for both measures (csim = .23 and ccom = 3) are even lower and the probability value (tprob) is also quite low. Regarding the most relevant attributes within each of the aggregated networks, the leadership network of the French respondents in France illustrates that the attributes of ‘decisive’ and ‘motive arouser’ have both three links to other attributes, and thus, the

most connections to other attributes in comparison to the other attributes in the network. Within the aggregated leadership network of the German respondents in Germany the attributes of 'motive arouser' and 'trustworthy' are the most relevant attributes and each also share three links with other attributes.

As expected, this comparison of leadership networks supports the findings of the previous findings. The segmentation of the sample into societal cultural sub-samples produces leadership network structures which are more different than the leadership network structures of the sub-samples of different hierarchical levels. Therefore, hypotheses 1 and 4 are supported.

6.3.4 Comparison of the Leadership Networks of the Domestic Managers and their Employees

The following leadership network comparisons as shown in Table 6.10 present the aggregated leadership networks of the French managers and employees in France and their German counterparts in Germany.

Table 6.10: Comparison of the Leadership Networks of the Domestic Managers and their Employees

France: French company, French managers	Germany: German company, German managers				
<p>coh =.82; N = 34</p>	<p>coh =.81, N = 36</p>				
France: French company, French employees	Germany: German company, German employees				
<p>coh =.78; N = 22</p>	<p>coh =.78; N = 37</p>				
Comparison	sim	csim	com	ccom	tprob
<p>FFCFM vs. GGCGM</p>	<p>.20</p>	<p>.08</p>	<p>3</p>	<p>1.2</p>	<p>p =.25</p>
<p>FFCFE vs. GGCGE</p>	<p>.29</p>	<p>.17</p>	<p>4</p>	<p>2.2</p>	<p>p =.06</p>
<p>FFCFM vs. FFCFE</p>	<p>.50</p>	<p>.38</p>	<p>6</p>	<p>4.2</p>	<p>p <.001</p>
<p>GGCGM vs. GGCGE</p>	<p>.80</p>	<p>.68</p>	<p>8</p>	<p>6.2</p>	<p>p <.001</p>

As can be seen from Table 6.10 and, as expected, the similarity values for the intercultural comparisons are much lower than for the intracultural comparisons. The aggregated leadership network of the French managers has only a few links in common with the aggregated leadership network of the German managers ($com = 3$). A low value is also found at the employee level ($com = 4$). While the network comparison between the French employees working for French companies in France and their German counterparts working for German companies in Germany displays a low similarity value ($sim = .29$), the similarity value at manager level is even lower ($sim = .20$). The aggregated leadership network of the French managers working for French companies in France, however, as compared to the aggregated leadership network of the employees of the same nationality, are significantly similar ($sim = .50$, $p < .001$). The comparison between the managers and the employees in Germany shows that their leadership networks are close to identical ($sim = .80$) with 8 links in common (com) and a very low t-probability value ($p < .001$). This suggests that differences between leadership networks are stronger at the cultural level than at the hierarchical level, which is in line with the findings from previous sections. Thus, comparisons within this section provide additional support to hypotheses 1 and 4. Hypotheses 2 and 3, which posited that the structure of the leadership schemas would differ between French managers and French employees, and between German managers and German employees are also supported.

A closer look at the graphical presentations of the networks reveals that within all four networks the attribute of 'motive arouser' is one of the most relevant attributes as it shares the most links with other attributes. In addition, for the French managers the attribute of 'motivational' is also relevant and shares three links with other attributes, whereas for the French employees 'motive arouser' is the only and most central

attribute sharing four connections with other attributes. Concerning the German leadership networks, the managers' aggregated network shows that 'confidence builder' is a very important attribute and the employees' network shows that 'trustworthy' is a rather relevant attribute, both sharing three connections with other attributes within the respective networks.

6.3.5 Comparison of the Leadership Networks of the Domestic and the Expatriate Managers

The aim of comparing the aggregated leadership networks between the managers in their domestic or home country to the aggregated leadership networks of the expatriate managers in their host country is to seek empirical evidence for the change in the network structures due to the exposure to another cultural environment, and to test hypotheses 5 to 8. Table 6.11 presents the different leadership networks and the data from the Pathfinder calculations for the home and the expatriate managers.

Table 6.11: Comparison of the Leadership Networks of the Domestic and the Expatriate Managers

France: French company, French managers						Germany: German company, German managers
<p>coh =.82; N = 34</p>						<p>coh =.81; N = 36</p>
France: German company, German managers						Germany: French company, French managers
<p>coh =.72; N = 26</p>						<p>coh =.74; N = 27</p>
Comparison	sim	csim	com	ccom	tprob	
<p>FFCFM vs. GFCFM</p>	<p>.54</p>	<p>.41</p>	<p>7</p>	<p>4.8</p>	<p>p <.001</p>	
<p>GGCGM vs. FGCGM</p>	<p>.46</p>	<p>.34</p>	<p>6</p>	<p>4</p>	<p>p =.002</p>	
<p>FFCFM vs. FGCGM</p>	<p>.27</p>	<p>.14</p>	<p>4</p>	<p>2</p>	<p>p =.09</p>	
<p>GGCGM vs. GFCFM</p>	<p>.25</p>	<p>.12</p>	<p>4</p>	<p>1.8</p>	<p>p =.13</p>	
<p>GFCFM vs. FGCGM</p>	<p>.50</p>	<p>.36</p>	<p>7</p>	<p>4.56</p>	<p>p <.001</p>	

As can be seen from Table 6.11, the leadership networks of the managers of the same nationality, but working in either home or host country, are significantly more similar than the leadership networks of the managers of different nationality who are working in the same country. Therefore, hypotheses 5 and 6, which posited that the structure of the leadership schemas would differ between French/German managers who were working for French/German organisations in France/Germany and French/German expatriate managers who were working for French/German organisations in Germany/France, are supported.

More specifically, the leadership networks of the French managers working for French companies in France are significantly more similar to the leadership networks of the French expatriate managers working for French companies in Germany (sim =.54), compared to the networks of the German managers working for German companies in France (sim =.27). Therefore, hypothesis 7 is supported. The same is true for the German managers: the leadership networks of the German managers working for German companies in Germany are significantly more similar to the leadership networks of the German managers who were working and living in France (sim =.46) than to the leadership networks of the French expatriate managers in Germany (sim =.25). Therefore, hypothesis 8 is also supported. This suggests that the nationality of the respondents is more important for the structure of the leadership networks than the location or the environment where expatriate managers were currently living and working.

Interestingly, the networks of the expatriate managers are significantly similar. The leadership networks of the French expatriate managers in Germany and the German expatriate managers in France have seven links in common and the similarity value is quite high (sim =.50). The low t-probability value (tprob) confirms that

networks are significantly similar. Further, as can be seen from the graphical presentation of the networks the partial structure among the five leadership attributes of ‘confidence builder’, ‘informed’, ‘intelligent’, ‘team builder’, and ‘trustworthy’ is identical within both networks and builds a kind of A-shape. Moreover, the three attributes of ‘informed’, ‘intelligent’ and ‘team builder’ all belong to the leadership dimension of team-oriented leadership styles which is one of the six GLOBE leadership dimensions (House et al. 2004). The following section will detail a similar set of comparisons, but at employee level.

6.3.6 Comparison of the Leadership Networks of the Employees with Domestic Manager and the Employees with Expatriate Manager

A further set of comparisons within this section concerns the leadership networks of employees who have either an expatriate manager as a direct superior, or a direct superior of the same nationality. The aim of these comparisons is similar to the aim of the comparison between expatriate and home managers which was to seek evidence for the assumption that cognitive leadership networks are different due to the exposure to a different environment. As there is evidence to suggest that the expatriate managers’ leadership networks are different in a foreign environment, it is assumed that this might also be the case for employees working together with a direct superior who comes from another cultural background. The aggregated leadership networks of the employees with a direct superior of the same nationality will be compared to the aggregated leadership networks of the employees with expatriate managers as direct superior as presented in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12: Comparison of the Leadership Networks of the Employees with Domestic Manager and the Employees with Expatriate Manager as a Direct Superior

France: French company, French employees	Germany: German company, German employees				
coh =.78; N = 22	coh =.78; N = 37				
France: German company, French employees	Germany: French company, German employees				
coh =.70; N = 18	coh =.70; N = 12				
Comparison	sim	csim	com	ccom	tprob
FFCFE vs. FGCFE	.25	.12	4	1.8	p =.13
GGCGE vs. GFCGE	.73	.60	8	6	P <.001
FFCFE vs. GFCGE	.27	.14	4	2	p =.09
GGCGE vs. FGCFE	.33	.20	5	2.8	p =.03
FGCFE vs. GFCGE	.31	.18	5	2.56	p =.05

As can be seen, no particular pattern develops from the similarity measures. The only significant finding concerns the comparison between the German employees working for German companies in Germany and the German employees working in French companies in Germany. Their leadership networks are quite similar (sim =.73) which might indicate that the German employees' leadership network is not likely to change even if the direct superior comes from a different cultural background. All other comparisons display very low similarity values and no pattern emerges within these low values.

6.3.7 Comparison of the Leadership Networks of the Managers and the Employees within each Situation

The final set of comparisons concerns the managers and employees within the four samples as described in Figure 5.1 which details the research setting. The purpose of these comparisons is to test the fit between the managers' and employees' leadership networks and, thus, to follow Lord and Maher's (1991) assertion: the better an employee's perceptions of leadership match a leader's perceptions of leadership, the more effective that leader will be perceived by the employee.

The results of the similarity calculations are reported in Table 6.13 below. These show the comparisons between the expatriate managers and their employees.

Table 6.13: Comparison of the Leadership Networks of the Managers and the Employees within each Situation

France: German company, German managers	France: German company, French employees				
coh =.72; N = 26	coh =.70; N = 18				
Germany: French company, French managers	Germany: French company, German employees				
coh =.74; N = 27	coh =.70; N = 12				
Comparison	sim	csim	com	ccom	tprob
FFCFM vs. FFCFE	.50	.38	6	4.2	p <.001
GGCGM vs. GGCGE	.80	.68	8	6.2	p <.001
FGCGM vs. FGC FE	.24	.10	4	1.6	p =.19
GFCFM vs. GFCGE	.31	.18	5	2.6	p =.05

As can be seen from Table 6.13 the comparisons at intra-cultural level are both significantly similar. The aggregated leadership networks of the French managers

working for French companies in France and the aggregated leadership networks of the French employees working in French companies in France are significantly similar (sim =.50) to each other and share 6 links in common (com). The same could be found for the purely German sample: the aggregated leadership networks of the German managers working in German companies in Germany as compared to the aggregated leadership networks of the German employees working in German companies in Germany are significantly similar (sim =.80), sharing 8 links in common (com). In contrast, both expatriate situations display low similarity measures which are not or barely significant. Thus, even if the leadership networks of the expatriate managers are slightly different from their home manager counterparts, they do not seem to become more similar to the leadership networks of their host employees.

6.3.8 Comparison of the Graphical Presentation of the Leadership Networks

With regard to the graphical presentation of the leadership networks, a final finding concerns the leadership attribute ‘motive arouser’ which is one of the most central attributes in almost all of the leadership networks which were presented in this section, regardless of the nationality, the hierarchical level, or the country where respondents currently lived and worked. Table 6.14 summarises the connections among the attribute ‘motive arouser’.

Table 6.14: Attribute Connections among the Attribute 'Motive Arouser'

French respondents	German respondents
Motive arouser <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Confidence builder - Decisive - Dynamic - Motivational - Team builder 	Motive arouser <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dynamic - Excellence oriented - Motivational
Managers	Employees
Motive arouser <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dynamic - Excellence oriented - Motivational 	Motive arouser <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dynamic - Excellence oriented - Motivational
France: French respondents	Germany: German respondents
Motive arouser <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Confidence builder - Decisive - Motivational 	Motive arouser <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dynamic - Excellence oriented - Motivational
France: French company, French managers	Germany: German company, German managers
Motive arouser <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Confidence builder - Decisive - Motivational - Team builder 	Motive arouser <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dynamic - Excellence oriented - Motivational
France: French company, French employees	Germany: German company, German employees
Motive arouser <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Confidence builder - Decisive - Dynamic - Motivational 	Motive arouser <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dynamic - Excellence oriented - Motivational
France: German company, German managers	Germany: French company, French managers
A-Shape, motive arouser not as important	A-Shape, motive arouser not as important
France: German company, French employees	Germany: French company, German employees
Motive arouser <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Confidence builder - Dynamic - Motivational 	Motive arouser <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dynamic - Excellence oriented - Motivational

Interestingly, for all the aggregated leadership networks of the respondents of German nationality, the connections among 'motive arouser' are identical. These are, as can be seen from the table, connections to the attributes 'dynamic', 'excellence oriented', 'motivational'. This would suggest that for German respondents, a leader who mobilises and activates followers should also be highly involved, energetic, enthused and motivated ('dynamic'). Further, a leader should strive for excellence in performance of themselves and their subordinates ('excellence oriented') and stimulate others to produce efforts above and beyond the call of duty and make personal sacrifices ('motivational'). Concerning the aggregated leadership networks of the respondents with a French cultural background, the connections show some variation, but for all samples the connections from 'motive arouser' to 'confidence builder' and 'motivational' were found. This would suggest that French respondents consider a leader who mobilises and activates followers and who instils others with confidence by showing confidence in them to be most effective. To conclude, besides numerous differences which were presented in this section, a major similarity between French and German respondents was also in evidence, namely the importance of the leadership attribute 'motive arouser'.

6.3.9 Summary of the Comparisons of the Leadership Networks

This section which presented comparisons of cognitive leadership networks at different levels provided evidence for the assumption that national culture has an impact on the structure of cognitive leadership networks. Table 6.15 provides a summary of the investigated hypotheses and their results.

Table 6.15: Summary of the Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Result
<i>H1</i> : If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French and Germans in a business context, regardless of their corresponding hierarchical level.	Supported
<i>H2</i> : If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French managers and French employees.	Supported
<i>H3</i> : If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between German managers and German employees.	Supported
<i>H4</i> : If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will be more similar between individuals of the same nationality than between individuals of the same hierarchical level.	Supported
<i>H5</i> : If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French managers who are working for French organisations in France and French expatriate managers who are working for French organisations in Germany.	Supported
<i>H6</i> : If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between German managers who are working for German organisations in Germany and German expatriate managers who are working for German organisations in France.	Supported
<i>H7</i> : If the content is held constant, the leadership schema structure will be more similar between German managers in Germany and German expatriate managers in France than between German expatriate managers in France and French managers in France.	Supported
<i>H8</i> : If the content is held constant, the leadership schema structure will be more similar between French managers in France and French expatriate managers in Germany than between French expatriate managers in Germany and German managers in Germany.	Supported

The comparisons in the sections 6.3.1 to 6.3.4 supported the hypotheses 1 to 4 that leadership networks are more different between samples of different cultures than between samples of different hierarchical levels. Section 6.3.5 showed that the home and host managers' network structures are different due to the exposure to different cultural environments. The respondents' nationality, however, might have a stronger influence on the network structure than does the country where respondents currently live and work. Therefore, hypotheses 5 to 8 were supported. The comparison of the employees' leadership networks in section 6.3.6 did not generate a meaningful pattern.

However, the comparison of the leadership networks of the four different manager and employee situations showed that these networks were more similar within the samples displaying the same nationality, regardless of the hierarchical level, than within the samples of mixed nationality. This means, that the employees, which have the same nationality as their superior, will perceive them as more effective than those employees, which have a different nationality than their superior.

6.4 Summary of the Survey Questionnaire Results

This chapter presented the descriptive statistics and the aggregated cognitive leadership networks of the respondents. In total 305 questionnaires were completed, of which 148 questionnaires by French respondents and 157 by German respondents. Both the French and the German respondents displayed a rather strong cultural background: most of the French respondents grew up in a French cultural context and the majority of the German respondents grew up in a German cultural context. While the French respondents mainly held a business education degree, the German respondents held a business or engineering degree.

The comparisons which were drawn between the aggregated leadership networks of the different samples contributed to the general assumption that national culture might have an impact on the structure of the cognitive leadership networks. A first set of comparisons showed that the respondents' leadership networks were more different when compared between national cultures than when compared between the hierarchical levels of managers and employees. The comparison of the leadership networks of the home managers and the expatriate managers showed that the networks were more similar between national samples than between the managers who were living and working in the same country. All hypotheses were supported. Interestingly,

some similar patterns were found when comparing the French and German expatriate managers' leadership networks.

The summary of the graphical representation of the leadership networks resulted in the attribute 'motive arouser' to be one of the most central attributes in all calculated networks. All aggregated networks in which the respondents of German nationality were involved, showed similar connections to the attribute 'motive arouser'. These connections concerned the links from 'motive arouser' to 'dynamic', 'excellence oriented', and 'motivational'. For all aggregated networks in which the respondents of French nationality were involved, similar connections were found from 'motive arouser' to the attributes 'confidence builder' and 'motivational'. These findings will be discussed and compared to existing literature in Chapter 8.

CHAPTER VII

THE CONTENT OF COGNITIVE LEADERSHIP SCHEMAS:

QUALITATIVE EVIDENCE

7.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings from interviews dealing with the content of cognitive leadership schemas of French and German managers and their employees in both domestic and host settings, as was primarily addressed by the third research question. These findings compare the perceptions of effective leadership of French and German samples and provide details about the operationalisation of leadership in both cultural contexts. The aim of these comparisons is to reveal similarities and possible differences in the perception of effective leadership and, thus, to detect areas which could be potential sources of conflict in a mixed French and German business context. This chapter will first present a brief description of the interviewees' profiles and a reminder of the propositions as outlined in the methodology chapter. It will then detail the similarities and differences regarding perceptions of effective leadership across all sample groups. The chapter closes with a summary of the major findings.

7.2 Description of the Interviewees

Table 7.1 shows the total number of interviews which were carried out among the different samples. All interviewees had previously participated in the questionnaire survey that was described in the previous chapter.

Table 7.1: Number of Respondents according to the Research Setting

Sample		Number of interviews
France		
French company	French managers	6
	French employees	5
German company	German managers	11
	French employees	10
Germany		
German company	German managers	15
	German employees	11
French company	French managers	13
	German employees	5

As can be seen from Table 7.1 the number of interviews carried out in Germany is higher than the number of interviews carried out in France. This was due to the accessibility of respondents, as was detailed in the methodology chapter. In total, 76 interviews were carried out; 34 in French with French managers and employees and 42 in German with German managers and employees. All interviews were recorded and transcribed with the exception of one interview with a German manager in a German company located in Germany. The findings of this sample group are based on 14 interviews.

Table 7.2 provides an overview of the interviewees' profiles. This demographic information was collected from the questionnaire.

Table 7.2: Demographic Details of Interviewees (Absolute Numbers)

		France				Germany			
		French company		German company		German company		French company	
		FM ¹	FE ²	GM	FE	GM	GE	FM	GE
Total number		6	5	11	10	15	11	13	5
Age (average in years)		32.5	30.6	40	38.5	39.7	35.7	38.4	36.4
Gender									
	Female	1	3	2	2	3	4	6	1
	Male	5	2	9	8	12	7	7	4
Management level									
	Top Management			2		3		4	
	Senior Mgt.	2		2		2		5	
	Middle Mgt.	4		6		7		4	
	Front line Mgt.			1		3			
	Non-manager		5		10		11		5
Company size									
	1-49 employees			1	1	1		1	
	50-249 employees	1	1		1		3	1	
	250-499 employees			2	5	5	1	1	
	more than 500	5	4	8	3	9	7	10	5
Company sector									
	Automotive		3	6	4	3	3	1	
	Energy			1				5	5
	Financial services	3			1	1	1	2	
	IT	1					4		
	Mechanical engineering				4	6	3	1	
	Transportation	1	1	1	1	1		1	
	Other	1	1	3		4		3	

As can be seen from Table 7.2 the age of the interviewees ranged from 30 to 40, with the German managers being slightly older than their French counterparts. Generally, fewer female than male participants took part in the study, with the

¹ FM means French managers, GM means German managers

² FE means French employees, GE means German employees

exception of the female French employees working for French companies in France. The number of interviews carried out among the female French managers working for French companies in Germany was almost equivalent to the number of interviews carried out with their male counterparts. Most of the respondents at manager level occupied a middle management position. With regard to the sample of the French managers who were working for French companies in Germany, most of the interviewees came from the senior and top management levels. The majority of interviewees worked for companies employing more than 500 employees, or in German small- and medium-sized companies. Most of the participants were employed in the following sectors: the automotive sector (20 interviewees), mechanical engineering (14 interviewees), the energy sector (11 interviewees), and the financial services sector (8 interviewees). The remaining third worked in the IT-sector (5), in transportation (6) or in other sectors (12). No specific differences were found for respondents across sectors which might be due to the relatively small sample sizes within each sector. The main aim of this study, however, was to focus on cultural aspects and the research setting was designed for this purpose. A focus on possible industrial sector or company size differences in perceptions of effective leadership would have required a different research design.

