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CHESTER BUSINESS SCHOOL

MASTER OF BUSINESS

ADMINISTRATION

THE IMPACTS OF DIFFERENT CULTURES ON LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

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Abstract

The objective of this research is to find out the main impacts of cultural differences and how they affect the process of doing business and managing in terms of leading.

Describing the characteristics of leadership, leadership styles, cultural differences, identifying the factors that affect leading style and defining the difficulties of working within another culture also come under the scope of the study.

Leadership is an important issue in any organization and various studies have demonstrated the increasing importance of leadership. According to many authors (Harris, 2004, Schein, 2004 and Adair, 1999) the first step in managing cultural differences effectively is increasing one's general cultural awareness and leaders must understand the concept of culture and its characteristics before they can fully benefit from the study of cultural specifics.

A vast number of businesses and companies work outside their country of origin and must therefore take into consideration the views, ideas and culture of foreign employees, suppliers and clients. Leadership is related to motivating, interpersonal behaviour and the process of communication (Mullins, 2007).

This highlights the, critical need for leaders in international organisations to use their leadership skills to transform any differences in the cultures of their employees towards the benefit of their organisations.

This study includes a review of literature and a field survey. With regard to the field survey, a sixth of the interviewees conducted face to face and a quarter was e-mailed directly to managers who are working outside their home cultures in an overseas market. Field surveys also covered questionnaires which conducted by these managers employees. Ninety two employees questioned in order to analyzing research questions. A third of the questionnaires were conducted face to face and two thirds were e-mailed directly to managers who are working outside their home cultures in an overseas market.

The study will assess the level of understanding of cross-cultural leadership and examine the main impacts on a number of specific cultures of leadership effectiveness.

Declaration

This work is original and has not been submitted for any other academic purpose. All secondary sources are acknowledged.

Signed:

Date:

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CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the research

This research looks to examine the impact of different cultures on leadership effectiveness and how that role is carried out by the leader. It seeks to explain what it means to be a leader who comes from a different culture from those he leads.

As today's global world becomes smaller, people all around the world are tending to work globally. Information is more readily available on a global basis and increasing numbers of organisations are looking to recruit managers to lead who have an understanding of -cross-cultural issues.

In short, in today's working environment, working in a foreign country and working within different cultures becoming increasingly common. As markets globalise, the need to internationalise in terms of organisation design, systems and procedures is gaining importance. This in turn leads to a demand for leaders who have a multitude of skills and abilities. Effective leadership involves motivating and directing employees towards the achievement of an organisation's goals and the popular leadership view is that effective leaders influence, motivate and inspire people then tap people's psychological processes that arouse, direct and maintain voluntary behaviour towards goals (Gill, 2006).

However, whilst recognising the undeniable truth of Gill's assertions, this study aims to focus on the specific role that awareness of cultural issues can play in motivating, inspiring and influencing those same employees towards organisational goals.

Indeed, it is the assertion of this study that certain aspects of cultural awareness could have an influence on leadership effectiveness. As a result, an understanding and awareness of such factors could be regarded as an essential attribute for all leaders.

Researchers have been studying the effect of culture on leading for many years. There are several books related to cross-cultural management. The different cultural orientations described result from 15 years of academic and field research (Trompenaars, 2000). Researches show that the internalisation of business life requires a greater knowledge of cultural patterns.

1.2.Aim and Objectives of the study

This dissertation will seek to clarify how different cultures affect leadership effectiveness, examine how leaders carry out their role in different cultures and how this role is viewed by followers. The aim of this study is to research into the impacts of different cultures on leadership effectiveness and to understand the conceptual interplay between culture and leadership.

The dissertation consists of a relevant literature review, interviewing managers from different cultures as well as analyzing questionnaires sent to key employees working closely alongside leader.

According to the research questions listed above, the following objectives are defined:

1. To investigate the level of understanding leadership and cross-cultural leadership within the organisation by leaders-managers and employees.
2. To understand what makes an effective cross-cultural within different culture (including characteristics, attitudes and working style)
3. To investigate the effect of cultural dimensions and leadership effectiveness.
4. To make recommendation to improve leadership effectiveness in a different culture.

The specific research questions are as follows:

1. What are the main characteristics of the leader in a cross-cultural environment?
2. How important do you think the role of the leader who comes from different culture in the organization is?
3. Which factors are important for leadership effectiveness in your culture?
4. What would be happen for improving leadership abilities in a cross-cultural environment?

1.3. Justification for the research

An analysis of the factors influencing the leadership effectiveness in different cultures is a valuable issue, both for the researcher and businessmen alike. This investigation contributes to improvement of leadership perceptiveness' in foreign countries by using literature review, interviews and sampling. Edgar Schein (2004) argues that culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin; neither can really be understood in isolation without reference to the other. They are inextricably linked.

The definition of international business focuses on transactions and the use of this term recognizes that doing business internationally is an activity, not merely a passive observation. The fact that the transactions are across national borders highlights a key difference between domestic and international business. The international executive is subject to a new set of macro-environmental factors, to different constraints and to quite frequent conflicts resulting from different laws, cultures and societies (Czinkota et.al. 2009). The need for international management arises with a firm's initial involvement in international operations by way of exports of its products, technology or services to foreign market. This needs becomes more critical when a company becomes involved in Foreign Direct Investment which is a long-term equity investment in a foreign affiliate or subsidiary; it gives the parent company varying degrees of managerial control over the foreign operation by the parent company (Phatak et.al., 2009).

At this point cross-cultural management becomes an essential part of the process and the importance of cultural awareness and knowledge becomes a crucial issue.

According to UNCDAT data; aggregate international direct investment stock as of 2009 amounts to USD 17.7 trillion. The US and France stand out as countries to have the largest international direct investment stock. Hong Kong, China, Brazil, Singapore, Mexico and Russia, on the other hand, are the countries that have the largest international direct investment stock in the developing world. While developing countries hold 30% share in total international investment stock (www.UNCDAT.org). FDI is accompanied by the need to manage foreign production and managing the various enterprise functions abroad required that managers in the parent company (Phatak et.al., 2009). As of September 2010, Investment Map includes data on more than 130,000 foreign-owned companies located in 163 developing countries and economies in transition (www.investmentmap.org).

In essence this means that, 130,000 companies employ at least 130,000 staff, probably managers in other countries from other cultures. Therefore, in recent years cross cultural management with increasing FDI has become more important.

A great deal of research has been undertaken concerning cross cultural management. The largest such study on leadership effectiveness is the Global Leadership and Organizational Effectiveness (GLOBE) research program. This involved a global network of more than 170 management scholars and social scientists from 62 countries collaborated for the purpose of understanding cultural influences on leadership in organizations, using both quantitative and qualitative methods to collect data from over 18,000 managers and representing a majority of the world's population (Phatak et.al, 2009)

In GLOBE's study, leadership effectiveness was analyzed by indicating the nationality of the participants. Likewise in GLOBE's study, national differences and cultural differences were indicated.

However, in contrast, in this research study, leadership effectiveness was examined in terms of cultural differences without taken into consideration of nationality.

Cross cultural managers act more as psychological counsellors, trying to help team-members identify of other groups. This of course goes smack against any positivist understanding of culture. The job of good cross-cultural managers is to put together cross-cultural teams that work, hoping that trust and friendship will develop and that the natural stereotyping of others will diminish (Cross cultural management Journal, 2007)

It is difficult to make a direct link between leadership effectiveness and profit but if an awareness of cultural differences makes a leader more effective this will have a direct impact on performance

1.4. Methodology Overview

Chapter three outlines adopted methodology. Interpretivism advocates that it is necessary for the researcher to understand differences between humans in our role as social actors (Saunders et.al. 2009). This research aims to identify the impact of different cultures on the leadership role, as a social actor using qualitative data. An interpretivist approach has been used in this research. However, many interpretative approaches to research, typically using qualitative data, tend to take the view that the researcher almost inevitably has an effect upon other research participants during the collection data (Oliver, 2006)

Qualitative research uses multiple methods that are interactive and humanistic and the actual methods of data collection traditionally based on open-ended observations, interviews and documents (Creswell, 2003) and using different data collection techniques within one study refers to **triangulation** (Saunders et.al., 2009). In this study, different methods or sources to collaborate each other and qualitative case studies combine observation with interviewing (Silverman, 2005), hence, using some form of methodological triangulation were also used

In this research triangulation was guaranteed by using face to face interviews and, questionnaires and emailed questionnaires

The deductive approach starts with a hypothesis and moves from theory to data, need to explain causal relationship between variables, collects quantitative data and necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions (Saunders et.al. 2007). With regard to starting hypothesis and moves from the theory to data, deductive approach was adopted. However, with regard to collecting qualitative data inductive approach also adopted.

1.5. Outline the Chapters

The thesis is organized as follows:

Chapter one outlines why understanding cultural differences plays an important role understanding leadership effectiveness and how it can affect leadership style and behaviour.

The chapter outlines the research questions, aim and objectives, the significance of the study and methodology which has been adopted. The methodology is also explained in Chapter four.

Chapter two is a literature review, covering a comprehensive review of the literature relating to effective leadership, cross-cultural management and the relationship between them. The literature review has been conducted in order to finding the existing knowledge in this field with particular reference to my research questions.

Chapter three discusses the chosen research design and methodology.

Chapter four presents research findings.

The final chapter contains the conclusions along with the discussion and implications for future research.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The Literature review helps this research to develop theoretical and conceptual framework and models and to identify important variables and test the relationship between them (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2010). The purpose of the literature review is to provide the raw material from which the conceptual framework is built (Fisher, 2007). In a conceptual framework, a concept has been put together and related to one another (Fisher, 2007)

For this dissertation; The literature review has been used in order to explaining approaches, definitions and to investigate previous research that has been carried out in this field. Books, journals, newspapers and electronic books have been used as sources of material.