7.3 The Propositions

As aforementioned, the third research question was addressed through interviews. Therefore, the propositions which were outlined in Chapter 5 are reminded in Table 7.3 including the third research question asking about the content of effective leadership schemas in a business context.

Table 7.3: The Propositions

Question 3	How does the content of effective leadership schemas differ between French and German managers and employees in a business context?
Propositions	<p><i>P1:</i> The content of French cognitive leadership schemas will be rather characterised by attributes which form part of charismatic, team-oriented and participative leadership styles. In comparison, German cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily characterised by attributes which form part of a participative leadership style.</p> <p><i>P2:</i> The content of managers' cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily composed of innovative, visionary, long-term oriented, diplomatic and courageous leadership attributes. In comparison, the employees' cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily composed of more social and participative attributes such as team building and concern for subordinates' interests.</p> <p><i>P3:</i> The content of the cognitive leadership schemas will be more similar between home and expatriate managers of the same nationality, than between home and expatriate managers of a different nationality, but who live and work in the same country.</p>

7.4 Leadership Style

Starting with leadership style, the following sections will present similarities and differences which were found across the German and the French manager and employee samples, and which can be matched to the styles of charismatic and transformational leadership, as well as to team-oriented leadership, and participative leadership.

7.4.1 Charismatic and Transformational Leadership

In this study the following characteristics were identified by the interviewees in the context of charismatic and transformational leadership and related to effective leadership: charismatic behaviour, motivation, encouragement, and confidence building, having and articulating a vision, dynamism and entrepreneurial thinking, the leader as a role model, the ability to listen, taking risks, social skills, and keeping track of the big picture. These characteristics fit to the features of transformational leadership of individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation, idealised influence (charisma),

inspirational motivation, articulating a vision, and high performance expectations (e.g. Podsakoff et al., 1990; Yukl, 1999b). According to Shamir et al. (1998) characteristics of charismatic leadership are: supportive behaviour, exemplary behaviour, emphasising ideology, and emphasising collective identity. The Conger and Kanungo Scale (C-K Scale) (1994, 1998) measures charismatic leadership which include the following features: articulating an innovative strategic vision, showing sensitivity to follower needs, displaying unconventional behaviour, taking personal risks, and showing sensitivity to the environment. The findings of the present study will be structured accordingly.

(i) Charismatic Behaviour, Motivation, and Encouragement

A strong and consistent thread running through the interviews with managers was the view that leaders should display charismatic behaviour. Several managers made specific reference to the term ‘charisma’. For example, it was suggested that leaders should ‘*possess a certain charisma (FFCFM³_4)*’ or ‘*be sufficiently charismatic [...]. (GFCFM_12)*’. It was also suggested that an effective leader ‘*[...] is a charismatic person who provides the context in which somebody is working [...]. (FGCGM_8)*’ and ‘*a character and personality [...], and a physical presence which is rather based on charismatic behaviour [...]. (GFCFM_13)*’. Another manager commented that an effective leader focuses on:

[...] more emotional aspects. [...] and possesses charisma in order to represent company goals in a credible way and to motivate employees. [...] Charisma helps spread the certainty among employees that a specific path which has been chosen to follow is the right one. (GGCGM_1)

³ FFCFM_4 stands for France, French company, French manager. The number behind the label represents the number of the interviewee.

The employees in the sample also referred specifically to charisma. One employee commented: '*[Leadership] is always connected to a certain charismatic behaviour. [...] this is as well what makes a person a credible person. (FGCFE_8)*'.

Others suggested that effective leaders:

[...] have to have a strong capacity for charisma [...] in order to gather people around them. [...] it is very motivating for people to follow an effective leader. (FFCFE_2)

[...] are charismatic and able to take their team with them. (FGCFE_3)

To sum up these views, one manager suggested:

I think 70 to 80 per cent of the challenge is providing inspiration, motivation and direction, and only 20 to 30 per cent concerns technical knowledge. (GGCGM_13)

Regarding the themes of motivation and encouragement, the managers interviewed suggested that effective leaders: '*[...] are able to inspire [...]. [...] and make people follow their direction. (FFCFM_1)*', '*[...] have confidence in others [...] and are able to motivate the people, [...]. (GFCFM_3)*', and '*[...] motivate people to follow the objectives of the company. (GGCGM_1)*'. One manager suggested that leaders need to:

[...] create a motivational working atmosphere through the interplay between employees and managers in order to make the company progress. (FGCGM_11)

In addition, the expatriate managers suggested that an effective leader: '*[...] has confidence in others and is reassuring. (GFCFM_13)*'. These managers also mentioned that:

[...] it is important to realise how much confidence you can provide, and what you can expect from your employees. [...] I think it is most important to credit them with some trust [...]. (FGCGM_6)

When employees can see that superiors are investing their energy in the right way [...], and when employees can feel this is due to their behaviour, [...], one is keen on following. (GFCFM_9)

The employees also highlighted the importance of motivation and encouragement. They suggested that: *'[...] a leader can be called effective, when employees are motivated, when they are challenged and encouraged by the leader. (GGCGE_4)'*. They also suggested that effective leaders: *'[...] have to take the people who they are working with seriously [...] by encouraging and challenging them [...]. (GFCGE_4)'*. They further suggested, for example, that leaders need: *'[...] to possess the capability to motivate. (FGCFE_2)'*, *'[...] to motivate the 'troops', or motivate their staff, [...] as well as to value them. (FFCFE_4)'*, and *'[...] to enable employees and to motivate them in order to achieve the objective [...]. (FFCFE_1)'*.

The theme of confidence building was also discussed by the employees. They explained that effective leaders: *'[...] need to have confidence in others [...]. (FFCFE_3)'*, *'[...] have great confidence in the employees. (GFCGE_5)'*, *'[...] are people who you can trust completely. (FGCFE_4)'*, and *'[...] show great confidence in employees [...]. (GGCGE_7)'*.

Additionally, they emphasised that: *'[...], on the other side, we get the backing, when something is not going well [...] and we can rely on that. (GFCGE_2)'*. They also suggested that effective leaders:

[...] have to be trustworthy because if you win their confidence, they will trust you as well. It's reciprocal. Leaders have to make sure they have their team's confidence [...]. (FGCFE_8)

Besides confidence building, which was primarily highlighted by the employees, the individual samples differed in the way they suggested how employees could be motivated and encouraged. The managers suggested: *'[...] to organise regular*

feedback meetings in order to know whether the person is going in the right direction to be successful. (GFCFM_2)’, and ‘[...] to empower the people and provide them with the free space which they require to develop optimally. (GGCGM_13)’. They also suggested that:

[...] the fantastic thing about it [leadership] is that it helps people to uncover their talents. [...] Once you have understood what the talent is, you work together with the employees to develop their strengths. (FFCFM_3)

[...] leadership is situational, because every employee is different. Each employee has different strengths and weaknesses and in this context, being effective means bringing employees to their optimal potential. (GGCGM_8)

And another manager added:

On the one hand, you delegate tasks to be accomplished by your employees to achieve your objectives, but on the other hand, you also provide the necessary support, when they need it. (FGCGM_5)

Regarding the way in which employees could be motivated and encouraged, the employees emphasised that: *‘[...] a leader can be called effective, when employees are motivated [...]. This also includes to be developed further by the leader. (GGCGE_4)’. They suggested that effective leaders: ‘[...] have to take the people who they are working with seriously and coach and develop them [...] by encouraging and challenging them [...]. (GFCGE_4)’, and ‘[...] are able to decide in common with others about the direction in which one should develop to [...]. (GFCGE_3)’.*

The French employees highlighted:

[...] they [the employees] feel they can develop further in the future towards other positions [...]. [...] it is necessary to show perspectives to people, a future which will be interesting. It is very important that they can feel approval from the leader [...]. (FGCFE_1)

To summarise, all of the respondents highlighted the need for an effective leader to motivate, inspire and encourage employees. In addition, the managers of both

expatriate samples considered the ability of a leader to have confidence in others as being motivating for employees. This was also discussed across all employee samples, which emphasised that confidence was a mutual construct. In other words, when leaders show trust in employees they will in turn also show confidence in their leaders. The way in which effective leaders were believed to motivate and encourage employees differed between the individual samples. The French managers in France suggested that effective leaders can be encouraging by uncovering and developing employees' strengths. The French managers in Germany mentioned that employees can be encouraged by providing them with feedback and the German managers in Germany also recommended motivating employees through learning about their potential and developing it. The German managers in France discussed that the necessary backing should be provided to employees when they need support for their tasks. The employees specifically emphasised that an effective leader can be motivating by providing them with development opportunities.

All of the interviewees, except the German employees, explicitly mentioned the theme of charismatic behaviour as a relevant attribute of effective leaders. Thus, while specific reference was made to charismatic leadership by most of the sample groups, aspects of transformational leadership also featured strongly and consistently across each group. For example, references to encouragement and motivation can be regarded as features of 'individualised consideration' and 'inspirational motivation'.

(ii) *Articulating a Vision*

The theme of having a strategic vision was addressed by all manager samples, except the German expatriate managers in France, and it was discussed across all

employee samples, except the German employees working in French companies in Germany. For example, the managers suggested that an effective leader should be able:

[...] to share a strategic vision in order to involve everyone in the company's objectives so that everybody can participate in the company's vision. (FFCFM_1)

It was also suggested that effective leaders need '*[...] to have a long-term vision [...], and to transfer this vision [...]. (GFCFM_12)*', '*[...] to have a vision [...] and visionary qualities which enable them to make things happen. (GGCGM_10)*', '*[...] to provide [...] the vision and the mission of the team and to be able to integrate the vision of the team into the vision of the company. (GFCFM_6)*'. One of the managers concluded:

An effective leader has also to manage, but has to provide direction to the company and the people, a so-called vision, and a sense of urgency. (GGCGM_13)

The employees added that effective leaders need to '*[...] have a vision and a long-term strategy [...], this means the leader knows where to go [...]. (FFCFE_2)*', '*[...] to have the right strategic vision. (GGCGE_5)*', and '*[...] have a certain vision concerning the direction which should be taken by the company [...]. [...and] have a certain capacity [...] to share their vision. (FGCFE_9)*'.

Hence, to have a vision is relevant, but it also needs to be shared. This was confirmed by other employees. They suggested that effective leaders '*[...] know how to share [their] vision. (FFCFE_5)*', and agreed that '*The ability to show that [a leader] has a vision is a sign of great leadership. (FFCFE_1)*'.

To conclude, all of the interviewees who identified strategic vision as an attribute of an effective leader agreed that such a vision needed to be shared in order to provide direction to employees.

(iii) Dynamism and Entrepreneurial Thinking

The ability to display unconventional behaviour is part of the C-K Scale (1994, 1998) of charismatic leadership. Dynamism, a theme which was discussed among all the manager samples in this study, is believed to be categorised as such a behaviour.

For example, it was suggested that a characteristic of an effective leader includes the ability '*[...] to show dynamism [...]. (FFCFM_1)*', '*[...] to show great motivation to progress things. (GFCFM_13)*', '*[...] to be active in order to make things move. [...] to have some business sense [...]. (FGCGM_4)*', '*[...] to make things go forward. (GGCGM_10)*', and '*[...] to guide people and to break new ground, to address new themes [...]. (GGCGM_11)*'. One of the managers also suggested that effective leadership includes '*[...] a certain entrepreneurial creativity [...]. (GGCGM_1)*'.

Hence, all of these managers agreed that a certain dynamic is needed for effective leadership. The employees did not identify this theme.

(iv) Taking Risks

A somewhat related theme to the previous one which was discussed among the German managers in France and in Germany concerns the willingness for a leader to take risks. Such behaviour can also be linked to the feature of 'displaying unconventional behaviour' of the C-K Scale of charismatic leadership. The German managers in Germany explained that effective leadership consisted of '*[...] a certain entrepreneurial willingness to take risks, [...]. (GGCGM_1)*', and '*Risk; if you want a leader who is visionary and if you want somebody who decides to take paths which have not been taken previously. (GGCGM_9)*'. The same German manager added:

Entrepreneurial risk is a reasonable characteristic. You just have to make sure that the risk you are going to take remains manageable, first point. And, from a related perspective, should offer the possibility of being successful. If five ideas go wrong, the sixth should work. (GGCGM_9)

The German managers in France emphasised:

[...] there is always a risk of heading in the wrong direction and this should be allowed to employees without this involving them in having to take too big a personal risk. (FGCGM_10)

Effectiveness is certainly boosted [...] when you do something that has a high risk of failure and are well aware of such risks. (FGCGM_2)

This means that taking risks is an important attribute of an effective leader, but being aware of failure and, hence, defining limits within which certain risks might be taken are also important.

(v) The Leader as a Role Model

One of the aspects, which is discussed by Shamir et al. (1998) in the context of charismatic leadership, concerns ‘exemplary behaviour’. In the present study, the characteristic of acting as a role model was discussed among all the French interviewees regardless of their hierarchical level and the country where they were living and working. The German managers in Germany were the only respondents of the German samples who also addressed this theme.

The French managers stated that effective leaders need to ‘[...] know how to make employees respect their superior. [...] Being respected is a consequence of acting as a role model [...]. (FFCFM_4)’, and to ‘[...] show [...] their personal approach to acting as a role model. (GFCFM_1)’. The same French manager continued that part of setting an example included characteristics such as:

[...] good ethical behaviour, a good sense for human relations, respect for others, the capability to express original ideas, and the ambition to follow all these aspects. (GFCFM_1)

The French employees suggested that *'[...] there is no effective leadership if a leader is not acting as a role model. (FGCFE_3)'*, and therefore leaders need to *'[...] somehow act as a role model [...]. (FFCFE_1)'*. One of the French employees added:

In my opinion, it is most important that you get the impression that they [effective leaders] are coherent in what they are doing in order to consider them as a role model. (FFCFE_2)

Thus, effective leaders have to *'[...] show a personal behaviour which is always of exemplary character towards others. (FGCFE_3)'*, and *'[...] be an example for their employees through their work, their activities, and their performance [...]. (FGCFE_1)'*.

The German managers, however, stated:

[...] that an effective leader should act as a role model regarding specific issues such as structured procedures, clear planning, [...]. (GGCGM_4)

[...] the theme of being an example is also of high relevance for me. [...] I cannot ask for something which I am not adhering to myself. (GGCGM_5)

I think it is also very important to set a good example. It is always unfavourable when managers are asking their employees for something which they are not willing to do themselves. (GGCGM_9)

To summarise, the French managers linked the leadership attribute of acting as a role model to behavioural issues such as respect, good ethical behaviour and an understanding of human relations. The interviewees among both of the French employee samples also emphasised the ability of an effective leader to act as a role model and to display exemplary behaviour, specifically towards their employees. The German managers in Germany mentioned the ability of a leader to act as a role model in the context of structured and precise procedures.

(vi) The Ability to Listen

The ability of an effective leader to listen to employees, and the people they are surrounded by, was discussed across all of the French interviewees with the exception of the French employees in France. The ability to listen can be compared to ‘individualised consideration’ as discussed by Podsakoff et al. (1990), and Yukl (1999b) in the context of transformational leadership. It can also be compared to ‘showing sensitivity to the environment’ as investigated by the C-K Scale (1994, 1998) in the context of charismatic leadership.

The French managers stated ‘*What makes a leader an effective leader is the ability to listen [...]. (FFCFM_2)*’, and suggested that effective leaders need to ‘*[...] listen to their employees, [...]. (GFCFM_10)*’, and ‘*[...] are able to listen [...] to what people say. (GFCFM_8)*’. The French employees explained that what makes a leader be perceived as effective is ‘*[...] the ability to listen [...]. (FGCFE_6)*’. It was also suggested that effective leaders ‘*[...] know how to listen to their team [...]. (FGCFE_5)*’, and ‘*[...] have always to be able to listen to the people who they are surrounded by [...]. (FGCFE_1)*’.

Hence, as can be seen from the previous quotes, both of the sample groups of French managers and the French employees in German companies agreed on the ability of an effective leader to listen to subordinates.

(vii) Social Skills

The theme of social skills was mentioned by the German employees regardless of the nationality of their company. This topic can be linked to the aspect of ‘showing

sensitivity to the environment’ as included in the C-K scale of charismatic leadership (Conger and Kanungo, 1994, 1998).

The German employees stated that ‘*Some social skills would be also nice. (GGCGE_6)*’, and ‘*[...] social skills are even more important to me. (GGCGE_9)*’, and suggested that it is important for an effective leader ‘*[...] to be tremendously people-oriented [...]. (GFCGE_4)*’.

Thus, according to these German interviewees, it is believed that an effective leader should have some kind of focus on human issues.

(viii) Keeping Track of the Big Picture

The theme of keeping track of the ‘big picture’ only emerged among the German employees working in Germany in German companies. It can be compared to the feature of ‘idealised vision’ as described in the context of transformational leadership (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Yukl, 1999b).

The German employees stated:

Effective means the leader has an even greater overview [...] than one can have as an employee, because as an employee one is caught in everyday tasks and processes. [...] a leader is somebody who has a perspective beyond this [...]. (GGCGE_3)

For a leader it is very important to keep track of the ‘big picture’ in order to be able to coordinate and guide where necessary. (GGCGE_5)

To summarise, these German employees considered it important to be supervised by somebody who had a larger perspective on their work than they had themselves in order to be able to lead them in the right direction.

7.4.2 Team-Oriented Leadership

All of the interviewees, regardless of their nationality, the country they were currently living and working in, and regardless of their hierarchical level identified a team-oriented leadership style as an important attribute of an effective leader. This included the ability of effective leaders to provide appropriate working structures including themes such as team development.

Starting with team development and team spirit, the managers suggested that effective leaders *‘[...] create cohesion at the team level, a certain team spirit in order to consistently achieve goals. (FFCFM_6)’*, *‘[...] have to focus on team motivation [...]’. (FFCFM_5)’*, *‘[...] are able to promote a certain spirit within their team. (FGCGM_7)’*, and *‘[...] work together with their team towards the company goal and are team builders when it comes to their employees. (GGCGM_14)’*.

Regarding appropriate working structures, the managers emphasised that it is important: *‘[...] to define an appropriate working structure [...]’. (GFCFM_2)’*, *‘[...] to set clear guidelines [...], so that the employees know which direction to go in and to know the degree of their freedom of action. (GGCGM_7)’*, and *‘[...] to provide the team which they are leading with a self-supporting structure. (FGCGM_7)’*.

To sum up these views, one manager suggested that an effective leader needs:

‘[...] to provide the necessary organisational structures and resources and to create a certain supportive structure between the organisation and employees by taking certain responsibility and by covering certain risks. (FGCGM_10)’

The managers also discussed how to develop their team. They stated that effective leaders need to:

‘[...], depending on the team size, be able to individually make team members follow a common goal by explaining to them the added value for their personal development. (FFCFM_5)’

[...] understand quickly how the team is composed, what the strengths and weaknesses of each team member are in order to be able to delegate tasks within the team in a way that everybody is doing what s/he can do best. (FGCGM_7)

Further French expatriate managers in Germany added that effective leaders: ‘uncover the potential of the members of their team *[...] so that the potential of each team member can be explored. (GFCFM_10).*’, and ‘*[...] represent the interests of their team vis-à-vis other teams. (GFCFM_11)*’.