2.2. Parent Disciplines/fields and themes

The key themes informing the study are the nature of leadership Stogdill (1974), (Northouse, 2010), specifically cross-cultural leadership (Hofstede, 1991), Organizational Culture (Schein, 2004) and Managing Cultural Differences (Harris et.al., 2004)

In order to critically analyse what it means to be an effective cross-cultural manager it is important to define effective leadership in this context. A Review of some of the fundamental principles of leadership will assist in gaining a better understanding of cross-cultural management and effectiveness.

2.3. Understanding Leadership and Leadership Styles

Leadership is a subject that has been extremely popular and of great interest in the business world for many years. This developing interest has created an explosion in the amount of research on leadership. Many definitions have been made and many theories been expounded in this large and complex field. As a result of this, as indicated by Yukl (2002), researchers usually define leadership according to their individual perspectives and the aspect of the phenomenon which is of most interested to them. However, as Yukl has pointed out, an observation by Bennis (1959) is as true today as it was when he made it many years ago:

Always, it seems, the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us terms to deal with it... and still the concept is not sufficiently defined.

2.3.1. Definitions of Leadership

As indicated above, there are many definitions of leadership. Dictionaries define leadership as “the position or function of a leader” and a leader is described as the someone, who rules, guides or inspires others. Leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behaviours, influence, interaction patterns, role relationship and occupation of an administrative position. (Yukl, 2002) The term leadership is also used to describe personality traits, behaviours and also to denote the roles of individuals and collectives. (Western,2008). Leadership is not easily definable. Therefore, researchers have developed many definitions of leadership and they all consider different aspects of leadership. Stodgill (1974) pointed out in a review of leadership research that; there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are people who have tried to define it.

According to the Nahavandi (2006) despite the differences, the various definitions of leadership contain three common elements:

- First, the leader is a group phenomenon; there can be no leaders without followers. As such, leadership always involves interpersonal influence or persuasion.
- Second, leadership is goal directed and plays an active role in groups and organizations. Leaders use influence to guide others through a certain course of action or toward the achievement of certain goals.
- Third, the presence of leaders assumes some form of hierarchy within a group. In some cases, the hierarchy is formal and well defined, with the leader at the top; in other cases, it is informal and flexible.

Nahavandi’s classification has been supported by many researchers. According to Bass (cited by Northouse, 2010) some definitions view leadership as the focus of group process. Same as Nahavandi he believes that there can be no leaders without followers. From this perspective, the leader is a leader with its followers. While most theories of leadership focus on leaders, Stephen Covey (1992, cited by Gill (2009)) suggests that a ‘more fruitful approach is to look at followers, rather than leaders and to assess leadership by asking why followers follow’. This question has addressed that, leaders effectiveness can be seen by observing followers. People follow someone as a leader who influences, inspires and motivates them and these all depend on empowerment.

Influence is the common word of many leadership definitions. Leadership is relationship of influence. (Wright, 2006) Leadership occurs only when people are influenced to do what is ethical and beneficial for the organization and themselves (Yukl, 2002). Leadership involves influence, without influence, leadership does not exist (Northouse, 2010). According to Grint (2005), the top four selling general review texts on leadership in 2003 were Hughes et. al. (1999), Northouse (1997), Wright (1996) and Yukl (1998). On the very first page of their book, Hughes et al. (1999) suggest that

'if any single idea is central to this book, it is that leadership is a process, not a position. Gill (2006) also indicated that ' if leadership is a process like defined by Bradshaw (2002) It is about influencing other people and this requires knowing oneself, knowing those other people and knowing how to influence them. Nahavandi (2006) define a leader as any person who influences individuals and groups within an organization, helps them in the establishment of goals and guides them toward achievement of those goals thereby allowing them to be effective. All these descriptions for leadership shows us the importance of influence on leadership effectiveness.

2.3.2. Overview of major theories of leadership

To understand leadership we need to examine not only the personal makeup of the leader, their character type, values, attitudes, beliefs, position, experience and behaviours, but also the makeup of the followers(Lloyd and Rothwell, 2007). Therefore, some theories have been developed to understand the leadership issue more thoroughly. Many theories and models can be found in textbooks to understand leadership and its characteristics, but as indicated by Gill (2006) no theory or model of leadership so far has provided a satisfactory explanation of leadership and none of them provides a complete picture. Figure 1. Depicts likely causal relationship among the primary types of leadership variables (Yukl, 2002).

Figure 1. Causal Relationship among the Primary Types of Leadership Variables (Source Yukl 2002)

In this study leadership theories will be explained shortly in order to understand the impact of different cultures on leadership effectiveness under the five main approaches.

2.3.2.1. Trait approach

Trait approach emphasizes attributes of leaders and also known as 'great man' theories. Approach answers the question of "what does a leader have to be?" and argues that leaders are born rather than made, Northouse (2010) explained it, because they focused on identifying the innate qualities and characteristics possessed by great social, political and military leaders (e.g., Catherina the Great, Mohandas Gandhi, Indira Gandhi, Abraham Lincoln, Joan of Arc and Napoleon Bonaparte).

According to Gill (2006) trait theories started with Hippocrates' description of personality types based on 'body humour'. In this approach leaders are born, leaders born with some characteristics. Luther Bernard (cited by Gill, 2006) attempted to explain leadership in terms of the 'internal' qualities that a person is born with. Kouzes and Posner (1997) began their research in early 1980s by surveying several thousand business and government executives and asked several following question for identifying trait and characteristics of leadership. "What values (personal traits or characteristics) do you look for and admire in your superiors?" In response to that question the managers identified more than 225 different values, traits and characteristics. Subsequent content analysis reduced these items and current version contains a list of twenty characteristics. (Table 1)

Characteristics	1995 Respondents: Percentage of People Selecting	1987 Respondents: Percentage of People Selecting
-----------------	--	--

Table1. Characteristics of Admired leaders (Source, Kouzes and Posner, 1997)

Phatak et. Al (2009) sees as a main traits of leader are self-confidence, intelligence, knowledge of business and emotional intelligence and leaders who are high on this trait are able to monitor their

own and other's emotions, discriminate among them and use the information to guide their thoughts and actions.

2.3.2.2. Skills Approach

Like the trait approach, the Skill Approach focuses on the leader. Whilst the trait approach emphasizes the personal characteristics of the leader, the skill approach emphasizes the leader's capabilities. As indicated by Northouse (2010) "Although personality certainly plays an integral role in leadership, the skills approach suggests that knowledge and abilities are needed for effective leadership".

The leadership style and effectiveness are strongly connected and are the main focus of this approach. According to Gill (2009) the lack of a consistent set of leadership traits –who effective leaders are- stimulated a new focus of attention –what effective leaders do? – An effective leader displays his/her personal traits by their behaviours. Leaders should possess some traits that set them aside from others. However, leader must behave to inspire others more than others, have the greater vision than his followers and as indicated by Lloyd and Rothwell (2007)

Dr. John Adair epitomised this approach with his memorable, interlocking three-circle model 'action-centred leadership' which stated that a leader had to achieve the task, built the team and develop individuals. Three areas of task, team and individual overlap so much and any function will tend to affect all three circles (Adair, 1997)

Figure 2.The Three-Circle Model (Source, Adair, 1998)

According to Adair (1997) three areas of need overlap and influence one another. If the common task is achieved, for example, then that tends to build the team and to satisfy personal human needs in an individual. If there is a lack of cohesiveness in the team circle –a failure of team maintenance- then clearly performance of the task will be impaired and the satisfaction of individual members reduced. Adair also advocated that in whatever field you are, at whatever level of leadership, there are three things that you should always be thinking about: task, team and individual.

2.3.2.3. Style Approach

The style approach emphasizes the behaviour of the leader. (Northouse, 2010) and began in the early 1950s after many researchers became discouraged with the trait approach and began to pay closer attention to what managers actually do on the job. (Yukl, 2006).

Goleman et al. (2002) (cited by Jones and Pound 2008) Identify six leadership styles

- Visionary, which 'moves people towards shared dreams'.
- Coaching, which 'connects what a person wants with the organization's goals'?
- Affiliative, which 'creates harmony by connecting people to each other'.
- Democratic, which 'values people's input and gets commitment through participation'.
- Pace-setting, which 'meets challenging and exciting goals'.
- Commanding, which 'soothes fears by giving clear directions in an emergency'?

The style approach emphasizes the behaviour of the leader and as indicated by Northouse (2010) focuses exclusively on what leaders do and how they act. Like Gill (2006), Northouse (2010) has examined this approach under two main categories.

- Task behaviour facilitates goal accomplishment; they help group members to achieve their objectives.

- Relationship behaviours help subordinates feel comfortable with themselves, with each other and with the situation in which they find themselves.

Leadership style theories describes what leaders do and according to Gill (2006) can be classified into two categories; People focused and task focused. Action-centred leadership has been developed by this theory and concentrate on task, team and individual. Adair (1988) identified the successful leaders at his "The Action-centred leader" as a leader who acts in all three areas; task, team and individual. According to Adair, action-centred leaders are enthusiasts, capable of encouraging and inspiring others by word and example. They have an understanding of people, especially which we are all basically self-motivating and true leadership always works with the grain of human, not against it.

2.3.2.4. Situational Approach

As implied by the name of the approach, this approach focuses on leadership in situations. Different situations demand different kinds of leadership. To be an effective leader requires that a person adapt his or her style to the demands of different situations and the essence of situational leadership demands that leaders match their style to the commitment of the subordinates. Effective

leaders are those who can recognize what employees need and then adapt their own style to meet those needs. (Northouse, 2010)

Situational leadership as a model of leadership behaviour developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard (1969, 1993) has gained even greater popularity than the Managerial Grid, with a range of available assessment instrument.(Gill, 2006) When the behaviour of actual leaders was studied, there was little evidence to show these two categories of leader behaviour were consistently related to leadership success; the relative effectiveness of these two behaviour dimensions often depended on the situation and Hersey's Situational Leadership model explains why leadership effectiveness varies across these two behaviour dimensions and situations (Hughes et. al. 2009)

Figure 3. Situational Leadership, (Source; Northouse, 2010)

The situational leadership model describes how each of the four leadership styles applies to subordinates who work at different levels of development, from D1 (low in competence and high in commitment), to D2 (moderately competent and low in commitment), to D3 (moderately competent but lacking commitment), to D4 (great deal of competence and a high degree of commitment). (Northouse, 2010)

Blanchard et. al (1987) also identified four basic leadership style as;

- Directing; the leader provides specific instructions and closely supervises task accomplishment.
- Coaching; the leader continues to direct and closely supervise task accomplishment, but also explains decisions, solicits suggestions and supports progress.
- Supporting; the leader facilitates and supports subordinates' efforts toward task accomplishment and shares responsibility for decision-making with them.
- Delegating; the leader turns over responsibility for decision-making and problem-solving to subordinates.

2.3.2.5. Contingency Theories

Contingent means 'dependent on something else'. (Lloyd and Rothwell, 2007) and this perspective framework was developed in the United States to account for leadership effectiveness that did not follow the predictions of behavioural theories (Phatak. Et. al. 2009). These theories suggest that there is no one best style of leadership. Successful and enduring leaders use different styles according to the nature of the situation and the followers. (Gill, 2006) This approach emphasizes the fact that a leader should know how to adopt his or her style according to the situation. Leadership effectiveness depends on the prevailing situation. Therefore there is no best way to become an effective leader, the central argument of this approach is that leadership effectiveness is contingent. Theories that explain leadership effectiveness in terms of situational moderator variables are called contingency theories and this type of theory is most useful when it includes intervening variables to explain why the effect of behaviour on outcomes varies across situation (Yukl, 2006). Although several approaches to leadership could be called contingency theories, the most widely recognized is Fiedler's (1964, 1967; Fiedler and Garcia, 1987) contingency theory.

Fiedler's Contingency Theory

Fred Fiedler's Contingency Model is the oldest and most highly researched contingency approach to leadership. (Nahavandi, 2006) Fiedler's Contingency Theory was the first true contingency theory of leadership. Fiedler's view, the most appropriate style of leader behaviour is that which results in high task performance by a group and this is said to be an outcome of two important factors: the preferred behavioural style of the leader and the contextual circumstances in which the group operates. (Rollinson, 2005) The way that these variables interact is shown in Figure 5.

Figure 4. Interaction of variables in Fiedler's contingency theory, (Source; Rollinson, 2005)

Fred Fiedler's approach emphasizes that the effectiveness of a leadership style is task oriented or people oriented and that it depends on the circumstances. However, as indicated by Northouse (2010) a criticism of this theory is that it has not adequately explained the link between styles and

situations and it relies on the LPC scale, which has been questioned for its face validity and workability.

Path-Goal Theory

Path-goal theory advocates that leaders motivate subordinates to designated goals. This theory, developed by House and Dessler (1974) and presented in the Path Goal Theory of Leadership stated that all human activity is goal oriented. In other words we don't do anything without a reason, nor do we pursue pointless activity (Somers, 2007).

According to path-goal theory, activities are only carried out when a pathway remains for achieving the goal. The leader increases personal payoffs to subordinates for achieving work goal and paves the way to these payoffs by clarifying the path, removing or reducing roadblocks and pitfalls and enhancing personal satisfaction along the way (Gill, 2009). Path-goal theory also suggests that "Achieving a goal may satisfy more than one need" (Somers, 2007). This assumption also supported Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory. Employee motivation is an important factor of this theory in terms of enhancing employee performance and satisfaction.

2.3.2.6. New leadership theories; Transformational, visionary, charismatic

Leadership research and theory in recent years has focused on a set of leadership qualities associated with 'transformational leadership' (Cherniss, 2006 cited by Bass, 2002). Bass (1994) indicates these set of qualities at his book called "Improving Organizational Effectiveness, Through Transformational Leadership" and pointed out that the transformational leadership is seen when leaders:

- Stimulate interest among colleagues and followers to view their work from new perspectives,
- Generate awareness of the mission or vision of the team and organization,
- Develop colleagues and followers to higher levels of ability and potential,
And,
- Motivate colleagues and followers to look beyond their own interests toward those that will benefit the group.

Transformational leader is a repeat of past 'Great Man' hero leaders and there are significant similarities (Western, 2008). However, Western (2008) noted that there was also a new edge to the Transformational Leader entering the twenty-first century. They would attempt to find ways to create strong collectivist cultures which enabled dispersed leadership to occur within the bounds of a leadership vision and normative control.

A business vision provides followers with the hope that the future will be better than the present (Lloyd and Rothwell, 2007) Mark D’Arcangelo, system memory product marketing manager at Hitachi Semiconductor quoted his personal-best leadership experience to Louzes and Posner (2007) as “What made the difference was the vision of how things could be and clearly painting this picture for all to see and comprehend.” Kouzes and Posner (2007) emphasize the importance of vision and they suggest that, every organization, every social movement begins with a dream, the dream or vision is the force that invents the future and leaders inspire a shared vision.

Charisma is an important term in the context of the New Leadership, because it is used fairly frequently by a number of its main contributors. When charisma is examined in terms of how the leader is perceived by his or her followers, New Leadership writers have been much closer to the main ingredients of the social scientific approach (Bryman, 1992).

As indicated by many researchers, Gill (2006) noted that, transformational leadership makes a positive impact on empowerment, motivation and morality and transformational leaders tend to use the consultative, participative and delegate styles as well as the directive style to a significant extent.

2.4. LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

2.4.1. Who is an effective leader?

It is generally agreed that a leader needs to have certain special traits in order to lead effectively. Measuring the effectiveness of a leader is not a simple process.

Even though Adair (1983) suggested that the trait approach had been rejected by academics, some researchers concede that leaders do possess the qualities expected or required in their working groups. Hughes et. al. (2009) agree with this idea either, According to Hughes et. al (2009) There are various ways to measure the effects of leaders on subordinates and organizations. Although the leader’s behaviour or personality traits will probably play a key role in these indices, when making judgements about the relative success of a leader we are examining the consequences or impact of these behaviours and not the behaviours per se.

Daniel Goleman identified effective leadership at his article in Harvard Business Review (2001) as “effective leaders are alike in one crucial way: they all have a high degree of emotional intelligence”. It’s not that IQ and technical skills are irrelevant. They do matter but mainly as “threshold capacities”: that is they are the entry level requirements for executive position.

2.4.2. Interaction between leader, the followers and the situation

As indicated by Hughes et al. (2009) too frequently, we just look at the leader's behaviour and conclude that he or she is a good leader or a bad leader apart from the context. However the study of leadership must also include two other areas: the followers and the situation. Adair (2005) quoted US author JW Thibaut's view on this interaction as 'an understanding of leadership must rest on a more basic understanding of the structure and functioning of the groups'. In order to get the best results from followers the leader must also have regard for the need to encourage high morale, a spirit of involvement and co-operation and a willingness to work (Mullins, 1999). Stogdill (1974) (1994) pointed out the importance of leader and followers interactions by indicating the followers tend to feel better satisfied under a leader skilled in human relations than under one skilled in technical aspects of the task; however, satisfaction tends to vary not only with type of leadership, but with size and structure of the group. As pointed out at "Situational Leadership Approach" different situations demand different kind of leadership and from this perspective, according to Northouse (2010) to be an effective leader requires that a person adapt his or her style to the demands of different situations. For leaders to be effective, it is essential that they determine where subordinates are on the developmental continuum and adapt their leadership styles so they direct match their style to that development level.

2.4.3. Learning culture for effectiveness, cross-cultural leadership

Many management consultants and theorists have asserted that "strong" cultures are desirable as a basis for effective and lasting performance. But strong cultures are by definition stable and hard to change, therefore learning culture would have to assume that the appropriate way for humans to behave in relationship to their environment is to be proactive problem solvers and learners (Schein, 2004). **Even though some functions of leadership are similar across borders and cultures, as indicated by Phatak et. al. (2009) the definition of an effective leader varies greatly across cultures and generally accepted images of leader in different countries are important. Understanding the differences in the ways these leaders and their followers think, feel and act is a condition for bringing about worldwide solutions that work (Hofstede, 1991). Some people seem to have an innate ability to do and say the right thing at the right time and the others offend unintentionally or misrepresent what they want to convey. Nevertheless, there is general agreement that businesspeople can improve their awareness and sensitivity and that training about other cultures will enhance the likelihood of succeeding in those cultures (Daniels and Radebaugh, 2001)**

Mc Guire and Rhodes (2009) examined this issue by started to ask "Why culture matters?" According to them culture is often viewed in either two ways; one, a deterministic view, says culture is the collection of social beliefs that determine behaviour, limit learning and channel choice. This view prevents learning in the collective and locates the power mostly at the top. A second view of culture defines it as emerging social beliefs that expand behaviours and learning, extending choices by creating new tools and meaning (Bohannon 1995 cited by Mc Guire and Rhodes 2009) . Mc Guire and Rhodes(2009) pointed out that second way is the best way for effective leadership.

A Global leader, should have the skills and abilities to interact and manage people from diverse cultural background and who work in the multinational or global corporation in different parts of the world (Phatak et.al., 2009) and according to Northouse (2010) global leaders need to develop five cross-cultural competencies; First, leaders need to understand business, political and cultural environment worldwide. Second, they need to learn the perspectives, tastes, trends and technologies of many other cultures. Third, they need to be able to work simultaneously with people from many cultures. Fourth, leaders must be able to adapt to living and communicating in other cultures and fifth, they need to learn to relate to people from other cultures from a position of equality rather than cultural superiority.