The requirement for an effective leader to represent their team was also highlighted by the employees. They suggested that effective leaders need to ‘*[...] know how to defend their team vis-à-vis other team leaders [...]. (FFCFE_1)*’, ‘*[...] to make sure to have the right arguments when it comes to representing the team decision vis-à-vis third parties. (FGCFE_8)*’, ‘*[...] represent their team to others [...]* and have a representative function. (GGCGE_1)’, and ‘*[...] generally protect their employees in a conflict situation. (GGCGE_7)*’. One employee added that an effective leader:

[...] helps represent the employees when something has to be communicated to the next higher level [...] and represents the employees towards third parties [...], even if something went wrong. (GFCGE_5)

Furthermore, the employees emphasised the theme of team development and stated that effective leaders ‘*[...] make employees feel they belong to a team [...]. (FFCFE_2)*’, and ‘*[...] integrate the whole team and take it with them, mentally as well as in distinct projects. (GGCGE_8)*’.

The employees also highlighted building appropriate working structures and suggested that effective leaders ‘*[...] are able to define a direction [...] and provide a clear direction to their employees. (FFCFE_1)*’, and ‘*[...] are able to explain the reasons why this is the right direction to take. (FFCFE_5)*’. It was also suggested that ‘*[...] it is necessary that effective leaders have rather precise ideas [...] regarding the*

direction in which they would like to go [...]. (FGCFE_9)’, that effective leaders ‘[...] lead their team and organise their team [...]. (GGCGE_11)’, ‘[...] delineate the major lines, [...and] impose the structure and the rules. (FGCFE_4)’, and ‘[...] indicate the direction in which the team will develop. (GFCGE_2)’.

Another employee emphasised that an effective leader:

‘[...] provides guidelines [...], a kind of a framework. [...] so that I, as an employee, know when I should consult with my superior [...]. (GFCGE_1)

In order to create these working structures, the employees suggested that effective leaders need to: *‘[...] know about the capabilities of each employee [...]. (GGCGE_5)’, ‘[...] use employees according to their competencies. (GFCGE_5)’, ‘[...] foster the competencies of the team members and take advantage of these competencies. (FFCFE_4)’, ‘[...] suggest solutions, and offer opportunities, also opportunities to develop. (FGCFE_1)’, and ‘[...] give feedback [...] and depict boundaries. (GFCGE_4)’.* One of the employees added that effective leaders were expected to:

‘[...] integrate employees into the team [...] in the sense that individual achievements are acknowledged and valued, and that employees are deployed accordingly. (GGCGE_8)

Finally, one of the French employees concluded that *‘Leadership is the capacity to successfully carry out projects in a team. (FGCFE_7)’.*

To summarise, all of the respondents agreed on the importance for leaders to create an appropriate working structure within which their teams may operate in order to contribute to the achievement of the company’s goals. To do so, the managers explained that it was important to understand employees’ strengths and weaknesses in order to deploy them as effectively as possible. All of the employees specifically mentioned that effective leaders should know the competencies of their employees in

order to be able to accomplish projects. Both French and German managers in France highlighted the ability of an effective leader to establish a team spirit. The French managers in Germany were the only group among the managers sampled who addressed the theme of representing one's team vis-à-vis third parties. While all of the employees highlighted the important role of effective leaders in representing the team, in particular they emphasised the need for a clear direction in which the team might develop, and the setting of certain rules, guidelines or a structure for the achievement of the desired direction.

7.4.3 Participative Leadership

The theme of delegation, as discussed by the interviewees of this study, is considered to form part of participative leadership. In the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004), for example, the leadership attribute of 'non-delegator' was reverse scored and included in the participative leadership style.

All of the managers, with the exception of the French managers in France, addressed the theme of delegation. The managers explained for example:

Effective leadership consists [...] of especially the distribution of responsibility, [...]. Each manager has to be able to lead, to motivate, to take responsibility, but also to delegate responsibility. (GGCGM_2)

An effective leader is able to also delegate responsibility. It is not enough to only delegate tasks. I think it is very important to delegate responsibility and everything which comes along with responsibility: leadership competency, and in the broader sense also power. (GGCGM_9)

It was also suggested that effective leadership is '*[...] to agree on a common objective, and to discuss together how to achieve the objective, etc., but also to delegate the responsibility to arrive at the objective. (FGCGM_3)*', '*[...] to delegate autonomy and responsibility which accompany the delegated task. (GFCFM_10)*', and '*[...] to*

build confidence, delegate, and take control while showing a high degree of intuition. (GFCFM_6)'.

The employees added that effective leaders need to *'[...] delegate, and distribute small tasks to be accomplished according to the competencies of each employee. (FFCFE_4)*', and to *'[...] know about the capabilities of each employee [...] and distribute task packages accordingly. (GGCGE_5)*'. It was also suggested that leaders can be effective *'[...] by transferring a lot of power through delegation. (FGCFE_6)*', and by *'[...] clear delegation of tasks. (GFCGE_5)*'. Additionally, effective leaders were expected to *'[...] also know how to transfer responsibilities [...]. (FGCFE_5)*', *'[...] delegate in the sense of not only delegating the task, but also the responsibility for it. (GGCGE_7)*', and to *'[...] transfer responsibility to that person; introduce him/her to those people with whom s/he will need to work with; [...]. (FFCFE_3)*'.

One of the employees described an effective leader as someone who:

'[...] leaves some tasks completely to employees. [...] Hence, my job is to fix the task within the company, [...] to discuss it, to coordinate it with the other departments within the company, and I do all this on my own. (GFCGE_2)

To summarise, all the employee samples, and the German managers regardless of the country in which they were based, as well as the French expatriate managers working in Germany, considered the theme of delegating tasks and responsibility as important attributes for a leader to be perceived as effective. The French employees in French companies in France and the German employees in German companies in Germany also mentioned that in order for leaders to delegate tasks, they have to know about the competencies of their employees.

7.5 Goal Setting and Monitoring

Goal setting and monitoring were also regarded as features of effective leadership regardless of respondents' nationality, the country they were currently living and working in, and regardless of their hierarchical level. For example, the managers interviewed stated that effective leadership has to focus on: '*[...] the setting of a goal which can be shared, understood and which is achievable. (FFCFM_5)*', '*precise objectives to be achieved, and deadlines. (GFCFM_2)*', '*[...] clear goal setting with objectives which can be measured. (GGCGM_5)*', and '*[...] setting goals. (FGCGM_8)*'.

Similarly, all of the employee samples agreed that an important task of an effective leader is to set goals. They suggested that: '*Effective leadership includes clear goals. (GGCGE_1)*', that leaders can be effective: '*[...] by setting objectives and deadlines. (FFCFE_3)*', and that an effective leader: '*[...] has real objectives which are clearly defined [...]. (FGCFE_4)*', and '*sets an objective. (GFCGE_2)*'.

The employees added that effective leaders have to:

[...] share objectives and stimulate people to achieve them [...]. [...] lead the employees in the direction of the objectives. (FGCFE_9)

[...] set goals for their department or group which they are responsible for, and who attempt to achieve these goals together with the team. (GGCGE_11)

Regarding the monitoring of goal achievement, the findings differ between the single samples. The French managers in France stated that an effective leader:

[...] has to make sure that tasks are well and correctly accomplished on time which means to constantly control employees' tasks. (FFCFM_2)

The French employees suggested that an effective leader is required: '*[...] to give instructions [...]. (FGCFE_1)*', '*[...] to determine the code of conduct [...].*

(FGCFE_10)', '*[...] and then control, or better show interest in the advancement of the task. (FFCFE_3)*'.

The French expatriate managers in Germany and the German managers, however, explained that employees should be provided with more autonomy while they accomplish tasks. They suggested that effective leaders: '*[...] define the objectives to follow within the organisation and provide the necessary freedom of action in order to achieve them. (GFCFM_12)*', and '*[...] leave certain autonomy to employees when the objective to be achieved had been clearly defined. (GFCFM_2)*'. It was also suggested that effective leaders: '*[...] can get the most out of their employees by coaching and by enabling them to work as autonomously as possible. (GGCGM_6)*'. To do so, effective leaders:

[...] have to monitor within specific time intervals together with the employee whether the work is on the right track and has delivered provisional results. If necessary, adjustments have to be made. (GGCGM_1)

[...] set goals, monitor and measure goal achievement, [...] and allow employees to work autonomously. If necessary and when it is unclear how a task should proceed, the employee will get support. (FGCGM_9)

The German employees suggested that an effective leader: '*[...] distributes work packages entirely and does not have to monitor employees permanently [...]*. (GGCGE_5)', and '*If necessary clear deadlines have to be set, which are checked and assessed in the end [...]*. (GGCGE_1)'. It was also explained that:

When you already know about the goal, it can also be effective to develop figures, indicators, and measurement criteria in order to know that you are on the right track to goal achievement. (GFCGE_3)

To summarise, all of the respondents regardless of their nationality, their country of work, and their hierarchical level confirmed that the ability of setting goals was an attribute of effective leadership. The monitoring of goal achievement, however,

differs between the single samples. The German managers regardless of where they were currently working described a rather structured approach to monitoring to enable employees to work more autonomously. This included setting goals, agreeing on milestones and indicators which can be measured, and regular checking of progress towards goal achievement. This is in line with the German employees. They agreed that a certain level of monitoring was needed. They suggested that it should be possible for employees to accomplish tasks autonomously and that the degree of goal achievement should be measurable by performance indicators. The French managers working in Germany also agreed on the importance of enabling employees to work autonomously. The French managers in France, however, mentioned constant control of tasks which could be interpreted as them affording less autonomy to employees. This is in line with the views of the French employees, regardless of whether they worked for French or German companies in France.

7.6 Communication and Transparency

All the interviewees highlighted the importance of regular communication, and all of the employee samples explicitly discussed the theme of the importance of transferring relevant information from manager to employee. This was only briefly mentioned by German expatriate managers in France. The theme of transparency was explicitly mentioned by the German managers in Germany and in France.

For example, the managers mentioned communication as a key requirement in order to be perceived as an effective leader: *'[...] and of course communication [...]. Communication with the team is important so that everyone understands well the tasks. (FFCFM_2)'*. They suggested that effective leaders have *'[...] to delegate and to communicate in an open manner. (GFCFM_10)'*, and *'[...] to have open*

communication at all different levels, and not only at higher management levels. (GFCFM_13)'.

The German managers added that *'[...] it is important [...] to communicate clearly and in a distinct way on how to achieve goals. (GGCGM_5)'*, and stated:

Clear language, clear statements, [...]. Communicating succinctly, having a personal opinion and representing this opinion. (GGCGM_12)

[...] in order to make the team follow a specific objective, [...] communication should be developed [...]. (FGCGM_3)

One of these managers suggested that it is important:

[...] to communicate regularly with your team members in order to inform the employees about current events and to guarantee a certain tracking of the previously set goals. (FGCGM_7)

The employees also emphasised the important role of communication and explained: *'[Sharing one's vision] can be done by communicating and explaining [...] that there is a solid basis for this vision [...]. (FFCFE_5)'*. They stated that effective leaders are able *'[...] to tell where they would like to lead the company to [...]. (FGCFE_4)'*, and *'[...] to share the objectives [...] in order to follow the vision and strategy [...]. (FGCFE_9)'*.

One of the French employees added:

It seems to be important that [leaders] are up to date about what is going on in the company. This happens by communication: communication of results, communication of the company's overall direction [...]. Communication is something important because if you do not communicate for a long period of time, people will be surprised on the day when you start communicating again. But it is good to communicate, because people will know why and what they are working for [...]. (FGCFE_6)

The German employees suggested that effective leadership consisted of *'[...] direct communication, of open communication. (GGCGE_9)'*, that an effective leader *'[...] is available for communication that is as direct and quick as possible.*

(GGCGE_3)', and that '*[...] it is important that decisions and tasks [...] are clearly communicated. (GFCGE_3)*'.

Regarding the transfer of information, the employees highlighted that '*[...] leading consists of being informed, and the exchange of information [...]. (FGCFE_6)*', and effective leaders need to '*[...] make sure that relevant information is available as transparently as possible. (GFCGE_4)*', and need:

[...] to circulate information, [...] this means that in the same way that information was transferred to them [the managers], they should transfer it to their subordinates. (FFCFE_5)

Another employee reinforced this view that:

[...] very important is the theme of information transfer. [...] Important information is usually transferred by a leader to the employees, and this has to happen promptly so that employees can include it in their work. Thus, a certain pace would be important. (GGCGE_5)

The theme of transparency was discussed across the samples of the German managers in France and in Germany. They explained, for example:

I think a high degree of transparency [is] necessary. [...] it is important to just communicate the transparency which is necessary to inspire and motivate people to follow the objectives of the company. (GGCGM_1)

[Transparency] is important to a certain extent. It is always relevant to get someone on board. [...] but sometimes somewhat overestimated, because you just cannot present the details of every single project in a transparent way. (GGCGM_9)

Hence, full transparency cannot always be guaranteed, because some decisions cannot be explained in a totally transparent way, but general transparent behaviour was explained to be important for effective leaders:

Having a hidden agenda is an attribute of leaders who sooner or later will fail. Hence, transparency is really very important. (FGCGM_2)

To summarise, all respondents regardless of their nationality, the country where they were currently living and working, and regardless of their hierarchical level agreed on the ability of an effective leader to communicate. While the French employees considered communication to be important in order to share one's vision and to exchange information, the German employees focused on direct, open and clear communication. This is in line with the German managers in Germany, whereas their German counterparts in France placed a focus on regular communication in order to inform employees and to monitor the achievement of goals. The French managers in Germany discussed communication skills in the context of communicating with other hierarchical levels within the company, and the French managers in France highlighted the theme of communication in the context of explaining tasks.

All employees agreed on the importance of a leader's role in communicating information. The importance of being informed as a leader was mentioned to a greater extent by the French employees, whereas the German employees focused on the promptness of the information transfer and the transparency of the transferred information. Transparency was also a relevant theme among the German managers regarding their perception of effective leadership.

7.7 Decision Making

The ability to make decisions was identified across the manager samples, with the exception of the French managers in France, and across the employee samples, with the exception of the German employees in French and German companies in Germany. The managers suggested that effective leaders '*[...] make the right decisions at the right time.* (GFCFM_4)'. It was also suggested:

I think employees expect an effective leader to display a certain strength, enthusiasm to make decisions, and consistent behaviour. (GGCGM_4)

They added that effective leaders need *'[...] to be in a position to identify the right things in order to be able to make decisions promptly. (FGCGM_2)'*, and *'[...] to be able to make the right decision, in a rather quick manner, or at least make a decision, even though this might not be the best decision. (GFCFM_8)'*.

The employees suggested that effective leaders *'[...] dare to make courageous decisions [...]. (FFCFE_3)'*, and need *'[...] to be able to make good decisions. (FGCFE_6)'*.

To summarise, these quotes show that participants viewed it as important for a leader to make decisions and to make them promptly.

7.8 Being Competent

The characteristic of being knowledgeable and competent was addressed by the French managers in France and in Germany, by all of the German employees, and the French employees working for German companies in France.

The French managers indicated that an effective leader *'[...] has to be competent [...]. (FFCFM_1)'*, *'[...] has to have broad knowledge which means to be able to talk about everything. (FFCFM_2)'*, and *'[...] is somebody who can be asked questions and who provides answers. [...] leaders have to be more competent than the members of their team, or at least as competent as they are. (GFCFM_3)'*.

Two of the French expatriate managers in Germany who commented on the theme of being competent had an engineering background and explained:

In my opinion, in order to be effective, [...] you have to show that you are technically skilled, or that you are good in your area of competence. (GFCFM_3)

[...an effective leader has to have] great technical competence [...]. (GFCFM_13)

The French employees working in German companies in France added that effective leaders *'[...] have to have clear and recognised competencies in the function which they occupy. (FGCFE_3)'*, and *'[...] are professional, competent and organised, [...] know what they are speaking about [...]. (FGCFE_4)'*.

The German employees stated that *'Professional competence is important [...]. (GGCGE_9)'*, that effective leaders are individuals *'[...] who have expertise and who show it as well. (GGCGE_8)'*, and that effective leadership *'[...] consists of expertise. This means leaders should know what they are talking about, and have a clue about what they are doing. (GGCGE_2)'*. One of them added *'[...] but first of all [...] there is professional competence, and this should be clearly and logically structured and going in one direction. (GGCGE_3)'*, and it was concluded that *'The more competent a leader is, the more you are willing to follow them. (GGCGE_9)'*.

To summarise, according to the French managers, being competent is a relevant attribute in order to be perceived as an effective leader, and for the French managers in Germany it is also important to be technically skilled. All of the employees who discussed the theme of a leader's professional competence agreed that it is important for effective leaders to know what they are talking about. While the German employees in German companies underlined that the ability of showing professional competence was motivating for employees to follow their leader, the German employees in French companies and the French employees in German companies emphasised a structured and organised way of working in addition to a leader's professional competence.

7.9 Summary of the Leadership Similarities and Differences in Views of Effective Leadership

To conclude from this section, the similarities and differences identified during interviews are summarised in Table 7.4. As can be seen from this table, a number of attributes were important for all of the interviewees regardless of their nationality and their hierarchical level. Further, a number of attributes were specifically highlighted by either the managers or by the employees. Some of these were discussed more by the French interviewees, others more by the German managers, regardless of the country in which they were currently living and working.

Table 7.4: Summary of the Similarities and the Differences of the Managers and the Employees Interviewed

Legend: same colour signifies same nationality and same hierarchical level	France				Germany			
	French company		German company		German company		French company	
	FM	FE	GM	FE	GM	GE	FM	GE
Charismatic and Transformational Leadership								
• Charismatic behaviour	X	X	X	X	X	0	X	0
• Motivation and encouragement	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
• Confidence building	0	X	X	X	0	X	X	X
• Articulating a vision	X	X	0	X	X	X	X	0
• Dynamic behaviour	X	0	X	0	X	0	X	0
• Taking risks	0	0	X	0	X	0	0	0
• Leader as a role model	X	X	0	X	X	0	X	0
• Ability to listen	X	0	0	X	0	0	X	0
• Social skills	0	0	0	0	0	X	0	X
• Big picture	0	0	0	0	0	X	0	0
Team-Oriented Leadership								
• Working structures	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
• Team development	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
• Represent the team	0	X	0	X	0	X	X	X
Participative Leadership								
• Delegation	0	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Other Characteristics								
• Goal setting and monitoring	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
• Communication	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
• Information transfer	0	X	X	X	0	X	0	X
• Transparency	0	0	X	0	X	0	0	0
• Decision making	0	X	X	X	X	0	X	0
• Being competent	X	0	0	X	0	X	X	X

The similar attributes among all of the sample groups included: the motivation and encouragement of employees, the ability to create appropriate working structures, team development, the setting of goals, and communication. All of the interviewees

discussed these attributes with regard to effective leadership. With the exception of the German employees, all interviewees explicitly mentioned charismatic behaviour. With the exception of the French managers in France, all interviewees discussed the topic of delegation. The requirement to represent the team was primarily emphasised by the employees, but it was also mentioned by the French managers in Germany.

Differences across the samples were found in the approaches to charismatic and transformational, as well as team-oriented leadership. Regarding motivation and encouragement of employees, the French managers in France and the German managers in Germany agreed that this could be achieved through learning about their potential and through developing it. In order to motivate, the French managers in Germany mentioned providing employees with feedback and the German managers in Germany specifically highlighted providing them with autonomy. The German employees emphasised that an effective leader can be motivating by providing them with future career and personal development opportunities.

The approach to monitoring goal achievement was described differently by the individual samples. The German managers and employees addressed a rather structured approach to monitoring which should enable employees to work autonomously. The French managers working in Germany agreed about the importance of enabling employees to work autonomously. The French managers in France, however, mentioned constant control of tasks, while the French employees suggested that an effective leader gives instructions and determines the code of conduct for goal achievement. These views appear to be more rigorous and, thus, would suggest that French employees receive less autonomy than is the case for German employees.

The leadership attribute of confidence building was discussed by all of the employees and was considered as a mutual construct between leaders and followers.

Both of the expatriate manager samples addressed confidence building in the context of motivating and encouraging employees. The ability to be strategically visionary was mentioned by all of the French sample groups and by the German managers and employees working in German companies in Germany. All of the interviewees who addressed this theme also highlighted that it was important for a leader to share their vision. The leadership attribute relating to making decisions was primarily raised by the manager samples with the exception of the French managers in France. It was, however, addressed by some of the French employees. The managers specifically highlighted the promptness of decision making.

Regarding the approach to team-oriented leadership and to establishing appropriate working structures, all managers, with the exception of the German managers in Germany, discussed the importance of understanding employees' strengths and weaknesses in order to deploy them as effectively as possible. All of the employees agreed that effective leaders have to know about the competencies of their employees and emphasised in particular the need for a clear direction in which the team might develop, and the setting of certain rules and a structure for the achievement of the desired direction.