In the specific area of culture and leadership the GLOBE studies, named for the Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness Research Program have generated a very large number of findings on the relationship between culture and leadership.

A global network of the 62 countries collaborated for the purpose of understanding cultural influences on leadership in organisations, using both qualitative and quantitative methods to collect data from over 18,000 managers representing a majority of the world's population (Phatak et.al., 2009) The goal of the GLOBE project is to understand patterns of leadership that are universally accepted and those that are subject to the unique influences of the cultural context in which they operate (Phatak et.al., 2009)

To describe how different cultures view leadership behaviours in others, GLOBE researchers identified six global leadership behaviours; charismatic/value based, team oriented, participative, humane oriented, autonomous and self-protective.

Charismatic/value based leadership reflects the ability to inspire, to motivate and to expect high performance from others based on strongly held core values,

Team-oriented leadership emphasizes team building and a common purpose among team members,

Participative leadership reflects the degree to which leaders involve others in making and implementing decisions.

Humane-oriented leadership emphasizes being supportive, considerate, compassionate and generous.

Autonomous leadership refers to independent and individualistic leadership, which includes being autonomous and unique.

Self-protective leadership reflects behaviours that ensure the safety and security of the leader and the group. (Northouse, 2010)

2.5. CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT

2.5.1. The Concept of National and Organizational Culture

Culture is simply defined by Gill (2006) as ‘the way we do things around here’. It is characterized by overt and covert rules, values, guiding principles, habits and psychological climate. Culture refers to those learned behaviours characterizing the total way of life of members within any given society and cultures differ from one another just as individuals differ from one another (Hughes et.al 2009). Culture is a ‘collective programming of the mind’, ‘collective soul’ or some type of ‘social glue’ that holds people together (Warner and Joynt, 2002). A popular and simply way of defining culture is; ‘how things are done around here’ Mullins (1999).

The culture of countries was originally examined from an antropological or sociological one as opposed to a business one, although the development of globalisation has thrown the national culture issue much higher up the agenda for business people who are working in countries other than their own (Brooks et. al. 2004). According to Brooks et. al (2004) one of the most commonly used national culture definition is made by Geert Hofstede (1984)

The collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the member of one human group from another..... Culture, in the sense, includes systems of values; and values are among the building blocks of culture.

Although most people probably think of culture, in terms of very large social groups, the concept also applies to organizations. Organizational culture has been defined as a system of shared background, norms, values or beliefs among members of group (Hughes et. al 2009) Organizational culture is the collection of traditions, values, policies, beliefs and attitudes that constitute a pervasive context for everything we do and think in an organization (Mullins, 1992).

The culture of an organisation profoundly affects the behaviour of people within it and develops norms that are hard to alter (Torrington and Weightman, 1994) Organizational culture is accepted by the people who work within the group and as indicated by Hughes et. al (2009) If a person does not share the values or beliefs of the majority of members, then in all likelihood this person would have a fairly negative reaction about the organization overall.

Using the word ‘culture’ for both nations and organizations suggests that the two kinds of culture are identical phenomena; a nation is not an organization and the two type of ‘culture’ are of a different nature (Hofstede, 1991) Culture is learned, shared and transmitted from one generation to the next (Czinkota et. al.2009) and also presents itself on different levels (Trompenaars, 2000) At the highest level of cultural differences shown in national culture. Within the bounds of a nation are people who share essential attributes, such as values, language and race and there is a feeling of “we” whereas foreigners are “they” (Daniels and Radebaugh, 2001)

Certainly, the economic and physical environments (populations, climate, geography, etc.) are important issues in multinational business. However, the cultural environment (communications, religions, values and ideologies, education, social structure) has special importance in multinational business and analysis of problems and failures of multinational business abroad has shown that the first dominant factor is culture (Miroushnik, Journal of management Development, Sep 2002, Vol 21, Is.7)

Culture gives people a sense of who they are, of belonging, of how they should be doing and culture impacts behaviour, morale and productivity at work and includes values and patterns that influence company attitudes and actions (Harris et.al. 2004)

2.5.2. The basis of cultural differences

Every culture distinguishes itself from others by the specific solutions it chooses to certain problems which reveal themselves as dilemmas (Trompenaars and Turner, 2000) and every culture differ from one another just as individuals differ from one another (Hughes et.al 2009) Significant “cultural” differences are evident across organisations owned and managed by individuals of one nationality and significant “cultural” similarities are evident across organisations owned and managed by individuals of different nationalities. Many other factors such as the legal, economic and regulatory context of the organisation influence its values, orientations and practices more profoundly than the national culture of its owners and managers. (Suku Bhaskaran, Victoria University, Melbourne, Australia Nishal Sukumaran, The Melbourne Business School, Melbourne, Australia, Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal Volume 14 Number 1 2007 pp. 54-67)

The role of national culture and potential national cultural differences has become an increasingly important part of the business environment as a result of the increase in globalisation, with more and more countries looking to operate outside their home base and thus finding that they are coming into increasing contact with different cultures (Brooks et.al. 2004)

It is undoubtedly important that cultural dimensions come into play as managers manage in corporations around the world. At the same time there are the developing and influential social, political and economic forces of and changes brought about by industrialisation and post-industrialisation that are to a great extent shaping the developing and developed world in an uncertain way (Steve Mc Kenna, Leadership and Organizational Development Journal, 1998, Vol.19, Nr.2)

Rugman and Brewer (2001) indicate that cultural differences cause four kind of problems in international business negotiations – at the levels of; Language, Nonverbal behaviours, values, and thinking and decision-making processes.

Language is a factor that greatly affects cultural stability and when people from different areas speak the same language, culture spreads easily (Daniels and Radebaugh, 2001)

2.5.3. Cultural dimensions

Cultural dimensions are basic concepts that help to understand how two or more cultures might be different or similar along each dimension (Phatak et. al. 2009) Many organizations operate in different part of the world and encounter cross-national and regional cultures within their workforce, customers or governmental influences (Avery, 2008).

Various frameworks have been developed as a guide to understanding the various cultures of the world. However, the very first framework was developed by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck developed a framework to describe the emphasis a culture places on various dimensions (Phatak et.al. 2009) these are called dimensions of value orientation and they are described in Table 1 (Table 1)

Dimensions	Emphasis in Culture
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Table 2; Cultural Emphases on Important Dimensions (Source; Phatak et.al. 2009)

The dimension of “relation to nature” is concerned with the extent to which a culture copes with its relation to nature most of the time by subjugating to it, being in harmony with it or attempting to master it. A culture that emphasizes harmony, like the culture prevalent in Japan, emphasizes the value of coexisting with nature rather than changing it. Basic human nature reflects how cultures socialize individuals to develop beliefs. Time orientation reflects a society’s emphasis on the past, present and the future. Space orientation indicates how people define the concept of space in relation to other people. The activity orientation of a culture focuses on doing, being or thinking and the dimension of relationship among people reflects the extent to which a culture emphasizes individualistic, group oriented or hierarchy-focused ways of relating to one another.

Geert Hofstede, a Dutch researcher, used five dimensions of culture to explain differences in behaviours from one culture to another (Phatak et.al. 2009) and his ground-breaking work into different values held by people of different nations shows how national culture can influence concepts of leadership (Avery, 2008). Hofstede’s (1991) statistical analysis of the answers on questions about the values of similar company (IBM) employees in different countries revealed common problems, but within solutions different from country to country, in the following areas. Hofstede believed that using employees from the same company would clearly show national

cultural differences because the IBM employees were matched in other respects, such as their type of work and educational levels for similar occupations (Phatak et.al. 2009) Hofstede’s original study of IBM managers indicates that important cultural differences persist, even in an organization known for its strong organizational culture (Kotabe and Aulakh, 2002).

Hofstede indicated these dimension in the following areas;

1. Social inequality, including the relationship with authority,
2. The relationship between the individual and the group,
3. Concepts of masculinity and femininity: the social implications of having been born as a boy or a girl,
4. Ways of dealing with uncertainty, relating to the control of aggression and the expression of emotions.

Phatak et. al (2009) pointed out Hofstede’s dimensions by added one more, which is:

5. Time orientation

In Hofstede’s original work (1984) he identified four variables or dimensions around which one could begin to evaluate in national culture and some of these are identified in Table 3

Country	Individualism (IND)	Power Distance (PD)	Uncertainty Avoidance (UA)	Masculinity (MA)
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Note; When comparing countries along these criteria, the key is to see how close the figures are –the closer they are than the closer the cultural fit. As a rough guy, if the gap rises above twenty then it suggests a significant cultural difference.