Dynamic behaviour was addressed by all of the manager samples. The remaining list of attributes was identified by particular sample groups. The theme of information transfer was addressed by all of the employee samples and the German expatriate managers in France. All of the French interviewees emphasised the ability of an effective leader to act as a role model and to display exemplary behaviour. The German managers in Germany were the only sample among the German interviewees to address this leadership attribute and mentioned acting as a role model in the context of structured and precise procedures.

All of the French samples, with the exception of the French employees working for French companies in France, considered the ability to listen as an important attribute of effective leadership. The attribute of being competent was discussed among the French manager samples, the German employees and the French employees working for German companies in France. Two of the French expatriate managers in Germany specifically highlighted technical skills as being important for effective leaders.

The themes of transparency and the willingness of leaders to take risks were only addressed by the German manager samples. A focus on human issues was emphasised by the German employee samples and the ability to keep track of the 'big picture' was only mentioned by the German employees in German companies in Germany.

7.10 Summary of the Interview Findings

This chapter presented findings of the interviews which were carried out with French and German managers and employees in their domestic and host work environments. The purpose of the chapter was to detail similarities and differences across the samples under investigation.

Similarities exist among all of the samples and include leadership attributes which can be allocated to charismatic and transformational, team-oriented and participative leadership styles. Differences were found across all samples and concerned, for example, differences in how to motivate and encourage employees, and in how to create appropriate working structures in order to achieve the company's objectives. Further differences concern leadership attributes which were only discussed by some of the sample groups. There are attributes which were primarily emphasised

by the managers such as dynamic behaviour, and attributes which were highlighted by the employees such as the task of managers to represent their team and to transfer information. Other attributes, such as the leader as a role model were specifically mentioned by the French interviewees regardless of their hierarchical level. The ability to listen was discussed mostly by the French managers, whereas the themes of transparency and risk taking emerged among the German managers. Being competent was highlighted by the French managers and the German employees. The latter sample group also emphasised social skills as an important attribute of effective leadership.

CHAPTER VIII

DISCUSSION

8.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the research findings of the present study in the context of its research questions, hypotheses and propositions. This chapter will remind the reader of the objectives of the study and present again the research questions, hypotheses and propositions. The findings regarding the structure of the cognitive leadership schemas will be discussed, and this will be followed by a discussion of the content of the cognitive leadership schemas investigated. Limitations of this study will be presented and directions for future research suggested. The chapter closes with implications for practice and a brief summary.

8.2 The Objectives of the Study

The overall aim of the present study was to investigate perceptions of leadership across cultures and to generally contribute to the discussion about societal culture and its potential influence on leadership. More precisely this study focused on the analysis of the structure and the content of cognitive leadership schemas in France and in Germany in a business context. This approach was adopted in order to explore the application of connectionist models to cross-cultural leadership research and, thus, to contribute to the theoretical discussion of implicit leadership theories within the area of cognitive science leadership research. Furthermore, the focus on France and Germany has the aim of contributing new and more recent insights into what is known about the perception of leadership in these two countries. Additionally, this study overcame the criticism of leadership research as being too leader-centric by considering managers as

well as employees in its mixed methods research design. It is the first French-German leadership study which included French and German managers and their employees in both their domestic and host settings.

8.3 The Research Questions, Hypotheses, Propositions, and their Results

As a reminder, the research questions, hypotheses, and propositions as well as their results are presented in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1: The Research Questions, Hypotheses, Propositions and their Results

Question 1	Does the structure of effective leadership schemas differ between French and German managers and employees in a business context?	
<i>H1</i>	If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French and Germans in a business context, regardless of their corresponding hierarchical level.	√
<i>H2</i>	If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French managers and French employees.	√
<i>H3</i>	If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between German managers and German employees.	√
<i>H4</i>	If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will be more similar between individuals of the same nationality than between individuals of the same hierarchical level.	√

Table 8.1 continued

Question 2	Does the structure of effective leadership schemas in a French and German business context differ between home and host managers?	
<i>H5</i>	If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between French managers who are working for French organisations in France and French expatriate managers who are working for French organisations in Germany.	√
<i>H6</i>	If the content is held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas will differ between German managers who are working for German organisations in Germany and German expatriate managers who are working for German organisations in France.	√
<i>H7</i>	If the content is held constant, the leadership schema structure will be more similar between German managers in Germany and German expatriate managers in France than between German expatriate managers in France and French managers in France.	√
<i>H8</i>	If the content is held constant, the leadership schema structure will be more similar between French managers in France and French expatriate managers in Germany than between French expatriate managers in Germany and German managers in Germany.	√
Question 3	How does the content of effective leadership schemas differ between French and German managers and employees in a business context?	
<i>P1</i>	The content of French cognitive leadership schemas will be rather characterised by attributes which form part of charismatic, team-oriented and participative leadership styles. In comparison, German cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily characterised by attributes which form part of a participative leadership style.	≠
<i>P2</i>	The content of managers' cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily composed of innovative, visionary, long-term oriented, diplomatic and courageous leadership attributes. In comparison, the employees' cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily composed of more social and participative attributes such as team building and concern for subordinates' interests.	≠√
<i>P3</i>	The content of the cognitive leadership schemas will be more similar between home and expatriate managers of the same nationality, than between home and expatriate managers of a different nationality, but who live and work in the same country.	≠√

The first and the second research question asked about the structure of the leadership schemas of French and German managers and employees, and about the structure of the leadership schemas of the French and German domestic and expatriate managers under the condition that the content of the leadership schemas was held

constant. As can be seen from Table 8.1, the findings of this study supported all of the hypotheses: the structure of the leadership schemas was found to differ between French and Germans in a business context, regardless of their corresponding hierarchical level; the structure of the leadership schemas was found to differ between German managers and German employees, and between French managers and French employees; and the structure of the leadership schemas was found to be more similar between individuals of the same nationality than between individuals of the same hierarchical level, but of different nationality. Furthermore, the structure of the leadership schemas of the French and German domestic managers was found to differ from that of their expatriate counterparts. It was also found that the leadership schemas of managers of the same nationality, but working in different countries were more similar, than the leadership schemas of managers who worked in the same country, but were of different nationality.

Only some support was found for the propositions. The investigations carried out in the context of the first proposition, resulted in the finding that both French and German respondents emphasised charismatic, team-oriented, and participative leadership attributes. While the French interviewees highlighted charismatic leadership attributes to a slightly greater degree, the German respondents put stronger emphasis on participative leadership. The second and third propositions were partially supported. The differences between the manager and employee samples as suggested by the second proposition were not found to be as distinct as expected. The analysis with regard to the third proposition showed that the content of the cognitive leadership schemas of the German managers in Germany and their expatriate counterparts in France was quite similar. The content of the leadership schemas of the French expatriate managers, however, showed some adaptation to the German views of

effective leadership. Despite this adaptation, the content of the cognitive leadership schemas of the French expatriate managers was still quite consistent with that of their French counterparts in France.

8.4 Discussion of the Research Findings

The following sections will discuss four themes which are related to the research questions and the findings of this study. The first theme is based on research questions one and two. This theme concerns the structure of the cognitive leadership networks analysed, and the differences that were found between cultures (France vs. Germany) and hierarchical levels (managers vs. employees). The analysis of the graphical representations of respondents' leadership network structures found that the leadership attribute 'motive arouser' was in almost all of the computed leadership networks the attribute with the most connections to the other attributes in the network. This signifies its important and central role within the leadership networks. Hence, the next theme discusses its role within the leadership network structures and compares findings of the present study to prior literature. The third and fourth themes are based on research question three and discuss the content of the cognitive leadership schemas of the French and German domestic and host managers and their employees.

8.4.1 The Structure of the Cognitive Leadership Networks

The analysis of the structure of the cognitive leadership networks of the French and German managers and employees supported all of the presented hypotheses. First, at an aggregated level, the findings showed that when the content of the leadership schema was held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas of the French and German respondents were different from each other, regardless of their hierarchical

level. For example, the comparison between the aggregated leadership networks of all the French respondents and all the German respondents showed that these two networks only had five links in common, and a similarity value of $\text{sim} = .29$, which is a very low value in comparison to $\text{sim} = 1$, which signifies that two networks are identical. Thus, the networks are different from each other. The same was found for the comparison between the aggregated leadership networks of all of the French respondents working in France and all of the German respondents working in Germany, regardless of the respondents' corresponding hierarchical level.

This finding is in line with findings of prior research comparing leadership schemas cross-culturally (e.g. Calori, Johnson and Sarnin, 1992; Hanges et al., 2006). Initially, Shaw (1990) hypothesised that culture would impact on the structure of leadership schemas. This was supported by research carried out by Hanges et al. (2001) who found the structure of leadership schemas to be different between groups of German, American, and Mexican advanced undergraduate and MBA students with full-time work experience in their home countries. Gerstner and Day (1994) also found evidence that leadership schema structures varied across societal cultures. They analysed the ratings of a list of leadership attributes of international and American students and found significant differences in the importance of these attributes according to the students' cultural background. Calori, Johnson and Sarnin (1992) carried out interviews among English and French top managers, constructed cognitive maps from the interview content, and showed that societal culture influenced the structure of managerial thinking.

The studies by Hanges et al. (2001) and Gerstner and Day (2004) used student samples, whereas all of the respondents of the present study came from a business context and might have different views on effective leadership than students do.

Despite the criticism of using student samples, these previous studies gathered data from students and hence, perspectives of students about leadership. These studies found that the leadership networks differed according to the students' cultural background. This can be explained by the finding that implicit leadership theories are developed at an early stage in life (Antonakis and Dalgas, 2009; Ayman-Nolley and Ayman, 2005; Keller, 1999, 2003; Popper and Amit 2009) which means a student perception of leadership might not differ much from a professional perception of leadership. Moreover, Singer (1990) showed that implicit leadership theories (ILTs) were generalisable from student to professional samples. Hence, it could be concluded that leadership schemas are generally different between individuals of different cultures, regardless of their professional status. They can therefore be used as an approach to compare cultures. This in turn is supported by the finding of the GLOBE study that individuals' implicit leadership theories are culturally endorsed (Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck, 2004).

Second, the findings show that across respondents of the same nationality the structure of the leadership networks of respondents at manager level differed from that at employee level. More precisely, the comparisons between the aggregated leadership networks of the French managers and French employees in French companies in France revealed a high similarity value ($\text{sim} = .50$), but the networks were not identical which would have resulted in a similarity value of $\text{sim} = 1$. The same was found for their German counterparts: a high similarity value ($\text{sim} = .80$), but not an identical one.

This finding is comparable to research carried out by Den Hartog et al. (1999), who showed that respondents rated a list of 22 leadership attributes differently according to their importance across different hierarchical levels. The ranking of leadership attributes associated with being a good leader of an organisation was

different from the ranking of leadership attributes for leaders at lower levels such as a department supervisor (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Comparable, but not identical findings were reported by Hauenstein and Foti (1989), who found that supervisors and subordinates of two law enforcement agencies had different perspectives on several work incidents. They found, for example, that supervisors viewed poor-performance incidents more severely than did subordinates. A study by Ireland et al. (1987) found that perceptions of the indicators of an organisation's strengths and weaknesses differ between managerial levels. Their sample included top, middle, and lower level managers from three large companies in South America.

The finding that perceptions of effective leadership differ between individuals of different hierarchical levels is important insofar as Lord and Maher (1991) stated that leaders would be perceived as more effective, the better the fit between leaders' and followers' perceptions of effective leadership. Thus, knowing about the differences in cognitive leadership schemas of managers and employees, and working towards the mutual understanding of the leadership schema of the respective other group, could help improve the perceived effectiveness of a leader, and, therefore positively contribute to a company's performance.

Third, the comparison of the structure of the leadership schemas between French and German managers and employees revealed that the structure of the leadership schemas of the respondents of the same nationality, but of different hierarchical level, was more similar than the structure of the leadership schemas of the respondents of the same hierarchical level, but of different nationality. This might be an indicator that national culture has greater influence on the structure of leadership schemas than the hierarchical level of the respondents. This finding is in line with research carried out by Zander and Romani (2004). They found that national culture

was a stronger indicator of leadership preferences than departmental, hierarchical, professional, gender, and age-based employee groupings. The study by Calori, Johnson and Sarnin (1992) discussed – besides the influence of societal culture on the structure of managerial thinking – the influence of the industry sector. However, they did not detail which of these two aspects exerted the stronger influence.

The first research question can, therefore, be answered in the affirmative: the structure of effective leadership schemas differs between French and German managers and employees in a business context. On a more general level, this might signify that the application of connectionist models to the area of cross-cultural leadership research represents a meaningful instrument for the purpose of investigating perceptions of leadership across different cultural contexts.

The second research question addressed the structure of effective leadership schemas of French and German domestic and expatriate managers. It was found that the leadership schemas of the managers of the same nationality, but working in different countries, were more similar than the leadership schemas of the managers of different nationality, but who were working in the same country. This confirms the suggestion by Lord and his colleagues that change in implicit leadership theories (ILTs, or cognitive leadership schemas) of individuals occurs due to changes in contextual factors, and, therefore ILTs can be described as flexible and fluid knowledge structures (Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001; Lord et al., 2001). In the present study, the structure of the leadership schemas of the French expatriate managers working in Germany was different from the structure of the leadership schemas of the French managers in France. This shows that such cognitive structures may change which is an indicator that these are flexible as described by Lord and his colleagues. The same result was found

when comparing the German expatriate managers in France and the German managers in Germany.

The structure of the leadership schemas of expatriate and domestic managers, however, was found to be more similar between individuals of the same nationality regardless of their country of work, than between individuals of the same country of work, but of different nationality. This means that a change in the context (French vs. German work environment) of an individual can result in a change in an individual's ILTs, but only to some extent. This is in line with Epitropaki and Martin (2004) who showed that despite context changes, leadership schemas remain rather stable. The same was shown in a study by Foti, Knee and Backert (2008). The stability or the slow change of individual's ILTs can be explained by the information processing of ILTs in the brain: leadership schemas are stored abstractly in long-term memory, they have to be learned, and hence, only change slowly (Lord, Foti and De Vader, 1984).

In conclusion, in the present study the managers' inherent culture of origin seemed to have stronger impact on the structure of leadership schemas than the host culture in which the expatriate managers were working. This means that it is very likely that expatriate managers will encounter conflict situations with their host workforce based on their culturally endorsed ILTs. This also underlines and justifies the necessity of intercultural training in advance of foreign assignments in order to prepare expatriate managers for potential sources of conflict in the host country.

8.4.2 The Role of the Leadership Attribute 'Motive Arouser'

Besides the comparison of the structure of the leadership networks, the graphical representations of respondents' leadership schemas were investigated. An interesting finding concerned the rather central role of the leadership attribute 'motive

arouser', which was defined as 'mobilises and activates followers' (House et al., 2004), and which can be described as the central role of a leader. In all of the leadership networks of the different sample groups this attribute had on average the most connections to other attributes. In all of the networks, regardless of the respondents' nationality, hierarchical level, or current country of work, 'motive arouser' was connected to the leadership attribute 'motivational' defined as 'stimulates others to put forth efforts above and beyond the call of duty and make personal sacrifices'. In all of the German respondents' leadership networks it was connected to 'excellence oriented', regardless of the hierarchical level or current country of work of the respondents. In all of the French respondents' networks, with the exception of the French expatriate managers in Germany, 'motive arouser' was connected to 'confidence builder'. In all of the French respondents' networks, with the exception of the French employees working for German companies in France, 'motive arouser' was connected to 'decisive'. In all of the French and German employees' leadership networks, it was connected to 'dynamic'.

This pattern of findings can be compared to the French and German GLOBE ratings of the single leadership attributes as detailed in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2: The French and German GLOBE Ratings of the 22 Universal Positive Leadership Attributes (based on House et al., 2004)

Attribute	France	Germany		Leadership Dimension
		East	West	
Confidence builder	5.38 (8)	6.12 (7)	6.03 (13)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Decisive	5.40 (7)	6.16 (6)	6.12 (8)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Dynamic	5.51 (2)	6.42 (3)	6.37 (3)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Encouraging	5.19 (17)	6.11 (9)	6.09 (9)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Excellence oriented	5.26 (12)	6.44 (2)	6.28 (4)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Foresight	5.21 (16)	5.59 (20)	5.69 (21)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Honest	5.26 (13)	6.21 (5)	6.08 (11)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Just	5.18 (18)	5.43 (22)	5.81 (18)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Motivational	5.44 (4)	6.12 (8)	6.15 (6)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Motive arouser	5.56 (1)	6.40 (4)	6.37 (2)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Plans ahead	5.08 (20)	5.80 (18)	5.98 (16)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Positive	5.15 (19)	6.11 (10)	6.14 (7)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Trustworthy	5.26 (11)	6.48 (1)	6.42 (1)	Charismatic/Value-Based
Administratively skilled	3.92 (22)	5.84 (16)	5.50 (22)	Team-Oriented
Communicative	5.45 (3)	5.47 (21)	5.74 (20)	Team-Oriented
Coordinator	4.92 (21)	5.77 (19)	5.81 (19)	Team-Oriented
Dependable	5.31 (10)	6.11 (13)	6.00 (15)	Team-Oriented
Effective bargainer	5.22 (15)	6.11 (12)	6.06 (12)	Team-Oriented
Informed	5.42 (5)	6.11 (11)	6.00 (14)	Team-Oriented
Intelligent	5.31 (9)	6.07 (14)	6.15 (5)	Team-Oriented
Team builder	5.41 (6)	5.88 (15)	6.09 (10)	Team-Oriented
Win/win problem solver	5.24 (14)	5.80 (17)	5.82 (17)	Team-Oriented

According to this table, in Germany the highest values were attributed to ‘trustworthy’ (East: 6.48/West: 6.42), ‘motive arouser’ (6.40/6.37), ‘dynamic’ (6.42/6.37) and ‘excellence oriented’ (6.44/6.28). In France, the highest values were attributed to ‘motive arouser’ (5.56), ‘dynamic’ (5.51), ‘communicative’ (5.45), and

‘motivational’ (5.44). ‘Decisive’ (5.40) was ranked as seventh most important, while ‘confidence builder’ was only ranked as the eighth most important attribute (5.38). The high values and the small differences between values show that these attributes were all very similarly rated.

There is therefore, some overlap between the GLOBE findings and the findings of the present study. Both studies found that the attributes ‘motive arouser’ and ‘excellence oriented’ played an important role in German leadership schemas, while the attributes ‘motive arouser’, ‘motivational’, ‘decisive’ and ‘confidence builder’ were important in French leadership schemas. This finding is important for two reasons. First, the overlap of the results of the GLOBE study and the present study would appear to support the findings of the GLOBE study. Second, the GLOBE survey was carried out in the mid-1990s, while the present study was carried out about ten years later. Hence, it would appear that these universal positive leadership attributes have remained quite stable over time.

8.4.3 The Content of the French and German Managers’ and Employees’ Cognitive Leadership Schemas

The third research question dealt with the content of effective leadership schemas and explored differences between the content of leadership schemas of the French and German managers and employees. The approach to compare the content of leadership schemas is primarily based on Shaw (1990) who hypothesised that culture would impact on the content of leadership schemas. Hence, investigating the content of leadership schemas across France and Germany was expected to result in a different composition of the content of leadership schemas between French and German

respondents. This could be then interpreted as a societal cultural influence on the content of leadership schemas.

The first proposition addressed differences between French and German respondents regardless of their current country of work and their hierarchical level. It suggested that: the content of French cognitive leadership schemas would be rather characterised by attributes which form part of charismatic, team-oriented and participative leadership styles. In comparison, German cognitive leadership schemas would be primarily characterised by attributes which form part of a participative leadership style.

In order to explore this proposition, Table 8.3 below summarises again the similarities and differences across the investigated samples which were found in the interview analysis of the present study (cf. Chapter 7).

Table 8.3: Summary of the Similarities and the Differences of the Managers and the Employees Interviewed

Legend: same colour signifies same nationality and same hierarchical level	France				Germany			
	French company		German company		German company		French company	
	FM	FE	GM	FE	GM	GE	FM	GE
Charismatic and Transformational Leadership								
• Charismatic behaviour	X	X	X	X	X	0	X	0
• Motivation and encouragement	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
• Confidence building	0	X	X	X	0	X	X	X
• Articulating a vision	X	X	0	X	X	X	X	0
• Dynamic behaviour	X	0	X	0	X	0	X	0
• Taking risks	0	0	X	0	X	0	0	0
• Leader as a role model	X	X	0	X	X	0	X	0
• Ability to listen	X	0	0	X	0	0	X	0
• Social skills	0	0	0	0	0	X	0	X
• Big picture	0	0	0	0	0	X	0	0
Team-Oriented Leadership								
• Working structures	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
• Team development	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
• Represent the team	0	X	0	X	0	X	X	X
Participative Leadership								
• Delegation	0	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Other Characteristics								
• Goal setting and monitoring	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
• Communication	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
• Information transfer	0	X	X	X	0	X	0	X
• Transparency	0	0	X	0	X	0	0	0
• Decision making	0	X	X	X	X	0	X	0
• Being competent	X	0	0	X	0	X	X	X

As can be seen from Table 8.3, respondents of both the French and the German samples emphasised attributes of charismatic leadership as important for effective leadership. Among these attributes were characteristics such as motivation and

encouragement of employees, charismatic behaviour, and confidence building. These can be compared to attributes which form part of charismatic/value-based leadership as defined by the GLOBE study (cf. House et al., 2004). The corresponding GLOBE leadership attributes are ‘inspirational’, ‘encouraging’, ‘motive arouser’, and ‘confidence building’. These were defined as ‘inspires emotions, beliefs, values, and behaviour of others, inspires others to be motivated to work hard’; ‘gives courage, confidence or hope through reassuring and advising’; ‘mobilises and activates followers’; and ‘instils others with confidence by showing confidence in them’.

Other attributes, which were discussed across some of the sample groups of the present study, and which form part of charismatic leadership, concerned the themes of ‘articulating a vision’, ‘dynamic behaviour’, ‘taking risks’, ‘the leader as a role model’, ‘the ability to listen’, and ‘social skills’. These can be compared to attributes of charismatic leadership as discussed in the literature (e.g. Conger and Kanungo, 1994, 1998; Shamir et al., 1998).

In this study, ‘charismatic behaviour’ and ‘articulating a vision’ were primarily discussed across all of the French respondents and the German manager samples, ‘dynamic behaviour’ was emphasised by the French and German expatriate and domestic manager samples; ‘taking risks’ was identified across the German manager samples; the ability of a leader to ‘act as a role model’ and the ‘ability to listen’ were primarily highlighted by the French respondents; finally ‘social skills were discussed by the German employee samples. Hence, there is a slight tendency of the French respondents to place a stronger emphasis on charismatic leadership compared to their German counterparts.

Regarding team-oriented attributes, all of the respondents of the present study discussed characteristics such as team development, and the setting of appropriate

working structures as important for effective leaders in France and in Germany. These can be compared to team-oriented leadership as defined by the GLOBE study (cf. House et al., 2004). More precisely, the attributes as discussed in the present study can be compared to the GLOBE attributes of ‘integrator’, ‘coordinator’ and ‘team builder’, which were defined as ‘integrates people or things into cohesive, working whole’; ‘integrates and manages work of subordinates’; and is ‘able to induce group members to work together’. The attribute of ‘represent the team’, as discussed in the present study, was primarily highlighted across the French and the German employee samples.

Other characteristics which could not be precisely assigned to specific leadership styles, but which can to some extent be compared to some of the charismatic/value-based and team-oriented leadership attributes of the GLOBE study concern ‘goal setting and monitoring’, as well as ‘communication’. These can be compared to the GLOBE attributes ‘future-oriented’, to some extent to ‘administratively skilled’, and to ‘communicative’. These were defined by the GLOBE study as ‘makes plans and takes actions based on future goals’, is ‘able to plan, organise, coordinate and control work of large numbers (over 75) of individuals’, and ‘communicates with others frequently’. All of the respondents of the present study discussed these attributes.

The similarities between the French and the German sample groups of the present study show that both nationalities value charismatic and team-oriented leadership. Differences were, however, found in their approaches to charismatic and team-oriented leadership, although no distinct French or German pattern emerged. These differences concerned, for example, the approach to motivation and encouragement of employees. The French managers in France and the German managers in Germany agreed that this can be achieved through learning about the

potential of their employees and through developing it. The French managers in Germany suggested providing employees with feedback, and the German employees emphasised that leaders can be effective by providing employees with future career and personal development opportunities.

Regarding participative leadership, it was difficult to allocate attributes of the present study to the GLOBE scale of participative leadership. Attributes which form part of this scale were reverse-scored in the GLOBE study. Two of the GLOBE attributes which belong to the participative leadership scale and which can be compared to the present study might be the reverse scored attributes of 'individually oriented' which is defined as 'concerned with and places high value on preserving individual rather than group needs', and 'non-delegator', which is defined as 'unwilling or unable to relinquish control of projects or tasks'. With the exception of the French managers in France, the theme of delegation was discussed across all of the sample groups of the present study. Moreover, this theme was discussed across French and German samples in the context of delegating tasks and responsibility which suggests that employees dispose of the autonomy to carry out tasks as they consider it best.

This finding contradicts the first proposition which suggested that the content of German cognitive leadership schemas would be primarily characterised by attributes of a participative leadership style, and, hence, would appear to indicate that prior research, which compared French and German preferences for specific leadership styles and on which this proposition was built may no longer be valid. Furthermore, this finding would also appear to support to some extent the convergence of leadership styles in France and in Germany. The finding, however, might also be interpreted as if the French expatriate managers in Germany adapted to a more participative German leadership style, which in turn would support the discussion about the flexibility and

change of leadership schemas due to the exposure to different contextual factors (e.g. Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001; Lord et al., 2001).

While the French managers in France did not discuss the theme of delegation, the French employees did, which could be an indicator that French employees would desire greater participation. It could be also an indicator that the aim of introducing participative management by objectives in France (*'direction participative par objectifs'*) as described by Gelinier (1968) remains a challenge that needs to be addressed.

Another finding of the present study regarding participative leadership that could be interpreted as different between the French and the German samples concerned the way in which goals were monitored in France and in Germany. While German managers and employees emphasised a rather structured and measurable approach to goal monitoring in order to enable employees to work as autonomously as possible, their French counterparts were more authoritarian and less participative in their approach. Interestingly, the findings for the French expatriate managers in Germany again corresponded closer to a more German style of goal monitoring. They agreed on the importance of enabling employees to work autonomously.

To some extent, the French approach to goal monitoring can be explained by the French respect for hierarchy as described by Pateau (1999) and D'Iribarne (2001). This allows a manager to make decisions even without perfect consensus, which means in a less participative way than in Germany. Due to their hierarchical positions, managers in France are allowed, and even expected by employees to make decisions in a less participative way (Pateau, 1999). Consequently, when employees are less included in the decision making around particular objectives, goals have to be monitored more rigorously to make sure that these are accomplished as previously decided.

This finding of the present study is in line with Pateau's (1999) finding of higher consensus-orientation in Germany and linked to that, greater involvement of employees in decision-making. This was also reported by Szabo et al. (2002) who found that German leadership is characterised by participation through co-determination. Similarly, Bass and Stogdill (1990) explain that German participative leadership is characterised by expectations among employees that they will be involved in decision making. Warner and Campbell (1993), as well as Glunk, Wilderom and Ogilvie (1997), also suggest that once decisions are made, employees prefer to carry out their assigned tasks autonomously. Hence, as the results of the present study suggest, they are comparable to those of prior research. This means the French approach to leadership would still appear to be less participative than in Germany.

No further specific participative or non-participative pattern occurred between the French and the German respondents. Hence, the first proposition can be affirmed to the extent that the German respondents explicitly mentioned participative behaviour as detailed above, and, thus, put stronger emphasis on this theme than their French counterparts. Nevertheless, both the French respondents as well as the German respondents highlighted the importance of attributes of charismatic and team-oriented leadership, which means that the first proposition was not supported as suggested. Instead, the study found that both the French and the German cognitive leadership schemas were characterised by attributes which form part of charismatic, team-oriented, and participative leadership. While the French respondents emphasised a slightly more charismatic orientation regarding effective leadership, the German respondents identified a more participative orientation. Despite the fact that the first proposition was not supported, there is some support for Shaw's (1990) hypothesis that societal culture influences the content of cognitive leadership schemas.

The second proposition addressed differences between the hierarchical levels regardless of the nationality and current country of work. Based on research findings by Den Hartog et al. (1999) it was proposed that managers' leadership schemas would be primarily composed of innovative, visionary, long-term oriented, diplomatic and courageous leadership attributes, while employees' leadership schemas would primarily consist of more social and participative attributes such as team building and concern for subordinates' interests.

In the present study, however, the role of the team and team building was discussed by all of the sample groups regardless of their hierarchical level. All of the manager samples agreed that it was important to understand employees' strengths and weaknesses in order to deploy them as effectively as possible. All of the employees specifically mentioned that effective leaders should know the competencies of their employees in order to be able to accomplish projects. This means that the managers' and the employees' views about team building were quite similar.

The attribute of having a strategic vision was also emphasised by almost all of the sample groups. Attributes which could be labelled as more managerial attributes, and which were primarily discussed across the different manager samples, concerned transformational behaviour such as being dynamic and entrepreneurial thinking. The more managerial attribute of taking risks was solely mentioned by the German manager samples. This could be explained by, for example, the GLOBE scores of societal cultural values and practices for the 'uncertainty avoidance' dimension. While for both France and Germany, value scores were lower than the practice scores, this trend was even stronger for German managers than for French managers. Brodbeck and Frese (2007) explained this phenomenon by the preference of German managers to dispose of too many rules and regulations.

Attributes of the present study which were considered to be primarily relevant to employees concerned the themes of representing the team, confidence building, the communication of information, the ability to listen, and social skills. The themes relating to the team and information transfer were mentioned by all of the employee samples. Confidence building was also emphasised by all of the employees and by both of the expatriate manager samples. The ability to listen did not produce a meaningful manager versus employee pattern and social skills were only highlighted by the German employee samples. The latter finding can again be explained by the GLOBE study which found a relatively low societal practice score for the cultural dimension of 'humane orientation' in comparison to a high societal value score in Germany, which suggests a preference for a more humane orientation. Brodbeck and Frese (2007) explain this low societal practice score by German organisations being characterised by social interaction which is task-oriented, and less polite than in many other countries.

To conclude, the results of the present study are partially in line with Den Hartog et al.'s (1999) findings. Differences between the manager and employee samples were not as distinct as expected, and the second proposition can, therefore, only be affirmed to some extent. This raises two questions. The first question relates to whether the analysis of the content of leadership schemas is appropriate when comparing individuals' perceptions about effective leadership across different hierarchical levels. The second question relates to Den Hartog et al.'s (1999) study which was carried out in the Netherlands. The results of the present study would suggest that Den Hartog et al.'s (1999) findings for differences between hierarchical levels in the Netherlands might not necessarily be transferrable to other cultural contexts. This in turn would appear to indicate that the perceptions of leadership are culturally influenced at different hierarchical levels, which means that the societal

culture of an individual has a stronger impact on the content of leadership schemas than the individual's hierarchical level.

8.4.4 The Content of the Domestic and Expatriate Managers' Cognitive Leadership Schemas

The third proposition addressed differences between the content of the domestic and expatriate managers' cognitive leadership schemas in order to complement the second research question, which related to differences between the structure of the domestic and expatriate managers' cognitive leadership schemas. This is again based on Shaw's (1990) work and the suggestion that national culture will impact on the content of leadership schemas. It also draws on work by Lord and his colleagues (Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001; Lord et al., 2001) who assume that individuals' implicit leadership theories will be sensitive to changes in social contexts. Lord and his colleagues related their suggestion to the structure of leadership schemas. Hence, the aim of the third proposition was to investigate whether the content of leadership schemas would also be affected by a change in the social context (i.e. the expatriation of French and German managers to the respective other country).

As can be seen from Table 8.3 summarising the interview findings, all of the four manager samples agreed on the themes of motivation and encouragement of employees, charismatic behaviour, goal setting, team development, setting appropriate working structures, communication skills, and dynamic behaviour to be important for effective leadership. Regarding the differences between the samples, no specific pattern emerged when comparing their approaches of how to motivate and encourage employees.

The approach to goal monitoring, however, revealed a cultural pattern highlighting the German approach to monitor goals in a structured way in order to enable employees to carry out tasks with as much autonomy as possible. Interestingly the expatriate French managers working in Germany also addressed the theme of autonomy in the context of goal monitoring. A similar pattern was found for the theme of delegation. The German managers in France and in Germany explained that delegation consisted of delegating tasks and responsibility to employees. The French expatriate managers in Germany suggested the same. This could be an indicator that the change in the social context affected the composition of the content of their cognitive leadership schemas, and this would in turn support the characteristic of implicit leadership theories to consist of flexible knowledge structures (Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001; Lord et al., 2001).

Another interesting finding concerned the leadership attribute 'confidence building' which was mentioned by both of the expatriate manager samples and not by the domestic managers. A possible explanation for this specific expatriate manager finding might be that as an expatriate manager in a foreign work environment additional effort is needed to motivate employees. Hence, according to the present study, having even stronger confidence in them than might be the case in a domestic work environment would appear to be an approach to do so.

The themes of strategic vision, decision making, and the approach to building appropriate working structures did not reveal specific patterns and cannot be explained based on prior research. Articulating a strategic vision was considered to be a more managerial attribute (e.g. Den Hartog et al., 1999), but it was discussed primarily by all of the French respondents and the German managers and employees in Germany. It was expected that decision making would be discussed in a more consensus-oriented way in

Germany and in a less participative way in France, and that it would be addressed by all of the respondents. However, it was only mentioned across the samples of the French employees, the expatriate and domestic German managers, as well as the French expatriate managers in Germany, and it was not discussed in great detail. This finding cannot be explained, which raises the question about whether decision making is a less relevant attribute in respondents' leadership schemas. This would, however, contradict previous literature which has found a higher consensus-orientation in Germany and linked to that a greater involvement of employees in decision-making (Pateau, 1999; Szabo et al., 2002). It would also contradict the finding that German participative leadership is characterised by expectations among employees to be involved in decision making (Bass and Stogdill, 1990).

Cultural patterns, however, were found regarding the characteristics of the leader as a role model, the ability to listen, and being competent, which were primarily discussed by the French manager samples regardless of their current country of work. The leader as a role model and the ability to listen are both considered as elements of charismatic leadership, which would explain why these were highlighted by the French managers. As was suggested above, the French respondents were expected to put more emphasis on attributes of charismatic leadership than their German counterparts.

Interestingly, the French expatriate managers in Germany detailed the importance of technical skills in the context of being competent. As stated by Brodbeck and Frese (2007) technical competency is a key characteristic of German leadership. This finding could be a further indicator for a change in the content of individuals' cognitive leadership schemas, and hence, for the flexibility of implicit leadership theories.

The themes of transparency and taking risks were specifically addressed by the German manager samples, regardless of their current country of work. As discussed above, the greater willingness of the German managers to take risks can be explained by the GLOBE scores along the cultural dimension of ‘uncertainty avoidance’ for Germany (high societal practice scores versus low societal value scores). The preference for transparency across the German manager samples might to some extent be explained by the general preference for task-oriented and straightforward leadership behaviour (Brodbeck and Frese, 2007), and explicit communication in Germany (Pateau, 1999). It would appear that explicit communication addresses the need for transparency.

To summarise, the interview findings of the manager samples suggest that there exist differences between the French and the German manager samples regardless of their current country of work. While for the French expatriate manager sample some changes in the content of their cognitive leadership schemas towards more German attributes were found, no changes towards more French attributes were found among the German expatriate sample. The reasons for the changes in the content of the French expatriate manager networks can only be explained in a limited way. As can be seen from the descriptive statistics, for example, the French expatriates had spent on average five years or less in Germany, whereas the German expatriates had spent on average about eight years in France. Thus, the length of their foreign assignment cannot be used as an explanation. It can only be assumed – and this was stated by some of the French interviewees – that it was easier for a French individual to adapt to German approaches to leadership than vice versa, because German leadership was more transparent, structured, and explicit, and, hence, easier to understand and to adapt to.

Thus, the third proposition is supported only partially: in the present study, the cognitive leadership schemas were more similar between the German managers regardless of their current country of work than between the German expatriate managers in France and the French managers in France.

8.5 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

There is no research that does not have its limitations. In the present study, limitations can be found regarding the sample size of the individual sample groups, the composition of the sample, and the possible bias which might arise from using only one interviewer who carried out all interviews across all of the French and German respondents. Further limitations will be discussed in the context of the generalisability of the study, particularly regarding the fact that the data was collected at only one point in time, and in the context of the link between the structure and the content of French and German leadership schemas. Directions for future research will be presented with a focus on the investigation of the leadership schemas of expatriate managers, and more precisely on longitudinal explorations of expatriate managers' implicit leadership theories.

8.5.1 The Sample Size

The overall sample size which consisted of 305 questionnaires and 76 interviews is not believed to be a limitation of this study. However, when dividing the total number of questionnaires and interviews into the single sample groups, the sample size of particular sample groups might be considered as a limitation. The smallest sample groups were those of the employees working with an expatriate superior. Only 25 questionnaires for French employees working for German companies in France, and

only 11 questionnaires for German employees working for French companies in Germany were collected. The number of interviews was particularly low for the French managers (6) and French employees (5) working in French companies in France and again for the German employees (5) working for French companies in Germany. As discussed in the methodology chapter, it was quite difficult to gain access to companies in general, and to French companies in France and in Germany in particular.

As a possible result of low sample sizes among employees, the comparison of the leadership networks of the employees of the same nationality, but with either domestic or expatriate managers as superiors (cf. section 6.3.6), did not produce meaningful results. This might be interpreted as a sign that the employees' leadership networks remain rather stable despite a context change consisting in a superior of a different nationality (Epitropaki and Martin, 2004). It could also be interpreted as an issue related to the small data set of the employee samples which had an expatriate manager as direct superior. The focus of this study, however, was on general perceptions of leadership across two cultures, and not primarily on these employees with an expatriate superior, hence this limitation is considered as a minor limitation.

Notwithstanding this potential minor limitation, the findings suggest a fair degree of consistency between respondents, as was, for example, shown by the comparisons of the aggregated leadership networks of the French and the German respondents.

8.5.2 The Diverse Composition of the Sample

The present study might be also limited by the diverse composition of the sample including respondents coming from a wide variety of different industry sectors, and from companies of different sizes. As described in the methodology chapter, it was

initially planned to exclusively collect data from the finance and the automotive sectors in order to guarantee a high degree of comparability of the French and the German data sets. Due to the start of the financial crisis in 2008, and linked to that the difficulties which occurred in the both sectors, it was difficult to gain access to them. According to the GLOBE study, though, organisational cultures are characterised by the societal culture in which they are embedded and no significant differences were found between the three industry sectors which were explored by GLOBE researchers (House et al., 2004). In addition, the focus in the present study was on participants' views regarding effective leadership in general. This generic focus was intended to capture views that exist across two societal contexts, regardless of the industry sector. Thus, the variety of industry sectors in the present study is not believed to be an important limitation.

Second, the respondents of this study worked in companies of different size. About two thirds of the French respondents and half of the German respondents worked in companies with 1,000 or more employees. A potential effect of the company size was not specifically tested as it was supposed that the cultural effect would be stronger as suggested by Zander and Romani (2004). Furthermore, if the single samples were divided into sub-samples according to their company size, the samples themselves would have been very small, and most likely too small to produce meaningful results. Hence, company size could be a limitation of the present study, but as the primary focus was on the aspect of societal culture, the research design was constructed for this particular purpose. Thus, if company size is believed to be a limitation, future research should consider its effects on perceptions of effective leadership.

8.5.3 The Interviewer Bias

Another limitation deals with interviewer bias. All of the interviews were carried out by one person, namely the author of this study who is a native German speaker, but who is fluent in French and who lived and worked for two years in France. Thus, the author is to some extent also familiar with French culture. Despite this knowledge about France, it is likely that there is a German perspective in the interpretation of the interviews. As investigated by this study, implicit theories change due to a change in social context, but individuals' implicit theories continue to remain close to the implicit theories of their culture of origin. The positive aspect of having all of the interviews administered by one single person is that they could be analysed in relation to each other. In order to avoid potential interviewer bias, the complete set of interviews should have ideally been administered by a second person, and results should have been compared between both interviewers. This was simply not possible as the necessary resources (i.e. second interviewer, time, and money) were not available. It is suggested that future research dealing with cross-cultural interviews, might take into consideration the aforementioned limitations.