Table 3. Selected examples of Hofstede’s Cultural Dimensions (1984), Source, Brooks et.al. (2004)

2.6. INTERACTION BETWEEN CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP

2.6.1. Cultural Knowledge and Awareness

A clear implication for business leaders in the global context is the need to become aware and respectful of cultural differences and cultural perspectives (Hughes et. al. 2009) If the operations are contracted to a company abroad, then each company needs some cultural awareness to anticipate and understand the other company's reaction (Daniels and Radebaugh, 2001). Culture consist of specific learned norms based on attitudes, values and beliefs, all of which exist in every nation (Daniels et.al. 2004) and these regional, ethnic and religious cultures account for differences within countries; ethnic and religious groups often transcend political country borders (Hofstede, 1991). The global leader, sensitive to cultural differences, appreciates a people's distinctiveness and seeks to make allowance for such factors when communicating with representatives of that cultural group (Harris et.al. 2004)

Differences in cultural lifestyle can be explained by five dimensions of culture;

1. Individualism ("I" consciousness versus "we" consciousness) on the one side versus its opposite, collectivism, that is the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups.
2. Power distance (levels of equality in society) that is the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally.
3. Uncertainty avoidance (need for formal rules and regulations) deals with a society's tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity; it ultimately refers to man's search for Truth. It indicates to what extent a culture programs its members to feel either uncomfortable or comfortable in unstructured situations.
4. Masculinity (attitude toward achievement, roles of men and women)) versus its opposite, femininity, refers to the distribution of roles between the genders which is another fundamental issue for any society to which a range of solutions are found
5. Long-term orientation, It can be said to deal with Virtue regardless of Truth. Values associated with Long Term Orientation are thrift and perseverance (www.geert-hofstede.com)

Knowledge of similarities along these dimensions allows managers to cluster countries and regions and establish regional and national marketing or business programmes (Czinkota et.al., 2005). Cultural knowledge provides insight into people and cultural awareness and skill can be helpful in influencing organizational culture. Furthermore, subsidiaries, divisions, departments or specializations have subcultures that can foster or undermine organizational goals and communications (Harris et. al., 2004)

2.6.2. Managing cultural diversity

Before examining the theme of cultural diversity in organizations, it will be beneficial to identify the word of diversity. The word diversity means a range of different things (Oxford English Dictionary, 2004) Among the many environmental trends affecting organisations in recent years is the rapidly changing composition of the workforce, a phenomenon known as workforce diversity (Bhadury et. al, 2000 cited by Seymen, Cross-Cultural Management Journal 2006, Vol.13, Number 4).Harris et.al., (2004) examines popular understanding of human diversity as differences of color, ethnic origin, gender, sexual or religious preferences, age and disabilities.

Unesco Published Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity , adopted by the 31st Session of the General Conference of The UNESCO in Paris 2 November 2001. According to the declaration cultural diversity is the common heritage of humanity (www.unesco.org)

After UNESCO's Declaration, in 7 December 2000, at European Union's Committee of Ministers 733rd meeting The Declaration of Cultural Diversity was published. According to declaration,

1. Cultural diversity is expressed in the co-existence and exchange of culturally different practices and in the provision and consumption of culturally different services and products;
2. Cultural diversity cannot be expressed without the conditions for free creative expression, and freedom of information existing in all forms of cultural exchange, notably with respect to audiovisual services;
3. Sustainable development as defined in relation to cultural diversity, assumes that technological and other developments, which occur to meet the needs of the present, will not compromise the ability of future generations to meet their needs with respect to the production, provision and exchange of culturally diverse services, products and practices. (www.wcd.coe.int)

Fleury (1999) (cited by Seymen, Cross-Cultural Management Journal 2006, Vol.13, Number 4) explains cultural diversity management as an organisational answer or reaction to the need for competitiveness and to the increasing variety of the workforce. In the same resource, it has been stated that management of cultural diversity implies a holistic focus in order to create an organisational environment that allows all the employees to reach their full potential in pursuing the organisational goals.

To understand the differences between domestic and global management, it is necessary to understand the ways in which cultures vary and cross-cultural management describes organizational behaviour within countries and cultures, compares organizational behaviour across countries and cultures and seeks to understand and improve the scope of domestic management to encompass the international and multicultural interaction of co-workers from different countries and cultures (Miroushnik, Journal of management Development, Sep 2002, Vol 21, Is.7)

To increase effectiveness across cultures, training must be the focus of the job, while education thought of with reference to the individual and development reserved for organizational concerns (Harris et.al. 2004) Warner and Joynt (2002) suggests all managers who wish to learn manage interculturally must manage to learn the culture. Culture general training is about providing individuals with information they can use when finding themselves in any new culture; by guiding the learner through a range of experiences and developing with them a range of skills with which they can face new cultures. Culture general approaches tend to be experiential in nature and seek to provide individuals with experiences that mimics closely as possible the types of experience they are likely to encounter when coming into contact with those from other cultures. (Harris and Cumbra, 2000, Vol.19, Nr.7) Cross-cultural management, an international journal Embleton and Hagen (1992) indicate the importance of training on this area; business culture training is an important element in ensuring a smooth transition towards becoming a truly international organisation whether you are a large or small company – or even a one-person band. According to Embleton and Hagen (1992), business culture training enables a person to improve their all-round overseas capability even further.

2.6.3. Strategies for Dealing with Cultural Differences

‘Cultures begin with leaders’ writes Schein (2004) ‘who impose their own values and assumptions on a group’. He goes on to say: ‘If that group is successful and the assumptions come to be taken for granted, we then have a culture that will define for later generations of members what kinds of leadership are acceptable’.

In the past, many assumed that cultural differences were barriers that implied communication and interaction. Today, effective global leaders believe that cultural differences, if well managed, are resources, not handicaps (Harris et.al. 2004). Therefore, global leaders must:

- Identify the cultural recipe and how malleable it is,
- Diagnose its features and its layers,
- Ascertain how appropriate the recipe is for the desired strategy,
- Use transformational values and skills to mould the culture (Gilbert, 2005)

Every culture distinguishes itself from others by the specific solutions it chosen to certain problems which reveal themselves as dilemmas (Trompenaars and Turner, 2000).

Some countries are relatively similar to one another, usually because they share many attributes that help hold their cultures, such as language, religion, geographical location, ethnicity and level of economic development (Daniels and Radebaugh, 2001)

A global leader should have the skills and abilities to interact and manage people from diverse cultural backgrounds who work in the multinational or global corporation in different parts of the world. Some of these traits are;

1. A combination of the skills of a strategist with those of a builder of organizational architectures and the ability to coordinate the architecture dreamlessly,
2. A strong cosmopolitan orientation encompassing the ability to operate flexibility and keep a sensitive eye toward distinctive demands of different cultures in which the cooperation operates,
3. Intercultural communication skills and cultural sensitivity. The role of effective communication cannot be overemphasized. It is critical for a leader to develop appropriate skills to communicate face-to-face as well as through videoconferencing, e-mail, and other computer-mediated methods,
4. The ability to accurate rapidly without being judgemental and to be highly selective in perceiving culturally dissimilar cues and processes,
5. Eagerness to continue learning not only about economic, institutional, political and cultural influences relating to how organization function but also about the significance of the meaning of working in different parts of the world (Phatak et.al., 2009)

Internalization focus on understanding cultural differences, whereas the more advanced are determined to manage and balance cultural diversity and eventually to integrate differences within the overall corporate culture (Czinkota et.al., 2009).

2.6.4. Global Leadership in a Culturally Diverse World.

Cultural diversity affects the way leaders go about defining their roles as leaders and applying themselves to the responsibilities of leadership (Robinson, 2008) and the emerge of leadership, especially the way a leader influences followers is often a product of cultural factors (Phatak et.al., 2009)

Trompenaars and Turner (2000) compare the Culture to gravity in their “Riding the Waves of Culture” book. They state that you do not experience it until you jump six feet into the air. For example, local managers may not openly criticise a centrally develop appraisal system or reject the matrix organisation, especially if confrontation or defiance is not culturally acceptable to them. In practice, though, beneath the surface, the silent forces of culture operate a destructive process, biting at the roots of centrally developed methods which do not “fit” locally.

Robinson and Harvey’s research paper which published at Journal of management History (2008), they suggested that not every leader will become an effective leader in culturally diverse situations. It is plausible; however, to expect that an organization should be seeking to develop along the values journey and thus will require leaders who are able to shift paradigms ahead of the critical mass of the organization. According to Harris et. al., (2004) it was assumed that global leaders had a sense of ethics and social responsibility to their personnel, customers and community and that expectation was undermined by greedy, unethical and illegal executive behaviour that ignored corporate honesty and responsibility. Robinson and Harvey’s research paper (2008) summarized the global

leadership necessity by indicating the problem is that we need to adapt our leadership thinking to be effective in culturally-diverse situations.

Of the Fortune 500 Firms surveyed, 85 percent think they do not have an adequate number of effective global leaders and 65 percent believe that their existing leaders need to acquire additional skills and knowledge before they can meet or exceed needed capabilities in the global marketplace (Phatak et.al., 2009)

The traits that have been suggested as necessary for the international manager describes ‘a flexible personality, with broad intellectual horizons, impeccable educational values of cultural empathy, general friendliness, patience and prudence, impeccable educational and professional credentials, creative resourcefulness and respect of peers (Czinkota et.al., 2009) Traits typically mentioned in the managers for overseas are listed in Table 4.

Competence	Adaptability	Personal Characteristics
Technical knowledge	Interest in overseas work	Age
Leadership ability	Relational abilities	Education
Experience, past performance	Cultural empathy	Sex
Area expertise	Appreciation of new management styles	Health
Language	Adaptability of family	Marital relations
	Appreciation of environmental constraints	Social acceptability

Table 4. Criteria for selecting managers for overseas.

Characteristics of Global Leadership are an inquiring mind, integrity, the ability to manage uncertainty and tension and emotional connections with people throughout the company’s worldwide operations and should have the skills and abilities to interacting manage people from diverse cultural backgrounds who work in the multinational or global corporation in different parts of the world.

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

In chapter one, a brief overview of research methodology was provided. This chapter of the study explains the research design and methodology of the fields study conducted. Fisher (2007) describes methodology as the study of methods. This raises many philosophical questions about what it is possible for researchers to know how valid their claims to knowledge might be, and whether to adopt a qualitative or quantitative approach (White 2002).

This chapter not only presents the data set and the data-gathering procedures used but also specifies and elaborates on the interpretive framework that is employed in the study (Saunders et.al. 2009).

The information on this study's objectives, data collection method and instrument, sampling plan, hypotheses and methods of analysis will be explained in this chapter.

3.2. Research Philosophy

Research Paradigm

Stating a knowledge claim means that researchers start a project with certain assumptions about how they will learn and what they will learn during their inquiry and according to Creswell these claims are called **Paradigms**.

The term 'paradigm' refers to the broad world view which informs an approach to research (Oliver, 2006) and is a way of examining the social phenomena through which particular understandings of these phenomena can be gained and explanations attempted (Saunders et.al. 2009). Cryer (2006) suggests that research paradigm lends itself to highly valid and highly reliable research, but only where the variables that affect the work can be identified, isolated and precisely measured. To some researchers paradigm refers to the progress of scientific practice based on people's philosophies and assumptions about the world and the nature of knowledge (Collis, 2003). Whereas research philosophy contains important assumptions and these assumptions underpin the research strategy and the methods which are chosen as part of the strategy (Saunders et.al. 2009). Saunders et. al. (2009) also indicate that two major ways of thinking about research philosophy are epistemology and ontology which contains important differences which will influence the way about the research process.

This study, seek to understand the subjective reality of the leaders in order to be able to make sense of and understand their motives, actions and intentions in a way that is meaningful (Saunders et.al.

2009) In this research study, subjectivist view is that cross-cultural leadership is produced through the social interaction between followers and customers.

Realism and Interpretivism Paradigm

According to Saunders et.al.(2009) the 'resources' researcher would place much less authority on the data collected by the 'feelings' researcher, who is concerned with the feelings and attitudes and the 'resources' researcher is embracing what is called the **positivist** philosophy to the development of knowledge whereas the 'feelings' researcher is adopting the **interpretivist** philosophy (Saunders. Et.al. 2009)

Realism Paradigm

The philosophy of realism is that there is a reality quite independent of the mind and the theory that only the mind and its contents exist (Saunders et.al. 2009). Hart (2006) summarised the main relation between main paradigms; many of the features of a positivist position on the nature of reality (ontology) are linked to the epistemology (ways of knowing) of objectivism, therefore if researcher has taken a position within these traditions, "realist" approach has been adopted. According to Brown (2006) positivism tends to lend itself towards undertaking research using quantitative techniques and interpretivism towards qualitative techniques, therefore this research adopt interpretivism due to using qualitative techniques.

Positivism Paradigm

A positivist paradigm lends itself to both quantitative and qualitative research and qualitative research can be conducted within the positivist paradigm (Kumar, 2005) and (Silverman, 2005). Blaikie (2003) assumed that one major research tradition is social reality which is external to the people involved; that it is the context in which their activities occur; and that it has the capacity to constrain their actions, and this tradition is associated with Positivism. Positivism views knowledge as based on facts that are 'out-there-in-the-world' waiting to be discovered (Potter, 2006). The researcher, in this instance, prefers working with an observable social reality and that the end product of such research can be law-like generalisations similar to those produced by physical and natural scientists (Remenyi et.al. 1998, cited by Saunders et.al. 2007). According to Silverman (2005) positivists model encourages researcher to chart the relation between variables which are operationally defined by the researcher. Another important component of positivist approach to research is that the research is undertaken, as far as possible, in a value-free way (Saunders.et.al. 2007)

Interpretivism or phenomemology

Researchers who take this position believe that reality is socially constructed, our understanding of 'reality' is not a simple account of what is; rather, it is something that people in societies and groups form from the following:

- Their interpretation of reality, which is influenced by their values and their way of seeing the world; (What is leadership, leadership styles, cultural influences)
- Other people's interpretation; (Followers attitudes, values)
- The compromises and agreements that arise out of the negotiations between the first two. (Interaction between leaders and followers) (Fisher, 2007)

Many interpretative approaches to research, typically using qualitative data (Oliver, 2006), the contextual and historical influences (gender, ethnicity etc.) and how much emphasis to give to which version of idealism (Hart, 2006). Heath and Bryant (2000) indicated the study of communication in organisations revolves around four paradigms; Structural functionalism, physiological, interpretivism and systems interaction, and additional insights into organisational communication can be obtained by examining the effect that shared meaning has on organisational members' ability to cooperate and interpretivism is a key for unlocking those mysteries. According to Blaikie (2003) knowledge of social reality can only be achieved by collecting social actors' accounts of their reality, and then redescribing these accounts in social scientific language known as interpretivism and its data-gathering procedures are mainly qualitative.

3.3. Research Strategy

Saunders et.al. (2009) suggest that research strategy guides research questions and objectives, the extend of existing knowledge, available other resources as well as philosophical underpinnings. Business studies, by its very nature, is wide-ranging and covers many areas (White, 2002) such as Leadership and Culture. Dissertations illustrates the context of existing knowledge therefore, in this research literature review collates previously published work in the same field (White, 2002). Qualitative techniques have been used for analysing the impact of different cultures on leadership effectiveness.

3.3.1. Justification for selected paradigm and methodology

Interpretivism advocates that it is necessary for the researcher to understand differences between humans in our role as social actors (Saunders et.al. 2009). This research aims to identify the impact of different cultures on the leadership role, as a social actor using qualitative data. An interpretivist approach has been used in this research. However, many interpretative approaches to research, typically using qualitative data, tend to take the view that the researcher almost inevitably has an effect upon other research participants during the collection data (Oliver, 2006)

As an approach to social research, phenomenology is sometimes presented as an alternative to positivism and is concerned, first and foremost, with human experience (Denscombe, 2003) Phenomenological research, in which the researcher identifies the "essence" of human experiences

concerning a phenomenon, as described by participants in a study, understanding the “lived” experiences” marks phenomenology as a method (Creswell, 2003). In exploring the leadership effectiveness in foreign culture, that the phenomenological paradigm is appropriate for these research questions. By reason of phenomenology seems to be a more prevailing approach to qualitative research in the social science literature and phenomenologist is committed to understanding social phenomena from the actor’s own perspective and would register all cues in an effort to “understand” the respondent (Gummerson, 2000) In this study, phenomena in cross-cultural environment committed from the managers as an actor’s own perspective and all cues both from employees’ and managers’ were registered and effort to understand.

Positivists are concerned with how far any account is biased, while emotionalists treat such feedback as adding to the authenticity of the research’s findings (Silverman, 2005) and positivist research is undertaken in a value-free way (Saunders et.al., 2007) Positivism seeks to apply the natural science model of research to investigations of the social world and is based on the assumptions that there are patterns and regularities, causes and consequences in the social world, just as there are in the natural world (Denscombe, 2003) which is one of the main objectives of this research study.

Qualitative research design tends to work with a relatively small number of cases (Silverman, 2005) and provides powerful tools for research in management and business subjects, including general management, leadership, organization, corporate strategy and more (Gummesson, 2000). This qualitative research study involves literature together with a small number of cases, interviews and questionnaires. Research data are gained from interviews and questionnaires.

The two principles means of collecting qualitative data in the social science are participant observation, which typically occurs in groups and open –ended interviews, which typically occur with individuals (Morgan, 1997).

This research study involved literature together with a small number of cases, eight interviews and 92 questionnaires. Participant observations were collected by using questionnaires and open-ended interviews conducted by managers. Thus a qualitative approach was applicable to this research.

3.3.2. Rejected Methods

While qualitative research concerned with nonmeasurable aspects of data, quantitative research deals with data that is quantifiable, it can be measurable in numerical terms (Phelps et.al. 2007) which for this research data would not be measurable. Qualitative research takes place in the natural setting, collects participant meaning, focuses on a single concept or phenomenon, fundamentally interpretive, collaborates with the participants, while quantitative research tests or verifies theories or explanations, identifies variables to study, relates variables in questions or hypothesis and employs statistical procedures (Creswell, 2003). Morgan (1997) presents two

principles of qualitative research in the social science are participant observation, which typically occurs in groups and open ended interviews, which typically occur with individuals. Therefore, qualitative approach is adopted for this research study while quantitative method rejected.

3.4. Research Design

The research design determines the overall structure of the research; the data collection methods are for gathering the data within that structure and the statistical analysis is for making sense of that data (Rugg and Petre, 2007) and also represents a logical set of statements (Yin, 2009). Saunders (2007) classified research purpose in the research methods' literature is the threefold one of exploratory, descriptive and explanatory.

Principal ways of this research are;

- A search of literature,
- Interviewing leaders,
- Conducting focus group interviews, which are three principal ways of conducting **exploratory** research (Saunders et.al. 2007).

Studies that establish causal relationship between variables may be termed explanatory research and study on situation in order to explain relationship between variables (Saunders et.al. 2007) This research study is also viewed explanatory research in respect to study on leadership situation and its relationship between followers and cultural differences.

Research Strategy

Silverman (2005) defined 'methodology' as a general approach to studying research topics and according to him, chosen method reflects an 'overall research strategy. The researcher brings to the choice of research design assumptions about knowledge claims, in addition, operating at a more applied level are strategies of inquiry that provide specific direction for procedures in a research design (Creswell, 2003)

Strategies Associated with the Qualitative Approach

In qualitative research, the numbers and types of approaches became more visible and various types and complete procedures are now available on specific qualitative inquiry approaches (Creswell, 2003).

Using inductive and deductive approach

Barney G. Glaser stressed in a book subtitled *Emergence Forcing* (cited by Gummerrsson, 2000) the necessity of letting reality have a say on its own terms. The researcher must not force preconceived categories and concepts on reality, even if these are well established in extant theory. The emergent-versus-forcing issue can also describe as inductive versus deductive research (Gummerson, 2000). Deductive approach starts with hypothesis and moves from theory to data, the need to explain causal relationship between variables, collects quantitative data and necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions (Saunders et.al. 2007).

The deductive researcher starts with existing theories and concepts (Gummerrsson, 2000). The deductive approach is used to understand existing leadership theories, explained relationship between culture and leader and selected sufficient sample in order to generalise leadership attitudes.