8.5.4 The Generalisability of the Study

A further limitation might be related to the generalisability of the results regarding perceptions of effective leadership of the present study in general, and across other cultural contexts than the French and the German ones. However, the purpose of the study was to focus on general perceptions of leadership rather than individuals' experiences of, for example, their immediate manager or more senior leaders of their organisation. While general views on leadership will more than likely be influenced by personal experiences, the aim was to capture this general perspective, as opposed to

views based on either personal experiences or ‘matched’ experiences of managers and their employees. Thus, the approach of the present study, which involved respondents representing both managers and employees from a wide range of organisational contexts, leads to the generalisability of the findings at least within a French and German business context. It is, however, suggested that future research include other, and ideally more, societal cultures in order to test the generalisability of the findings regarding the structure and the content of cognitive leadership schemas as reported for the French-German business context of this study.

8.5.5 Linking the Structure and the Content of Leadership Schemas

Another limitation of this study can be related to the pre-selection of a set of ten particular leadership attributes in order to compute the cognitive leadership networks of the French and German expatriate and domestic managers and their employees. Based on the GLOBE findings, these attributes were believed to be regarded as positively contributing to effective leadership in France and in Germany.

However, as can be seen from Table 8.3, almost all of these ten attributes were also mentioned by the interviewees when discussing the content of effective leadership schemas. The GLOBE attributes ‘motivational’, ‘motive arouser’, and ‘team builder’ can be compared to the characteristics ‘motivation and encouragement of employees’ and ‘team development’ of the present study. The GLOBE attributes ‘confidence builder’ and ‘decisive’ can be compared to the themes of ‘confidence building’ and ‘decision making’ of the present study. The GLOBE attribute ‘dynamic’ can be found in ‘dynamic behaviour’ of the present study. The GLOBE attributes ‘informed’, and ‘intelligent’ can to some extent be linked to the themes of ‘information transfer’, and ‘being competent’ as discussed in the present study. Only the GLOBE attributes

'excellence oriented' and 'trustworthy' were not explicitly detailed by the interviewees of this study. Further GLOBE attributes which form part of the list of 22 universal positive leadership attributes and which were named by the interviewees in the present study were 'encouraging' and 'communicative'. This means the choice of these particular ten leadership attributes was to a high degree affirmed by the interviewees and, hence, signifies that the pre-selection of these and not other attributes for the calculation of the French and German cognitive leadership networks should not present a limitation.

While this aspect does not present a limitation with regard to this research study, it does raise some questions. These questions concern the fourth hypothesis which was supported by the findings of this study. The structure of the leadership schemas was found to be more similar between the respondents of the same nationality than between respondents of the same hierarchical level but of different nationality, which is in line with research by Zander and Romani (2004). The content of the leadership schemas, however, did not follow such a distinct pattern as the structure of the investigated leadership schemas. As suggested by Shaw (1990), the content of the leadership schemas was expected to be affected by national culture. The discussion in section 8.4.3, however, showed that only some evidence was found for this suggestion across the interviewees of this study. The same can be observed for the schema content differences across hierarchical levels. There is some evidence that the schema content is slightly different at the manager and the employee level, but no distinct and consistent pattern emerged. Hence, future cross-cultural research can explore approaches to how culture specific schema content could be investigated in order to produce more consistent results.

8.5.6 Longitudinal Exploration of Expatriates' ILTs

The present study researched perceptions of leadership at only one point in time and compared domestic and expatriate managers' leadership schemas in order to investigate possible changes of these schemas due to a change in the managers' societal context. While this approach allowed the researcher to explore and compare cognitive leadership schemas between domestic managers and expatriate managers, it might be also interesting to focus only on expatriates' ILTs from a longitudinal perspective in order to investigate how, and at what pace, their structure and content change. Such an approach is suggested in order to further contribute to the discussion about the flexibility of ILT structures. Moreover, it is believed that such a longitudinal exploration would provide answers to the question of how long it would take for expatriate managers to feel adapted to their new context. This could be then used, first, as an indicator for companies to plan the optimal length of the stay abroad of expatriate managers. Second, in relation to the period that expatriate managers stay abroad, decisions about what kind of training and development would be necessary to reintegrate them into their culture of origin could be determined.

In addition, it would also be interesting to focus on factors which might positively influence a potential change of expatriate managers' ILTs. Measuring expatriate ILTs before and after training sessions could be an approach to measure the success or failure of specific training programmes and would contribute in the long-term to an efficient adoption of development interventions for expatriates.

8.5.7 Investigation of Expatriates' ILTs

As suggested in the previous section, an interesting avenue for future research might be the investigation of expatriates' implicit leadership theories. In this study, one

result of the comparison of the leadership networks of the expatriate managers in France and in Germany (cf. section 6.3.5) showed that a specific branch of both of the sample groups' leadership networks formed an A-shape between the leadership attributes of 'team builder', 'informed', 'intelligent', 'confidence builder', and 'trustworthy'. This raises the question of whether this could be an indicator that specific leadership attributes are of particular relevance for expatriate managers in general, regardless of nationality and regardless of the country in which an expatriate manager is working and living. This could also contribute to the discussion of what constitutes global leadership. Further research should, therefore, consider this possibility across a wider range of cultural contexts.

Interestingly, three out of these five attributes form part of the team-oriented leadership scale as discussed in the GLOBE study (cf. House et al., 2004). These attributes are 'team builder', 'informed', and 'intelligent'. Furthermore, these attributes were the only attributes belonging to the team-oriented scale out of the set of ten attributes used to calculate the leadership networks of the present study. This could be an indicator that in an expatriate context, particular team-oriented attributes might be believed to be important characteristics of effective leadership. Future research might consider investigating this possibility further.

Another aspect which might be followed up in future research concerns the attribute 'confidence building', which was specifically highlighted by both of the expatriate manager samples in the context of the discussion of the leadership schema content. The attribute 'confidence building' was not mentioned by the domestic manager samples. It might be possible that in a French and German expatriate context it is particularly important to show confidence in employees. Hence, the exploration of

the role of ‘confidence building’ could be a further topic for the future exploration of expatriate managers’ implicit leadership theories.

8.6 Implications for Practice

From the discussion of the findings above several implications for practice emerge. These include some general implications which address the question about whether societal cultures are converging or diverging due to the ongoing process of globalisation. Further implications concern expatriation and a number of specific implications for individuals and organisations that experience French-German co-operation in a business context.

8.6.1 General Implications

As was shown by the present study, differences between the French and German societal cultures exist and persist, and despite ongoing globalisation and intensive economic exchange between French and German business people, there remain differences in their approaches to leadership. It is very likely that due to early cultural conditioning at school and university level, the awareness of the ‘otherness’ of the respective other culture is higher, but individuals’ implicit leadership theories continue to be affected by their culture of origin. As this seems to be the case based on these research findings, a general practical implication would be to educate and train those people who operate in a culturally diverse environment about the influence of culture on implicit leadership theories. This means that employees who interact with societal cultures other than their own would be recommended to learn about and to be aware of the ILTs of their foreign business partners in order to avoid conflicts based on differences between their own ILTs and those of their foreign counterpart. One such

approach to training in order to raise awareness of ILTs is discussed by Schyns et al. (2011). They suggest a drawing exercise to externalise implicit leadership theories. This consists of individuals developing thoughts about the characteristics of leaders, which are then discussed in groups and finally presented in front of all groups. According to Schyns et al. (2011), such an approach would have two learning effects: first, participants in this exercise would learn about their own perspective on leaders and leadership which would raise their self-awareness of their own ILTs, and second, they would learn about the individual and social components of these ILTs which might be in some ways similar and in other ways different from those of other participants.

Furthermore, the present study showed that differences in ILTs exist between managers and employees, even when their cultural background is similar. Knowing about these differences, however, could contribute to an even better understanding and co-operation between managers and employees as suggested by Lord and Maher (1991). They found that leadership was most effective when leaders and followers shared similar perceptions of effective leadership. Thus, followers were more motivated to follow their leader when their perspectives and expectations about effective leadership matched with their leader's actual leadership behaviour (Lord and Maher, 1991). In the present study, for example, themes such as the transfer of information and representing the team were primarily emphasised by employees to be important characteristics of an effective leader. The employees also emphasised that an effective leader can be motivating by providing them with development opportunities. The advantage for a leader of knowing about this content of the employees' ILTs would be that they could include these characteristics in their leadership behaviour and thus, contribute to a better match between the leadership perceptions of leader and followers in order to contribute to greater employee motivation. The advantage of knowing about

managers' and employees' ILTs can also help general managers or human resource managers, for example, in the context of re-structuring departments, to match managers and employees in new dyads or teams according to their ILTs (Felfe and Schyns, 2010).

To conclude, knowing about the concept of ILTs can be of general advantage for the management of employees, and, therefore, the concept of education and development initiatives to raise awareness of ILTs could be applied across employee development interventions.

8.6.2 Implications for Expatriation

Practical implications for expatriation which derive from this study concern first, the preparation of future expatriate leaders prior to their departure, second, the adjustment during their foreign assignment, and third, the repatriation to their domestic country. As previous research has shown, the preparation and training of future expatriate leaders is associated with adjustment (Black and Mendenhall, 1990; McDonnell et al., 2010; Scullion and Collings, 2011), hence the focus of practical implications for expatriation is on the training aspect.

As was shown in this study, implicit leadership theories are culturally influenced. This means that in preparation for a foreign assignment, managers could be trained regarding this aspect. As described in the previous section about general implications, it would make sense to make managers aware of their ILTs and the potentially different ILTs of the host workforce. Such training would ideally bring together managers of the domestic culture and the host culture so that possible differences between the two cultures can be externalised and discussed using, for example, a drawing exercise such as that described by Schyns et al. (2011).

Once managers have started their foreign assignment, they can refresh prior learning about the concept of ILTs in a workshop with participants of the domestic and the host culture. The purpose of such a workshop would be twofold: first, the awareness of potentially different ILTs would be raised or refreshed, which in turn could possibly help explain any conflicts that occur between employees of the host and the domestic culture, which might be based on cultural differences. Second, the extent to which expatriate managers adjusted to the host culture could be evaluated. Depending on the degree of adjustment and the training opportunities, specific training could be offered to those managers who seem to be less well adapted. Such an intervention would optimise cultural fit, while still enabling features of the other culture to promote high performance, and could help avoid the premature return of expatriate managers. Overall, this would avoid high costs related to expatriate failure and hence, contribute to the organisation's performance.

The concept of ILTs could be also of practical use when it comes to the repatriation of expatriate managers to their domestic culture. Felfe and Schyns (2010) explain that ILTs could be used to match managers and employees to new dyads or teams in, for example, restructuration processes. The same could be done for managers who return from a foreign assignment and for whom a suitable position in the domestic culture needs to be found. Matching the ILTs of the employees with the ILTs of returning expatriate managers could help find an appropriate position within the company for them.

In conclusion, training and development initiatives to raise the awareness of the concept of ILTs in the context of expatriation – be it pre, during, or post expatriation – could be of use to prepare managers for their foreign assignment, to help them to adjust

while in the host culture, and to help returning expatriate managers to re-adjust to their domestic culture.

8.6.3 Potential Areas of Conflict in French-German Co-Operation

As was detailed above, besides a list of similarities which emerged from the investigation of the content of the cognitive leadership schemas of French and German expatriate and home managers and their employees, some differences were apparent between the French and German respondents. These should be considered when discussing implications for practice, specifically implications for individuals who are involved in French and German co-operation in a business context. Both societies under investigation would appear to value charismatic and team-oriented leadership styles, but the German approach to these styles appears to have a more participative angle than the French approach. The purpose of such a participative approach in Germany is to presumably enable employees to work as autonomously as possible. In a mixed French-German business context, this could lead to potential conflict situations. For example, on the one hand, French employees would expect their German superior to provide precise direction, but the latter in contrast would expect employees to participate in the decision in which direction to go. On the other hand, this could also lead to conflicts when German employees who expect a high degree of autonomy are supervised by French expatriate managers who are more rigorous in their way of monitoring. This more rigorous 'French behaviour' in contrast to the more participative 'German behaviour' can also affect performance appraisal. For example, German expatriate managers in France who display more participative behaviour would expect their French employees to benefit from this greater extent of autonomy. If this is not the case, consequently the performance evaluations of French employees by German

expatriate managers might not be as favourable as might be expected by the employees. On the other hand, this could be also the case for French expatriate managers in their German host environment.

Further characteristics which were believed to be important for effective leadership and which were primarily emphasised by the French respondents concerned the ability to listen and to act as a role model. Hence, in a mixed French-German business context the 'French expectation' to show such behaviour could be infringed upon by Germans who might behave differently. At the same time, in a mixed French-German business context the 'German expectation' of transparent behaviour could be compromised by French people who do not know about the importance of such behaviour among Germans. This latter theme was specifically highlighted across the samples of the German managers.

Thus, despite numerous similarities between French and German managers and employees, some differences persist which could contribute to conflict situations between both cultures in a business context. Again, the idea of applying the concept of implicit leadership theories in employee development programmes could be an approach to sharpen the awareness of differences in leadership behaviour which might derive from societal cultural differences.

8.7 Summary of the Discussion

This chapter presented four themes which occurred in the context of the present study. First, the results of the analysis of the structure of effective leadership schemas were discussed and compared to prior literature. All of the hypothesised assumptions were supported: this means, the structure of the leadership schemas was found to be affected by societal culture; societal culture was found to have a stronger impact on

individuals' leadership schemas than individuals' hierarchical level; leadership schemas were found to change due to a change in social context, but only to some extent; and individuals' inherent culture of origin was found to have a stronger influence on individuals' leadership schemas than the societal culture of the country where respondents were currently living and working. Second, the role of the leadership attribute 'motive arouser' was discussed and its connections to other attributes in the leadership networks of the different sample groups were compared to the GLOBE findings for France and Germany. The similarity of the findings might be considered as an indicator that the GLOBE findings remained quite stable over the last ten years. Third, the content of the cognitive leadership schemas of the French and German expatriate and domestic managers and their employees was discussed and compared to charismatic leadership (Conger and Kanungo, 1994, 1998; Shamir et al., 1998), and to the GLOBE leadership scales of charismatic/value-based, team-oriented and participative leadership. The first proposition was not supported.

The second proposition was not as directly supported as expected. Differences between the manager and the employee samples were not found to be as distinct as proposed. The third proposition was only supported for the German sample: the content of the cognitive leadership schemas was more similar between the German managers in Germany and the German expatriate managers in France, than between the German expatriate managers in France and the French managers in France. The content of the cognitive leadership schemas of the French expatriate managers in Germany, however, showed some adaptation to German perceptions of effective leadership.

Next, limitations including the sample size, the composition of the sample, the potential bias of only using one interviewer for the complete study, the generalisability of the study, and the lack of a longitudinal exploration of expatriate managers' ILTs

were presented. Future research was suggested to address the aforementioned limitations and to explore expatriate implicit leadership theories in greater detail and to develop more and different approaches to link the analysis of the structure and the content of respondents' ILTs. General and specific implications for practice were discussed including the suggestions to incorporate the concept of implicit leadership theories into employee development interventions, as well as into expatriate training – be it pre, during, or post expatriation – and to be aware of persisting differences between French and German approaches to leadership.

CHAPTER IX

CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

This study investigated the perceptions of leadership across cultures and contributed to the understanding of the relationship between leadership and societal culture, and therefore, to the general debate about the convergence and divergence of cultures. More precisely, it analysed the structure of cognitive leadership networks by applying a connectionist perspective, and explored the content of implicit leadership theories of French and German managers and their employees in both their domestic and host environments. This approach was adopted in order to explore the application of connectionist models to cross-cultural leadership research and, thus, to contribute to the theoretical discussion of implicit leadership theories within the area of cognitive science leadership research. The purpose of the focus on France and Germany was to provide new and more recent insights into what is known about the perception of leadership in these two countries. Hence, the results of the present study are of practical use for all those who are working in a culturally diverse work environment. The application of mixed methods and its focus on leaders and followers attempt to address several major gaps in the context of leadership research, and, therefore, can be understood as an extension of the prior research in this field. This chapter will present the key conclusions of the present study and complete the thesis.

9.2 Key Conclusions

A major driver of the increased interest in cross-cultural leadership research is the phenomenon of globalisation (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009), which has

given rise to the development of increasingly culturally diverse workforces. One of the challenges for managers arising from this development is the need to effectively lead such a mixed workforce coming from different cultural backgrounds (Tung, 1987). This has led to numerous research studies addressing topics such as comparative leadership (e.g. Fu et al., 2004; Smith, Peterson and Schwartz, 2002), global leadership (e.g. Mendenhall, 2001; Van Dyne and Ang, 2006), and cross-cultural leadership (e.g. Gelfand, Erez and Aycan, 2007).

Research has shown that societal culture is indeed an influencing factor of the leadership preferences of individuals, and of the ways in which individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds perceive leaders and leadership (e.g. House et al., 2004). One potential approach to explain these differences in perceptions of leadership across cultures involves implicit leadership theories (ILTs), which help individuals to make sense of leaders and leadership situations (Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck, 2004). These ILTs are internalised at an early stage in life (Keller, 1999, 2003; Popper and Amit, 2009), and remain quite stable over time even if the social context of an individual changes (Epitropaki and Martin, 2004). Although differences in ILTs exist between individuals (Felfe, 2004), societal cultural differences in ILTs are, however, even stronger than intra-individual differences (House et al., 2002). House et al. (2004), for example, demonstrated that culture, which reflects a socially shared aspect, influences implicit leadership theories, and, hence, called them culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories (CLT).

The purpose of the present study was to explore implicit leadership theories across the cultural contexts of France and Germany by applying connectionist theory. This approach was aimed to test the usefulness of the application of connectionist theory in investigating perceptions of leadership across cultures. Further focus was on

the hierarchical levels of managers and employees in order to attempt to overcome the criticism of leadership research as being too leader-centric (e.g. Avolio et al., 2003; Day, 2000), and in order to explore potential differences in perceptions of leadership resulting from different hierarchical perspectives. According to Lord and Maher (1991) leadership is most effective when leaders and followers have similar perceptions of effective leadership. They found that followers are more motivated to follow when their expectations about leaders and leadership correspond to their leader's actual leadership behaviour (Lord and Maher, 1991). The exploration of the managers' and employees' perceptions of effective leadership was expected to contribute to the understanding of particular requirements for effective leadership at different hierarchical levels, in addition to the understanding of cultural differences. Furthermore, the present study took the criticism of cross-cultural leadership being mainly quantitative (Alvesson and Sveningsson, 2003) into consideration and opted for a mixed methods approach in order to explore both the structure and the content of cognitive leadership schemas.

The key conclusions which can be drawn from the present study are:

- (i) Differences between the French and the German perceptions of leadership in a business context persist despite ongoing globalisation.
- (ii) Connectionist models represent a meaningful instrument to explore the structure of implicit leadership theories cross-culturally.
- (iii) Implicit leadership theories are flexible knowledge structures, but remain quite stable despite changes in social contextual aspects (as was also shown by Epitropaki and Martin, 2004; Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001; Lord et al., 2001).
- (iv) Implicit leadership theories are culturally influenced which supports the finding of the GLOBE study of culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories.

- (v) Societal culture has a stronger impact on the structure and the content of implicit leadership theories than the hierarchical level of employees.

These conclusions will be detailed in the following sections.

9.2.1 Conclusion 1: Differences between the French and the German Perceptions of Leadership in a Business Context Persist

This study analysed the perceptions of leadership across two societal cultural contexts, namely France and Germany. It showed that similarities exist between both cultures, but that also differences remain. To investigate similarities and differences, the present study explored the structure and the content of cognitive leadership schemas of French and German expatriate and domestic managers and their employees. The analysis of the structure of the cognitive leadership schemas was accomplished through Schvaneveldt's Pathfinder software and resulted in different network structures for the French and the German respondents, regardless of their hierarchical level, and regardless of the country where they lived and worked. The analysis of the graphical representation of the network structures showed that the leadership attribute of 'motive arouser' – defined by the GLOBE study as 'mobilises and activates followers' – played a central role in both the French and the German respondents' leadership networks. Hence, the investigation of the leadership network structures provided evidence for both similarities and differences between the French and the German respondents of this study.