Inductive research starts with real-world data, categories, concepts, patterns, models and theories emerge from this input (Gummerrsson, 2000) The inductive approach also emphasizes gaining and understanding of the meaning humans attach to events. Inductive research includes the use of interviews, the collections of qualitative data and is less concerned with the need to generalise (Saunders et.al. 2007). The Inductive approach is also appropriate for this study. Interviews were conducted with leaders and qualitative data was collected from both these interviews and from questionnaires to the followers of the leaders.

3.4.1. Design of instruments

Case Study

As a research method, the case study is used in many situations, to contribute to knowledge of individual, group, organisation, social, political and related phenomena (Yin, 2009) and a case maybe a person, episode, process, community, society or any other unit of social life (Kumar, 2005). According to Silverman (2005) Case studies seek to preserve the wholeness and integrity of the case.

The case study approach allows the use of a variety of research methods. The main benefit of using this approach is that it enables the researcher to grapple with relationship and social processes in a way that is denied to the survey approach (Denscombe, 2003). This approach is also ideally suited to the needs and resources of the small-scale researcher (Blaxter et.al. 2001).

Blaxter et.al (2001) specified case study approach's disadvantages as very complexity of a case can make analysis difficult and while the contextualization of aspects of the case strengthen this form of research, it is difficult to know where 'context' begins and end.

Data Collection

Two types of method have been used in the study; secondary data and primary data. While secondary data has been used to conduct the literature review, for example in order to figure out the cultural differences and leadership styles, primary data is used to investigate the cultural differences and its effects on leadership effectiveness. This does not mean that primary information is necessarily sufficient or correct, but that a researcher should be personally acquainted with its nature and limitations (Preece, 1994). Blaxter et.al. 2001) indicates that case study ideally suited to the needs and resources of the small-scale researcher.

Secondary data involves the articles and books reviewed in the second chapter of the study. Secondary sources, are those which where the information has already been sifted and structured by someone else, albeit for quite legitimate reasons (Peece, 1994) Thus, they are obtained from several libraries; The Chester University Library, Liverpool University Library, and the library of Istanbul Chamber of Commerce. Some books necessary for this study were ordered from Amazon web page. Besides libraries, a significant source of secondary data was the internet, in particular electronic journals related to cross cultural management, international business and leadership.

Two types of primary data collection method have been used to conduct this research;

-The interview was developed in order to ensure qualitative information. Qualitative information employs different knowledge claims, strategies of inquiry and methods of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2003) In this research study, interviews ensure different knowledge from different managers, as well as observation their experiences in a different cultural environment. Although individual interviews let participants determine the direction of the interview, as indicated by Morgan (1997) the other advantage of individual interviews occurs when the goal of the research is to gain in-depth understanding of a person's opinion and experiences.

-Face to face and e-mail interview have been used. A formal, structured form was used. (Appendix 1)

- Exactly the same wording is used in the same order for all respondents to ensure that all respondents answer the same questions. This is in order to avoid prejudice and to guarantee impartiality. Unlike in-depth and semi-structured interviews, the questions in questionnaires need to be defined precisely prior to data collection (Saunders et.al., 2009). Therefore questions designed to meet the research questions and objectives.

-However, in face to face interviews, an unstructured interview was preferred in order to give the interviewee full liberty to discuss their reactions, opinions and attitudes regarding a particular issue (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2010)

-E-mail interview is used to ensure a geographical dispersion of the sample and to overcome the difficulty in accessing the leaders for face to face interviewing.

-In terms of the quantitative component of the study, a questionnaire has been chosen.

The face to face interviews were conducted in June and July 2010 in two different locations: England and Turkey. The e-mailed interviews were carried out in August 2010 in three different locations: United Arab Emirates, Germany and Turkey. Firstly, the researcher interviewed the manager of Foreign Companies representative offices in Turkey and the Secretary Generals of International Non-Governmental Organizations in Turkey. At the second stage, The United Kingdom located, Indian company's Turkish manager; the person responsible for Commerce throughout Europe was interviewed. Finally, the international companies' managers located in Germany and United Arab Emirates were interviewed by e-mail. All respondents were offered both Turkish and English version of questionnaire.

Literature Review

The literature review outlined the main characteristics of leaders, including leadership definitions, styles, the main theories of leadership and general assumptions of leadership behaviours. Cultural environment and effects on leadership effectiveness are also outlined in this chapter. Previous researches and previous leadership theories provide the key to deciding which leadership style warrants the focus on attention (Denscombe, 2003).

Sampling

Sampling techniques provide a range of methods that enable the researcher to reduce the amount of data they need to collect by considering only data from a sub-group rather than all possible cases or elements (Saunders. et.al. 2000) In order to providing judgement to select cases that will best enable the researcher to answer their research question(s) and to meet their objectives (Saunders. et.al. 2000) respondents' selection of this research was based on **purposive or judgemental sampling**. This form of sample is often used when working with very small samples such as in case study research, when the researcher wish to select cases that are particularly informative (Neuman, 1997. cited by Saunders et.al. 2000) and when researcher have a clear idea of the kind of group they are interested in (Gillham, 2008). This research study respondents are managers or team leaders of organizations operating in foreign market and their employees. They have been chosen for their experiences and knowledge in the field of interest. With purposive sampling the sample is "hand-picked" for the research and the advantage of purposive sampling is that it allows the researcher to home in on people or events which they are good grounds for believing will be critical for the research (Denscombe, 2003).

Semi-structured interviews

Interviews help to gather valid and reliable data that are relevant to research question(s) and objectives (Saunders et.al. 2007). In a structured interview, the interviewer reads out the questions and records the respondent's answers, however, semi-structured and depth interviews offer the interviewer more scope and these will be therefore collecting qualitative data (Moore, 2006). As Kumar (2005) pointed out a semi-structured interview involves face-to-face, repeated interaction between the researcher and their informant and it seeks to understand the latter's perspectives. Applied face to face interview in this study allows researcher to "control" over the line of questioning and also is useful when participants cannot be observed directly (Creswell, 2003) According to Creswell (2003) limitations of face to face interview are; it provides "indirect" information filtered through the views of interviewees and people are not equally articulate and perceptive.

Questionnaires

Questionnaires, in essence are a list of questions (Rugg and Petre, 2007) and collects a wider variety of data, which can be subjected to more advanced statistical analysis (Oliver, 2006). Saunders et.al. (2007) suggest that questionnaires used for descriptive or explanatory research and as indicated at research design chapter, explanatory research enables to examine and explain relationship between variables, in particular cause and effect relationship.

In this research study, the questionnaire was prepared by the researcher and in order to ensure data reliability and to prevent contamination, participants were identified by interviewed managers. Generally, all departments were represented by few employees.

Self-completed questionnaires ensure that all respondents have the questions presented to them in a standard way without interviewers introducing any bias (Moore, 2006) List questions offer the respondent a list of responses any of which they can choose and ranking questions asks the respondent to place things in rank order (Saunders et.al./ 2009) In this research study, self completed, list and ranking questions were adopted. In some cases, questionnaires delivered by hand to each respondent and collect later (delivery and collection questionnaires), however, some of them administered electronically using the internet (internet-mediated questionnaires) (Saunders et.al. 2007)

3.5. Research Procedures

Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data analysis procedures allows the researcher to develop theory from the data and this procedure includes both the deductive and inductive approaches (Saunders et.al. 2009). This is not to make any general claims about the relationship between induction, deduction, qualification and

quantification. Rather, it is more appropriate to state that while there are undoubtedly relationship between inductive reasoning qualitative methods and between deductive reasoning and quantitative methods, and it is by no means impossible to a study that employs both inductive reasoning quantification.

Interviewees were conducted with seven foreign leaders who lead people from different cultures. Five of them were carried out face-to-face and three were e-mailed interviewees. However, both covered the same questions. The questionnaire focused on employees who are working with foreign leaders.

100 questionnaires were handed out and evaluated for this research study and 92 responded, this is giving a 92% response rate.

With regard to the questionnaires, 24 questionnaires are administered electronically using the internet and posted to respondents who returned them by mail after completion (mail questionnaires) 68 questionnaires are delivered by hand to each respondent and collected later (delivery and collection questionnaires)(Saunders et.al., 2009).

In this research study, each person is asked to respond to the same set of questions in a predetermined order (deVaus 2002, cited by Saunders et.al. 2009).

3.6. Ethical Considerations

In all types of research there are ethical considerations which must be taken into consideration before embarking on such research.

As Silverman (2005) pointed out, from an ethical point of view, both qualitative and quantitative researchers studying human subjects ponder over the dilemma of wanting to give full information to subject but not 'contaminating' their research by informing subjects too specifically about the research question to be studied. Silverman (2005) also clarified the ethical procedures as consulting the ethical guidelines of one's professional association. Ethical issues are thought to arise predominantly with research designs that use qualitative methods of data collection and this is because of the closer relationship between the researcher and the researched (Blaxter et.al. 2001)

The nature of business and management research means that a researcher is likely to be dependent on a data keeper for access (Saunders. Et.al. 2009) and data collection is only one part of the research process (Potter, 2006). Potter (2005) stress this ethical issue by defending participants' rights, according to Potter, participants is to recognize that people providing data for a study do themselves have a stake in the process, they are giving up their time and allowing an intrusion into their 'private space', it is thus in the spirit of recognizing people's rights to have their human dignity respected that the term 'participant' is promoted. As researchers anticipate data collection, they need to respect the participants and the sites for research (Creswell, 2003)

As far as this study is concerned, during the data collection stage, all the above ethical issues were considered.

In addition the following considerations were observed:

- The participants' rights were protected during data collection.
 - The individuals were not forced to take part in the research they were invited to do so.
 - The interviewees and participants in the questionnaire were informed of the purpose of the study, so that they could understand the nature of the research and how it might affect them.
 - The procedures of the study were explained to them before hand so that they knew what to anticipate in the research.,
 - Participants had the right to ask questions and a copy of results has been sent to them.
 - The participants were explained the benefits of the study and how they might affect them.