The analysis of the structure of the cognitive leadership schemas showed more distinct results as was shown by the analysis of the content of the cognitive leadership schemas. However, similarities across the French and the German respondents were found for charismatic, transformational, team-oriented, and participative leadership.

While the French respondents put slightly more emphasis on features of charismatic behaviour such as the ability of a leader to act as a role model, and the ability to listen, the German respondents underlined the importance for a leader to monitor goals in such a way that employees can work more autonomously, which can be considered as a more participative approach to leadership. Across all of the respondents, regardless of their nationality, their hierarchical level, and their current country of work, similarities found concerned leadership attributes such as, for example, the motivation and encouragement of employees, the setting of appropriate working structures, team development, the setting of goals, and communication. Differences were found in the approaches to charismatic, transformational, and participative leadership, as well as in the composition of the content of the leadership schemas of individual sample groups. For example, the French managers in France and the German managers in Germany agreed on the importance of learning about their employees' potential in order to motivate and encourage them. The French managers in Germany emphasised the importance of providing employees with feedback, and the German managers in Germany underlined the need to motivate employees by affording them with more autonomy. The German employees highlighted that a leader can be motivating by providing them with future career and development opportunities. The approach to goal monitoring appeared to be more rigorous in France than in Germany. While the German managers and employees, as well as the French managers in Germany, discussed a rather structured approach to goal monitoring, intended to enable employees to work more autonomously, the French managers in France mentioned constant control of tasks, and the French employees suggested that an effective leader should give instructions and needed to determine the code of conduct for goal achievement.

Leadership attributes which were primarily highlighted by the French respondents concerned the ability to articulate a vision, the ability of a leader to act as a role model, the ability to listen, and to be competent. The German respondents underlined the importance for an effective leader to take risks, to display social skills, to keep track of the 'big picture', and to show transparent behaviour.

From these findings, and despite the list of similarities, it can be concluded that differences between the French and the German perceptions of leadership in a business context still persist as was also found in prior research (e.g. Pateau, 1999; Reber et al., 2000). It is, therefore, recommended that these differences be taken into account when French and German people interact in a culturally mixed business context.

9.2.2 Conclusion 2: Connectionist Models Represent a Meaningful Instrument to Explore the Structure of ILTs Cross-Culturally

The application of connectionist theory in order to investigate ILTs cross-culturally represents a rather innovative procedure in the field of cognitive science leadership research. Prior research which adopted such an approach includes, for example, studies carried out by Hanges and his colleagues (e.g. Hanges et al., 2001) who tested the application of connectionist theory to explore ILTs across student samples of different cultural backgrounds. They found support for Shaw's (1990) original hypothesis which posited the influence of societal culture on the structure of cognitive leadership schemas.

The results of the present study, which was carried out in a business context, also support this hypothesis. It also found support for additional hypotheses based on characteristics which were identified by prior research to depict ILTs. These characteristics concern the description of ILTs as flexible and fluid knowledge

structures (e.g. Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001; Lord et al., 2001), which remain quite stable even if the social context changes (e.g. Epitropaki and Martin, 2004; Foti, Knee and Backert, 2008). Hence, this study provides further evidence for the usefulness of the use of connectionist theory to explore implicit leadership theories in a cross-cultural context. This means that connectionist models are able to map the characteristics of ILTs and produce meaningful research results. Therefore, they can be used as an instrument to investigate the structure of ILTs across cultures.

A further contribution of this study is that it moves away from using student samples to using a professional sample. Nevertheless, both student and work-based samples showed differences in the structure of the leadership schemas according to the cultural background of the corresponding respondents. This can be explained by the results of prior research which identified that ILTs are internalised at an early stage in life (Keller, 1999, 2003; Popper and Amit, 2009), and remain rather stable over time (Epitropaki and Martin, 2004). Hence, the use of both student and professional samples might be appropriate to explore ILTs.

9.2.3 Conclusion 3: ILTs are Flexible Knowledge Structures, but Remain quite Stable despite Changes in Social Contextual Aspects

The present study added to the knowledge about the characteristics of ILTs (e.g. Epitropaki and Martin, 2004; Foti, Knee and Backert, 2008) and found that ILTs represent flexible knowledge structures, which remain rather stable over time even if the social context changes. This study investigated, for example, the structure of the cognitive leadership networks of French and German managers and compared these to the cognitive leadership networks of their expatriate counterparts working in the respective other country. It found support for the hypothesis proclaiming that if the

content was held constant, the structure of the leadership schemas would differ between French managers working for French organisations in France and French expatriate managers working for French organisations in Germany. Differing leadership networks were also found when comparing the cognitive leadership networks of the German managers in Germany to their German counterparts in France. This means that ILTs are flexible knowledge structures and change due to the change in a societal cultural change (i.e. change from French to German or from German to French work environment) which is in line with the research by Lord and his colleagues (e.g. Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001; Lord et al., 2001).

The present study, however, found that the leadership networks were more similar between the managers of the same nationality who lived and worked in different countries than between the managers of different nationality, but who lived and worked in the same country. This suggests that even if change occurs in the cognitive leadership structures, which could be also described as an adaptation or adjustment to the local work environment, they remain rather stable and keep most of their initial structure, as was also suggested by Epitropaki and Martin (2004).

9.2.4 Conclusion 4: Implicit Leadership Theories are Culturally Influenced

Both the analyses of the structure and the content of the cognitive leadership schemas of the respondents in the present study showed that these were culturally influenced. This is in line with the GLOBE finding that implicit leadership theories are culturally endorsed (House et al., 2004), and with the assumption by Shaw (1990) that culture impacts on the structure and the content of leadership schemas. More precisely, the different levels of comparisons of the structure of respondents' cognitive leadership

networks revealed differences between the structures which could be explained by the societal cultural background of respondents. For example, the comparison of the structure of the aggregated leadership networks of the French and German domestic managers with the structure of the aggregated leadership networks of the French and German expatriate managers showed that the societal culture of origin had a stronger impact on the structure than the current societal context in which the respondents were located.

The analysis of the content of the cognitive leadership schemas showed that French respondents placed slightly stronger emphasis on characteristics of charismatic leadership, while the German respondents highlighted a more participative approach to leadership. However, respondents from both nationalities discussed the importance for an effective leader to display charismatic, team-oriented and participative behaviours in general. Even if the first research proposition was not as distinctly supported as expected, the findings would suggest that the composition of the content of respondents' leadership schemas was influenced by their societal cultural background. Specifically, the finding for a preference for participative leadership in Germany is in line with prior research about cross-cultural leadership suggesting that effective leadership in Germany consists of, for example, enabling employees to work more autonomously (e.g. Pateau, 1999; Szabo et al., 2002).

Hence, the concept of implicit leadership theories represents a further approach to compare and investigate idiosyncrasies of leadership in different societal cultures. Besides this rather theoretical aspect, ILTs can also be of practical use. The advantage of knowing about this societal cultural influence on ILTs is believed to help domestic and expatriate managers as well as employees to better understand different leadership behaviour and situations.

9.2.5 Conclusion 5: Societal Culture has a Stronger Impact on the Structure and the Content of Implicit Leadership Theories than the Hierarchical Level of Employees

The present study found that individuals' societal culture has a stronger impact on implicit leadership theories than does the hierarchical level of employees. That societal culture has a determinant impact on ILTs in comparison to other variables was also found by previous research (e.g. Zander and Romani, 2004). Hence, the present study provides further knowledge to what is known about influencing factors on ILTs.

The approach taken in this study to investigate cognitive leadership schemas from both an inter-hierarchical and a cross-cultural perspective was based on research by Lord and Maher (1991). These researchers suggested that leadership is most effective when leaders and followers have similar perceptions of effective leadership. This means that the closer the actual behaviour of a leader corresponds to their followers' perceptions of leadership, the more effective this leader will be.

Regarding the structure of the cognitive leadership networks, the findings showed that the leadership networks of the French managers in France were more similar to the leadership networks of the French employees in France, compared to the leadership networks of the German managers in Germany. The same was found for the German respondents: the leadership networks of the German employees in Germany were more similar to the leadership networks of the German managers in Germany, than to the French employees in France. This signifies that the impact of the societal culture of respondents was stronger than the impact of respondents' hierarchical level.

The results from the analysis of the content of the cognitive leadership schemas were not as clear cut, but also led to the conclusion that the societal culture is more

important in influencing leadership schemas than the hierarchical level. This is due to the second proposition which suggested that the content of managers' cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily composed of innovative, visionary, long-term oriented, diplomatic and courageous leadership attributes, whereas the employees' cognitive leadership schemas will be primarily composed of more social and participative attributes such as team building and concern for subordinates' interests. This proposition was mainly based on a study carried out in a single country (the Netherlands) (Den Hartog et al., 1999), and was not exactly supported as expected by the results of the empirical research of this thesis. This in turn would suggest that Den Hartog et al.'s (1999) findings for differences between hierarchical levels in the Netherlands might not necessarily be transferrable to other cultural contexts, and rather represent a culturally influenced finding for Dutch individuals. Finally, this would appear to indicate that the perceptions of leadership are culturally influenced at different hierarchical levels, which means that the societal culture of an individual has a stronger impact on the content of leadership schemas than the individual's hierarchical level.

Hence, future researchers investigating implicit leadership theories would be well advised to take into account the strong impact of individuals' cultural background, when discussing influencing variables other than societal culture.

9.3 Overall Conclusions

This thesis, adopting a mixed methods approach, represented the first study to investigate simultaneously perceptions of leadership from both the manager and employee, from a cross-cultural (France vs. Germany), and from a domestic versus expatriate perspective. Hence, it attempted to counter the criticism of leadership

research being too leader-focused, and endeavoured to explore cross-cultural leadership from a more open, questioning, and qualitative approach as suggested by Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003) and Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber (2009).

The specific research setting of the study allowed for the testing of several hypotheses and propositions. These were designed in order to explore the potential societal cultural influence on the structure and the content of cognitive leadership schemas. While all of the hypotheses were supported, the propositions were only partially supported. Nevertheless, this study makes an important contribution to cross-cultural leadership research from a theoretical and a practical perspective. First, it provides empirical evidence for the meaningful application of connectionist theory to explore the structure of implicit leadership theories in a cross-cultural business context. Second, it supports the finding of prior research that implicit leadership theories are culturally influenced. Third, the results of the analyses of the structure and the content of the cognitive leadership schemas are of practical use for all those who are involved in particular in a mixed French and German business context, and in general in a diverse work environment. Hence, the study demonstrates that implicit leadership theories represent a valuable approach to explaining similarities and differences between societal cultures, and contributes to the theoretical development as well as the practical understanding of leadership across cultures.

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APPENDIX A

Table A.9.1: The GLOBE CLT Scales

The six second-order culturally endorsed leadership scales (GLOBE CLT scales)	
The 21 GLOBE leadership scales	
Item	Definition
1. Charismatic/value-based leadership	
Charismatic 1: Visionary	
Inspirational	Inspires emotions, beliefs, values, and behaviours of others, inspires others to be motivated to work hard
Anticipatory	Anticipates, attempts to forecast events, considers what will happen in the future
Prepared	Is ready for future events
Intellectually stimulating	Encourages others to think and use their minds; challenges and beliefs, stereotypes and attitudes of others
Foresight	Anticipates possible future events
Plans ahead	Anticipates and prepares in advance
Able to anticipate	Able to successfully anticipate future needs
Visionary	Has a vision and imagination of the future
Future-oriented	Makes plans and takes actions based on future goals
Charismatic 2: Inspirational	
Positive	Generally optimistic and confident
Encouraging	Gives courage, confidence or hope through reassuring and advising
Morale booster	Increases morale of subordinates by offering encouragement, praise, and/or by being confident
Enthusiastic	Demonstrates and imparts strong positive emotions for work
Motive arouser	Mobilizes and activates followers
Confidence builder	Instils others with confidence by showing confidence in them
Dynamic	Highly involved, energetic, enthused, motivated
Motivational	Stimulates others to put forth efforts above and beyond the call of duty and make personal sacrifices
Charismatic 3: Self-Sacrifice	
Risk taker	Willing to invest major resources in endeavours that do not have high probability of success
Convincing	Unusually able to persuade others of his/her viewpoint
Self-sacrificial	Foregoes self-interests and makes personal sacrifices in the interest of a goal or vision
Integrity	
Sincere	Means what he/she says; earnest
Trustworthy	Deserves trust, can be believed and relied upon to keep his/her word
Just	Acts according to what is right or fair
Honest	Speaks and acts truthfully

Table A.1 continued

1. Charismatic/value-based leadership – continued	
Decisive	
Decisive	Makes decisions firmly and quickly
Logical	Applies logic when thinking
Intuitive	Has extra insight
Willful	Strong-willed, determined, resolute, persistent
Performance-oriented	
Improvement-oriented	Seeks continuous performance improvement
Excellence-oriented	Strives for excellence in performance of self and subordinates
Performance oriented	Sets high standards of performance
2. Team-oriented	
Team 1: Collaborative team orientation	
Mediator	Intervenes to solve conflicts between individuals
Loyal	Stays with and supports friends even when they have substantial problems or difficulties
Collaborative	Works jointly with others
Fraternal	Tends to be a good friend of subordinates
Consultative	Consults with others before making plans or taking action
Group-oriented	Concerned with the welfare of the group
Team 2: Team integrator	
Clear	Easily understood
Integrator	Integrates people or things into cohesive, working whole
Subdued	Suppressed, quiet, tame (rs) ¹
Informed	Knowledgeable; aware of information
Communicative	Communicates with others frequently
Coordinator	Integrates and manages work of subordinates
Team builder	Able to induce group members to work together
Diplomatic	
Diplomatic	Skilled at interpersonal relations, tactful
Worldly	Interested in temporal events; has a world outlook
Intra-group conflict avoider	Avoids disputes with members of his or her group
Win/win problem-solver	Able to identify solutions which satisfy individuals with diverse and conflicting interests
Effective bargainer	Is able to negotiate effectively, able to make transactions with others on favourable terms

¹ rs = reverse scored

Table A.1 continued

2. Team-oriented – continued	
Malevolent (rs)	
Intelligent (rs)	Smart, learns and understands easily
Irritable	Moody; easily agitated
Vindictive	Vengeful; seeks revenge when wronged
Egotistical	Conceited, convinced of own abilities
Non-cooperative	Unwilling to work jointly with others
Cynical	Tends to believe the worst about people and events
Dishonest	Fraudulent, insincere
Hostile	Actively unfriendly; acts negatively toward others
Dependable (rs)	Reliable
Administratively competent	
Administratively skilled	Able to plan, organise, coordinate and control work of large numbers (over 75) of individuals
Orderly	Is organised and methodological at work
Organised	Well organised, methodical, orderly
Good administrator	Has ability to manage complex office work and administrative systems
3. Self-protective leadership	
Self-centered	
Self-interested	Pursues own best interests
Asocial	Avoids people or groups; prefers own company
Loner	Works and acts separately from others
Non-participative	Does not participate with others
Status conscious	
Status-conscious	Aware of others' socially accepted status
Class conscious	Is conscious of class and status boundaries and acts accordingly
Conflict inducer	
Intra-group competitor	Tries to exceed the performance of others in his or her group
Secretive	Tends to conceal information from others
Normative	Behaves according to the norms of his or her group
Face-saver	
Evasive	Refrains from making negative comments to maintain good relationships and save face
Indirect	Does not go straight to the point; uses metaphors and examples to communicate
Avoids negatives	Avoids saying no to another when requested to do something, even when it cannot be done
Procedural	
Formal	Acts in accordance with rules, convention, and ceremonies
Cautious	Proceeds/performs with great care and does not take risks
Habitual	Given to a constant, regular routine
Procedural	Follows established rules and guidelines
Ritualistic	Uses a prescribed order to carry out procedures

Table A.1 continued

4. Participative	
Autocratic (rs)	
Bossy	Tells subordinates what to do in a commanding way
Autocratic	Make decisions in dictatorial way
Domineering	Inclined to dominate others
Elitist	Believes that a small number of people with similar backgrounds are superior and should enjoy privileges
Ruler	Is in charge and does not tolerate disagreement or questioning, gives orders
Dictatorial	Forces her/his values and opinions on others
Non-participative (rs)	
Individually oriented	Concerned with and places high value on preserving individual rather than group needs
Non-egalitarian	Believes that all individuals are not equal and only some should have equal rights and privileges
Micro-manager (item deleted)	An extremely close supervisor, one who insists on making all decisions
Non-delegator	Unwilling or unable to relinquish control of projects or tasks
5. Humane-oriented	
Modesty	
Calm	Not easily distressed
Modest	Does not boast; presents self in a humble manner
Self-effacing	Presents self in a modest way
Patient	Has and shows patience
Humane orientation	
Generous	Willing to give time, money, resources, and help to others
Compassionate	Has empathy for others; inclined to be helpful or show mercy
6. Autonomous	
Individualistic	Behaves in a different manner than peers
Independent	Does not rely on others; self-governing
Autonomous	Acts independently, does not rely on others
Unique	An unusual person; has characteristics of behaviours that are different from most others

Table A.9.2: GLOBE Leadership Attributes not Allocated to Scales

Non-allocated questionnaire items	
Item	Definition
Ruthless	Punitive; having no pity or compassion
Tender	Easily hurt or offended
Tyrannical	Acts like a tyrant or despot; imperious
Provocateur	Stimulates unrest
Arrogant	Presumptuous or overbearing
Risk averse	Avoids taking risks, dislikes risk
Egocentric	Self-absorbed; thoughts focus mostly on one's self
Non-explicit	Subtle, does not communicate explicitly, communicates by metaphor, et allegory, et example
Distant	Aloof, stands of from others, difficult to become friends with
Cunning	Sly, deceitful, full of guile
Sensitive	Aware of slight changes in other's moods; restricts discussion to prevent embarrassment
Intra-group face-saver	Ensures that other group members are not embarrassed or shamed
Ambitious	Sets high goals; works hard

APPENDIX B



Perceptions of Leadership across Cultures – Questionnaire (Manager version)

Reutlingen, 25th May 2009

Dear Sir or Madam,

As part of my PhD in Business Studies at Dublin City University, Ireland in cooperation with ESB Business School, Reutlingen University, Germany, I am conducting research which looks at the link between perceptions of leadership and national culture. The study is carried out with (expatriate) managers and their subordinates, in France and in Germany.

I would be most grateful if you participate in the research by completing the attached survey. It should take you no more than 20 minutes to complete. The survey does not require you to give any information that might identify you. Information compiled from the questionnaire will be reported in aggregate form and individuals will remain anonymous. All completed questionnaires will be stored under lock and key at my home. The information you provide will be treated in the strictest of confidence and will be referred to only in an anonymous form in any publication.

The study is being conducted by me in a personal capacity. You do not have to participate in the study if you do not wish to do so. Choosing to participate or not will not affect you in any way, however, I would ask you to bear in mind that my survey will not be statistically valid unless I get a sufficiently high response rate.

I would like to thank you for taking the time to read this letter. Regardless of whether you choose to participate or not, please let me know if you would like a summary of my survey findings by contacting me at: annegret.jennewein@reutlingen-university.de or annegret.jennewein2@mail.dcu.ie.

Yours faithfully,

Annegret Jennewein
DCU/ESB doctoral student

Introduction to the survey

This survey asks for your views about what makes leaders effective and should take no more than 20 minutes to complete. The value of my results depends on achieving a sufficient number of fully completed questionnaires, so please do your best to answer all the questions. I greatly appreciate your help. Thank you for taking the time to complete the survey.

Section 1

Leader Behaviour

Below are several behaviours and characteristics that can be used to describe leaders. Each behaviour or characteristic is accompanied by a short definition to clarify its meaning. Please use the following scale to rate how you feel each of these reflects behaviours and characteristics of an effective leader.

- 1 This behaviour or characteristic **greatly inhibits** a person from being an effective leader.
- 2 This behaviour or characteristic **somewhat inhibits** a person from being an effective leader.
- 3 This behaviour or characteristic **slightly inhibits** a person from being an effective leader.
- 4 This behaviour or characteristic **has no impact** on whether a person is an effective leader.
- 5 This behaviour or characteristic **contributes slightly** to a person being an effective leader.
- 6 This behaviour or characteristic **contributes somewhat** to a person being an effective leader.
- 7 This behaviour or characteristic **contributes greatly** to a person being an effective leader.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1-1. Administratively skilled Is able to plan, organize, coordinate and control work of large numbers (over 75) of individuals	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-2. Communicative Communicates with others frequently	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-3. Confidence builder Instills others with confidence by showing confidence in them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-4. Coordinator Integrates and manages work of subordinates	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-5. Decisive Makes decisions firmly and quickly	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-6. Dependable Is reliable	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1-7. Dynamic Is highly involved, energetic, enthused, motivated	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-8. Effective bargainer Is able to negotiate effectively, able to make transactions with others on favourable terms	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-9. Encouraging Gives courage, confidence or hope through reassuring and advising	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-10. Excellence oriented Strives for excellence in performance of self and subordinates	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-11. Foresight Anticipates possible future events	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-12. Honest Speaks and acts truthfully	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-13. Informed Is knowledgeable; aware of information	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-14. Intelligent Is smart, learns and understands easily	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-15. Just Acts according to what is right or fair	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-16. Motivational Stimulates others to put forth efforts above and beyond the call of duty and make personal sacrifices	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-17. Motive arouser Mobilizes and activates followers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-18. Plans Ahead Anticipates and prepares in advance	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-19. Positive Is generally optimistic and confident	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1-20. Team Builder Is able to induce group members to work together	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-21. Trustworthy Deserves trust, can be believed and relied upon to keep his/her word	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-22. Win/Win Problem Solver Is able to identify solutions which satisfy individuals with diverse and conflicting interests	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section 2	Relatedness of attributes
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Below you will find a list of attributes presented in pairs. Please indicate how related you think each attribute-pair is using a scale ranging from “not at all related” to “highly related”. There is no right or wrong answer. Just tick what first comes to mind.

	Not at all related	Slightly related	Un-decided	Quite related	Highly related
2-01. motive arouser – dynamic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-02. dynamic – trustworthy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-03. trustworthy – motivational	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-04. motivational – intelligent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-05. intelligent – excellence oriented	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-06. excellence oriented – decisive	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-07. decisive – motive arouser	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-08. team builder – dynamic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-09. informed – trustworthy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-10. confidence builder – motivational	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-11. motive arouser – trustworthy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-12. dynamic – motivational	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-13. trustworthy – intelligent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-14. motivational – excellence oriented	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-15. intelligent – decisive	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-16. excellence oriented – team builder	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-17. decisive – team builder	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Not at all related	Slightly related	Un-decided	Quite related	Highly related
2-18. team builder – motive arouser	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-19. informed – dynamic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-20. confidence builder – trustworthy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-21. motive arouser – motivational	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-22. dynamic – intelligent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-23. trustworthy – excellence oriented	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-24. motivational – decisive	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-25. intelligent – team builder	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-26. excellence oriented – informed	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-27. decisive – informed	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-28. team builder – confidence builder	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-29. informed – motive arouser	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-30. confidence builder – dynamic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-31. motive arouser – intelligent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-32. dynamic – excellence oriented	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-33. trustworthy – decisive	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-34. motivational – team builder	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-35. intelligent – informed	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-36. excellence oriented – confidence builder	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-37. decisive – confidence builder	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-38. team builder – informed	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-39. informed – confidence builder	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-40. confidence builder – motive arouser	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-41. motive arouser – excellence oriented	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-42. dynamic – decisive	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-43. trustworthy – team builder	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-44. motivational – informed	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2-45. intelligent – confidence builder	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

A. Questions about your personal background

- 3-1. How old are you? _____ years
- 3-2. What is your gender? Male Female
- 3-3. What is your nationality?

- 3-4. What country were you born in?

- 3-5. What country are you currently living and working in? France Germany
- 3-6. How long have you lived in the country where you currently live? _____ years _____ months
- 3-7. Besides your country of birth, how many other countries have you lived in for longer than one year? _____ countries (if 0, continue with questions of B below.)
- 3-8. Please list the countries that you have lived in:

- 3-9. In which of these countries have you worked?

B. Questions about your family background

- 3-10. What country was your mother born in?

- 3-11. What country was your father born in?

- 3-12. What language(s) were spoken in your home when you were a child?

C. Questions about your work background

- 3-13. How many years of full-time work experience have you had? _____ years _____ months
- 3-14. How many years have you been in a leadership position? _____ years _____ months
- 3-15. How long have you worked for your current employer? _____ years _____ months
- 3-16. Have you ever worked for other multinational corporations than your current one?
 Yes No
- 3-18. How many people work in the subunit of the organisation you lead? _____ people
- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>3-19. Please tick the hierarchical levels which exist in your company:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Top Management (board level)</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Senior Management</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Middle Management</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Front line Management</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Non-manager</p> | <p>3-20. Please tick the hierarchical level which best describes your job level:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Top Management (board level)</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Senior Management</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Middle Management</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Front line Management</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Non-manager</p> |
|--|---|

3-21. Please indicate the kind of work done primarily by the unit you manage:

- Administration
- Engineering, manufacturing or production
- Finance or accounting
- Human resource management or personnel management
- Marketing
- Planning
- Purchasing
- Research and development
- Sales
- Support services (e.g. plant and equipment maintenance)
- Other (please specify) _____

D. Questions about your educational background

3-22 Please tick which of the following qualifications you have? Please specify also the discipline.

- Apprenticeship, or its equivalent (discipline): _____
- Bachelor degree, or its equivalent (discipline): _____
- Master degree, or its equivalent (discipline): _____
- PhD, or its equivalent (discipline): _____
- Other, please specify (discipline): _____

E. Questions about your organisation

3-23. In which sector is your company located?

- Automotive sector
- Financial services sector
- Other, please specify _____

3-24. How large is your organisation?

- 1-9 employees
- 10-49 employees
- 50-249 employees
- 250-499 employees
- 500-999 employees
- 1,000 employees and more

3-25. What is your company's ownership?

- French owned
- German owned
- Other, please specify _____

3-26. What language(s) do you use at work?

Following on from the above I wish to carry out a number of interviews with German/ French (expatriate) managers and respectively with subordinates to discuss the aspects of this questionnaire in greater detail. All interviews will be carried out in German/ French.

Please indicate whether you would be willing to participate so that I can contact you to make an appointment that will best suit you. The interview will take no more than an hour of your time and will be arranged at your convenience. The information you provide will be treated in the strictest of confidence and will be referred to only in an anonymous form in any publication.

Yes, I am willing to participate

Name: _____

Email: _____

Contact telephone number: _____

No, I am unwilling to participate

This concludes the questionnaire. I truly appreciate your willingness to complete this questionnaire, and to assist in this research project. I will keep all your answers confidential.

Annegret Jennewein

annegret.jennewein@reutlingen-university.de

annegret.jennewein2@mail.dcu.ie

Mobile: +49 (0) 176 60 02 55 69

If you wish to share any additional comments please use the space below.

APPENDIX C

English version of the supervisors' cover letter which was sent to companies as an attachment of the contact emails.



Dr. Edel Conway
edel.conway@dcu.ie



Prof. Dr. Niamh O'Mahony
niamh.omahony@reutlingen-university.de

Reutlingen, 15th June 2009

Dear Sir/Madam,

Ms. Annegret Jennewein is a doctoral student of Business Studies of Dublin City University, Ireland and is being jointly supervised by us, Dr. Edel Conway of DCU and Prof. Dr. Niamh O'Mahony, ESB Business School, Reutlingen University, Germany. Her doctoral research looks at the link between perceptions of leadership and national culture among managers and their subordinates, in France and in Germany.

A statistical survey and personal interviews will form the core of her research. We would be most grateful if you could take some time out of your busy schedule to assist Ms. Jennewein in her research. Please be rest assured that all data provided by you will be treated in the strictest of confidence, will not be divulged to third parties, and will only be published in an anonymous and aggregated form.

Many thanks in anticipation of your assistance.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads 'Edel Conway'.

Dr. Edel Conway

A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads 'Niamh O'Mahony'.

Prof. Dr. Niamh O'Mahony

APPENDIX D

Cover letter which was sent as an attachment of the contact emails to all companies in the VIMA company network.



Hochschule Reutlingen • Alteburgstraße 150 • 72762 Reutlingen

Brief an alle V.I.M.A Mitglieder

Unterstützung unserer DCU/ESB-Doktorandin bei ihrer Studie

Sehr geehrte V.I.M.A-Mitglieder,

06.11.2009

Annegret Jennewein, die im gemeinsamen Doktorandenprogramm unserer irischen Partnerhochschule, Dublin City University, und bei uns an der ESB Business School promoviert, ist derzeit mit der Suche nach Teilnehmern für Ihre Stichprobe beschäftigt. Dabei möchte ich sie gerne unterstützen und Sie als Mitglied im Verein zur Förderung der internationalen Managementausbildung dazu ermuntern, gleiches zu tun. Somit können Sie zu einem wesentlichen Teil der Arbeit von Frau Jennewein beitragen, deren Einreichung Ende 2010 geplant ist.

Selbst 1 von 1

Prof. Dr. Ottmar Schneck
Dekan
ESB Business School Reutlingen

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dekan-esb@reutlingen-university.de

Die Förderung der Forschung unserer Doktoranden ist uns ein wichtiges Anliegen, insbesondere auch im Hinblick auf den weiteren Ausbau unserer Studienangebote im postgraduierten Bereich, durch den wir eine weitere gemeinsame Schnittstelle zwischen Theorie und Praxis schaffen möchten.

Für ihre Arbeit, die das Thema der Wahrnehmung von Führungsverhalten im kulturellen Vergleich behandelt, wünscht Frau Jennewein Zugang zu Führungskräften und Mitarbeitern, die in Unternehmen mit Hauptsitz in Deutschland tätig sind und gegebenenfalls auch über eine Tochtergesellschaft in Frankreich verfügen. Sollten Sie an der Studie und an einer Teilnahme interessiert sein, würde ich Sie bitten, sich direkt mit Frau Jennewein in Verbindung zu setzen.

Ich danke Ihnen herzlich im Voraus für Ihre Unterstützung.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen



Prof. Dr. Ottmar Schneck



Hochschule Reutlingen
Reutlingen University



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APPENDIX E

Table A.9.3: Interview Schedules for Employee Interviews

Section 1: Introduction (all employees)
<p>What is your job title and the title of the organisational function you are in? How long have you been employed in this role?</p> <p>Where were you employed previously?</p> <p>How many years have you been working with your current direct superior?</p>
Section 2: Leadership in general (all employees)
<p>How would you describe effective leadership in a business context? Give adjectives and/or attributes!</p> <p>Give examples of effective French/German leaders! What, in your opinion, makes them effective?</p>
Section 3: Leadership within your company (all employees)
<p>How would you define effective leadership within your company?</p> <p>Do you know of any leadership principles and/or policies which are promoted within your company?</p>
Section 7: Relationship between manager and subordinate (employees with domestic manager)
<p>How would you describe your superior's leadership style?</p> <p>Comparing the styles of the German superiors you have had in the past, are there elements in their leadership styles which are recurrent?</p> <p>Can you tell me how important decisions are made in your department?</p> <p>If you are consulted by your superior to what extent do you think your opinion is of importance to him/her?</p> <p>Regarding communication, can you tell me, e.g. (1) how your superior communicates important decisions? (2) what your superior's feedback policy is? Describe the way personal feedback is given!</p> <p>How useful is this feedback for you to develop within your department and your career?</p> <p>How does your superior delegate work?</p> <p>How do you communicate with your superior when you need his/ her advice or input?</p>

Table A.3 continued

Section 7: Relationship between manager and subordinate (employees with domestic manager)
<p>Do you have regular meetings within your department?</p> <p>For what reasons are there departmental meetings? How are these meetings organised? Describe a typical meeting-structure! Is there an agenda? What role does your superior play during these meetings! What does your superior do to promote good and effective relationships with you?</p> <p>Do you think that there is anything that your superior should do in addition to promote good and effective relationships with you?</p> <p>Do you feel that your current superior corresponds to your perception of what is an effective leader? If yes, why? If not, why not?</p>
Section 7: Relationship between leader and subordinate (employees with expatriate manager)
<p>How would you describe your superior's leadership style?</p> <p><i>If your previous superior was of German/ French nationality:</i> Have you seen differences in leadership style between your current French/ German superior and your previous German/ French one(s)?</p> <p>Has your superior adapted or changed his/ her style since taking up his/ her current position?</p> <p>Can you tell me how important decisions are made in your department?</p> <p>If you are consulted by your superior to what extent do you think your opinion is of importance to him/her?</p> <p>In which language do you communicate with your superior?</p> <p>What was your French/ German superior's German/ French language level at the beginning of his/ her secondment? Has this changed since then?</p> <p>Regarding communication, can you tell me, e.g. (1) how your superior communicates important decisions? (2) what your superior's feedback policy is? Describe the way personal feedback is given!</p> <p>How useful is this feedback for you to develop within your department and your career?</p>

Table A.3 continued

Section 7: Relationship between leader and subordinate (employees with expatriate manager)
<p>How does your superior delegate work?</p> <p>How do you communicate with your superior when you need his/ her advice or input?</p> <p>Do you have regular meetings within your department? For what reasons are there departmental meetings? How are these meetings organised? Describe a typical meeting-structure! Is there an agenda? What role does your superior play during these meetings!</p> <p>What does your superior do to promote good/ effective relationships with you?</p> <p>Do you think that there is anything that your superior should do in addition to promote good and effective relationships with you?</p> <p>Do you think you relate differently to your French / German superior than you would relate to a German/ French superior?</p> <p>Do you feel that your current superior corresponds to your perception of what is an effective leader?</p>
Section 9: Domestic employee with expatriate manager
<p>What were your first impressions about your French/ German superior? Have they changed since then?</p> <p>Have you experienced situations in which your French/ German superior behaved different than you expected and you felt uncomfortable with this behaviour?</p> <p>Do you feel that differences exist in for example the approach to work, the way of working, etc. between Germans and French?</p> <p>What advice would you give to French/ German expatriates in leading positions in Germany/ France? How to behave, which mistakes to avoid?</p> <p>Based on your experience with working with your French/ German superior, how would you design best a training for subordinates working with a French/ German superior?</p> <p>If your company had offered a training to you in preparation for your French/ German superior, would you have participated?</p>

Table A.9.4: Interview Schedules for Manager Interviews

Section 1: Introduction (all managers)
<p>What is your job title and the title of the organisational function you are in? How long have you been employed in this role?</p> <p>Where were you employed previously?</p>
Section 2: Leadership in general (all managers)
<p>How would you describe effective leadership in a business context? Give adjectives and/or attributes!</p> <p>Give examples of effective German/French leaders! What, in your opinion, makes them effective?</p>
Section 2: Additional questions for expatriate managers
<p>Do you see any differences in the German and French effective leaders you have named?</p> <p>Do you see any similarities or differences between leadership in Germany and in France?</p>
Section 3: Leadership within your company (all managers)
<p>How would you define effective leadership within your company?</p> <p>Are there any leadership principles and/or policies which are promoted within your company?</p>
Section 3: Additional question for expatriate managers
<p>Do you feel that differences between those principles in Germany and in France exist?</p>
Section 4: Leadership training within the company (all managers)
<p>Have you completed any structured leadership training or programmes in your career to date? Please describe.</p> <p>Were these training programmes of practical use to you?</p>
Section 5: Intercultural training within the company (all managers)
<p>Did any aspect of your training focus on intercultural competence?</p> <p>Does intercultural competence play a role in your job?</p> <p>What is your company's attitude towards intercultural competence? Do you feel that intercultural competence should be fostered within your company?</p> <p>How useful do you think intercultural training is in general?</p>

Table A.4 continued

Section 5: Additional question for expatriate managers
Within your company, does the necessity of intercultural training depend on the country where someone will be sent to as expatriate?
Section 6: Degree of exposure to other cultures (domestic managers)
<p>Have you always worked in Germany/France? <i>If yes, finish this section here.</i></p> <p>Where and how long did you work abroad? Were you sent by a German/French company as expatriate or did you apply directly to the foreign company? What was/ were your position/s? If you held a leading position abroad, were you accepted as a leader by your foreign subordinates?</p> <p>Did you experience any differences in, for example, the approach to work, the way of working, etc. during your time abroad?</p> <p>What lessons from your previous work experience abroad do you draw on today in your current position?</p>
Section 6: Degree of exposure to other cultures (expatriate managers)
<p>Have you ever worked in Germany/France? Besides France/Germany, did you ever work abroad? If yes, where and how long? (<i>continue with questions within this section</i>) If no, why not? (<i>finish this section here</i>)</p> <p>Were you sent by a German/French company as expatriate or did you apply directly to the foreign company? What was/ were your position/s? If you held a leading position abroad, were you accepted as a leader by your foreign subordinates?</p> <p>Did you experience any differences in for example the approach to work, the way of working, etc. during your time abroad?</p> <p>What lessons from your previous work experience abroad do you draw on today in your current position?</p>

Table A.4 continued

Section 7: Relationship between leader and subordinate (domestic managers)
Are any of your subordinates non-German/non-French?
How would you describe your leadership style? Are there elements you would describe as being typically German/French?
When making important decisions, how do you proceed? If you consult your subordinates to what extent is their opinion of importance to your decision making?
Regarding communication, can you tell me, e.g. (1) how you communicate important decisions? (2) how you communicate personal feedback?
What is your company's preferred feedback policy? Is your preferred feedback policy different from your company's preferred feedback policy?
How do you delegate work?
How do your subordinates communicate with you when they need your advice or input?
Do you have regular meetings within your department? For what reasons are there departmental meetings? How are these meetings organised? Describe a typical meeting-structure! Is there an agenda? What role do you play during these meetings?
What do you do to promote good and effective relationships with your subordinates?
Do you feel that you are accepted and respected as a leader within your department? If yes, how can you tell this? How long did it take you to be accepted as a leader in your current position? Could you specify the event when you felt "now they accept me" If no, what might be possible explanations why this is currently not the case?
Is it important to you to be accepted as a leader within your department?

Table A.4 continued

Section 7: Relationship between leader and subordinate (expatriate managers)
Are any of your subordinates non-German/non-French?
How would you describe your leadership style? Are there elements you would describe as being typically German/French?
Have you ever faced differences with your French/German subordinates, which you could trace back to your probably German/French influenced leadership style?
Did you feel it is/ was necessary to adapt or change your style since you have been in France/Germany?
When making important decisions concerning your department, how do you proceed? If you consult your subordinates to what extent is their opinion of importance to your decision making?
In which language do you communicate with your subordinates?
Regarding communication, can you tell me, e.g. (1) how you communicate important decisions concerning your department? (2) how you communicate personal feedback?
What is your company's preferred feedback policy? Is your preferred feedback policy different from your company's preferred feedback policy?
How do you delegate work?
How do your subordinates communicate with you when they need your advice or input?
Do you have regular meetings within your department? For what reasons are there departmental meetings? How are these meetings organised? Describe a typical meeting-structure! Is there an agenda? What role do you play during these meetings?
What do you do to promote good/ effective relationships with your subordinates?
Do you feel that you are accepted and respected as a leader within your department? If yes, how can you tell this? How long did it take you to be accepted as a leader in your current position? Could you specify the event when you felt "now they accept me" If no, what might be possible explanations why this is currently not the case?
Is it important to you to be accepted as a leader within your department?

Table A.4 continued

Section 7: Relationship between leader and subordinate (expatriate managers) – continued
Do you think your French/German subordinates relate to you differently than to a French/German superior?
Section 8: Expatriate in host country
What was the reason why you were sent to France/Germany? Have you ever lived or worked in France/Germany before?
How long is your secondment for?
What was your personal reason to accept the job in France/Germany?
Which personal qualities and which competences do you think are necessary to be successful in your position in France/Germany? Are these different from what you would need in a comparable position in Germany/France?
What was your French/German language level before coming to France/Germany?
Did your company support you to prepare your secondment in France/Germany?
<i>Questions to be answered in a business context:</i> What have been your first impressions in France/Germany? Have they changed since then?
Have you experienced situations in which you behaved like in Germany/France and you felt that this behaviour was not suitable?
Do you think it is necessary to adapt to a foreign culture when living and working there?
To what extent do you feel integrated into French/German life?
Do you feel that differences exist in for example the approach to work, the way of working, etc. between Germans and French?
What components should a training programme for German/French expatriates in leading positions in France/Germany have, based on your experience so far?
If your company had offered such a training to you, would you have participated?