- Finally interviewees were asked whether they wish to be interviewed, (Creswell, 2003)

Another general ethical principle is related to the maintenance of researchers' objectivity. During the data collection stage this means making sure that a researcher collects data accurately and fully- that researchers avoid exercising subjective selectivity what they record (Saunders. et.al. 2009).

This is because, in this study a structured questionnaire was used with exactly the same questions applied to all participants. In the face-to face interviews, pressure was not applied in order to gain responses from the interviewees and semi-structured and open ended questions were adopted.

CHAPTER FOUR – ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH DATA

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter the research findings will be discussed.

The conclusions of the Research findings and data analysis will be discussed in the final Chapter, Chapter 5.

As outlined in Chapter 3, the research took place in a natural setting. The researcher went into the office of participant to conduct the research thereby enabling the researcher to develop a level of detail about the individual or place and to get highly involved in the actual experiences of the participants.

This involved the use of “multiple methods” that are interactive and humanistic, emergent rather than tightly prefigured, fundamentally interpretive, views social phenomena and uses one or more strategies this research study is a **qualitative research** (Creswell, 2003)

Qualitative data analysis procedures allows the researcher to develop theory from the data and this procedure includes both the deductive and inductive approaches (Saunders et.al. 2009). This is not to make any general claims about the relationship between induction, deduction, qualification and quantification. Rather, it is more appropriate to state that while there are undoubtedly relationship between inductive reasoning qualitative methods and between deductive reasoning and quantitative methods, and it is by no means impossible to a study that employs both inductive reasoning quantification.

Qualitative research explores attitudes, behaviour and experiences through such methods as interviews or focus groups. It attempts to get in-depth opinions from the participants. This underpinned the approach used in my research

Quantitative research generates statistics through the use of large-scale survey research, using methods such as questionnaires or structured interviews. However, although questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were conducted in this study, the statistics were not used because the sample size was not considered large-scale. Therefore this research is not considered as a quantitative research

Qualitative research uses multiple methods that are interactive and humanistic and the actual methods of data collection traditionally based on open-ended observations, interviews and documents (Creswell, 2003) and using different data collection techniques within one study refers to **triangulation** (Saunders et.al., 2009). In this study, different methods or sources to collaborate each

other and qualitative case studies combine observation with interviewing (Silverman, 2005), hence, using some form of methodological triangulation were also used

In this research triangulation was guaranteed by using face to face interviews and, questionnaires and emailed questionnaires

As indicated in Chapter 3, the deductive approach starts with a hypothesis and moves from theory to data, need to explain causal relationship between variables, collects quantitative data and necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions (Saunders et.al. 2007). With regard to starting hypothesis and moves from the theory to data, deductive approach was adopted. However, with regard to collecting qualitative data inductive approach also adopted.

The starting point for all research separates deductive and inductive research, but there is a very significant distinction. Deductive research primarily tests existing theory, whereas inductive research primarily generates new theory (Gummerson, 2000). However, many interpretative approaches to research, typically using qualitative data, tend to take the view that the researcher almost inevitably has an effect upon other research participants during the collection data (Oliver, 2006)

4.2. Analysing secondary data

For certain types of research projects, such as those requiring national and international comparisons, secondary data will probably provide the main source to answer research questions and to address the objectives (Saunders et.al. 2000). As indicated by Hair, JR. et. al. (2003) secondary data that have been collected for some other research purpose and it may still address the research question at hand. Due to the leadership issue becoming increasingly popular in recent years, there are many books related to this issue in libraries and as suggested by Hair et.al. (2003) technology has made secondary data can be obtained much more quickly. Survey-based secondary data refers usually to data collected by questionnaires (Saunders, 2000). As in this research, questionnaires include all techniques of data collection in which the person is asked to respond to the same set of questions in a predetermined order (Saunders et. al. 2000) and also includes both structured interviews with open ended questions.

Interviewees were conducted with seven foreign leaders who lead people from different cultures. Five of them were carried out face-to-face and three were e-mailed interviewees. However, both covered the same questions. The questionnaire focused on employees who are working with foreign leaders.

100 questionnaires were handed out and evaluated for this research study and 92 responded, this is giving a 92% response rate.

With regard to the questionnaires, 24 questionnaires are administered electronically using the internet and posted to respondents who returned them by mail after completion (mail questionnaires) 68 questionnaires are delivered by hand to each respondent and collected later (delivery and collection questionnaires)(Saunders et.al., 2009).

In this research study, each person is asked to respond to the same set of questions in a predetermined order (deVaus 2002, cited by Saunders et.al. 2009).

4.3. Analysis of participants and respondents

Primary Data

With regard to the primary data, eight managers were interviewed in this research study. 3 face to face interviews were conducted in Turkey with managers whose nationalities are British, Iranian and Malaysian.

Two of whom were conducted in England with managers whose nationalities are Turkish and German.

Two were conducted in United Arab Emirates and their nationalities are Turkish and British.

Finally one was conducted in Germany with a Turkish manager.

Six interviews were conducted face to face with participants and involved generally open-ended questions in order to elicit views and opinions from the participants (Creswell, 2003). Interviews with Turkish and British Managers who were in managerial positions in Dubai were conducted electronically by e-mail. Electronic interviews were used when participant wished to interviewed were geographically dispersed (Saunders et.al. 2009).

Questionnaires and personal interviews with employees are the most common survey techniques used in the qualitative research (Gummerrson, 2000) and two principal means of collecting qualitative data in the social sciences are participant observation, which typically occurs in groups and open ended interviews, which typically occur with individuals (Morgan, 1997).

In order to attempt to prove my hypotheses, focus groups were purposely chosen. Purposive sampling method was allowed to choose sample case and to think critically about the parameters of the studied population (Silverman, 2005).

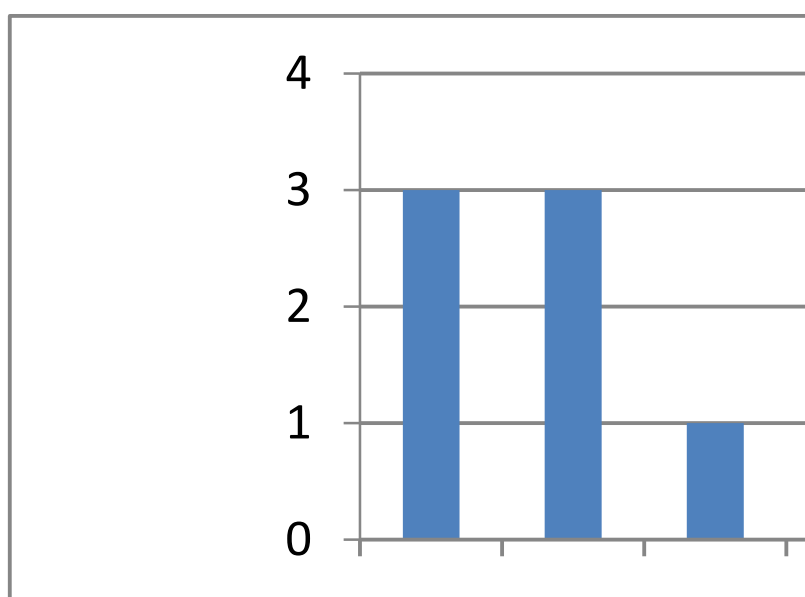
The Focus Groups were chosen because they fulfil two important criteria. Firstly they are managers who are directly report to foreign leaders and secondly at the same time they are employees who work closely with foreign managers.

92 employees were chosen to form the Focus Group in 8 companies and questionnaires were sent to them.

Findings of Research Aims

4.3.1. A Clear Understanding of leadership role.

Figure 5. Interviewees views of leadership



Semi structured interviewees

The table in Appendix 1 provides a summary of the eight interviews conducted. When asked about the meaning of leadership three out of eight participants stressed the importance of influencing others. Three out of eight participants stressed the importance of the ability to affect people.

As can be seen in Appendix, two participants stated that leadership means different things to different people and you have to play the right role in the right circumstances. One participant stated that leadership means responsibility and if you are viewed as a leader you have enormous responsibility for changing current circumstances. This is very close to influence.

One participant stressed the same issue by indicating that leadership is looking ahead and creating something really meaningful. One participant made the point that it is a position that creates and inspires vision for the future. Two of interviewees stressed that having vision was the key to effective leadership. One partner stated that some people inherit leadership positions and they become a leader by chance, which is the assumption of the Great Man Theory. One interviewee mentioned the importance of charisma which is possessed by world leaders such as Nelson Mandela.

Questionnaires

The table in Appendix 2. outlines the results of the questionnaires given to the 92 participants targeted.

As indicated above, 24 questionnaires are administered electronically using the internet, posted to respondents who returned them by mail after completion (mail questionnaires) 68 questionnaires are delivered by hand to each respondent and collected later (delivery and collection questionnaires) (Saunders et.al., 2009). In this research study, each person is asked to respond to the same set of questions in a predetermined order (deVaus 2002, cited by Saunders et.al. 2009).

The first question of the questionnaire asked followers to interpret the meaning of leadership. In order to analyse their interpretation of the leadership role, participants were asked about the meaning of leadership.

Over half of the respondents indicated the importance of team building, communicating goals, inspiring and energizing and empowering subordinates. The majority of respondents, 78 %, believed that inspiring and energising subordinates are the main characteristics of leaders. 42 of 92 respondents (46%) indicated the importance of the leader setting strategies and a similar percentage (38% and 39%) participants pointed out the importance of creating vision and seeking commitment. Only 12 out of 92 (13%) said that the leader should clarify the big picture. The minority of respondents, only 8 out of 92 (9%) made reference to satisfying unmet needs.

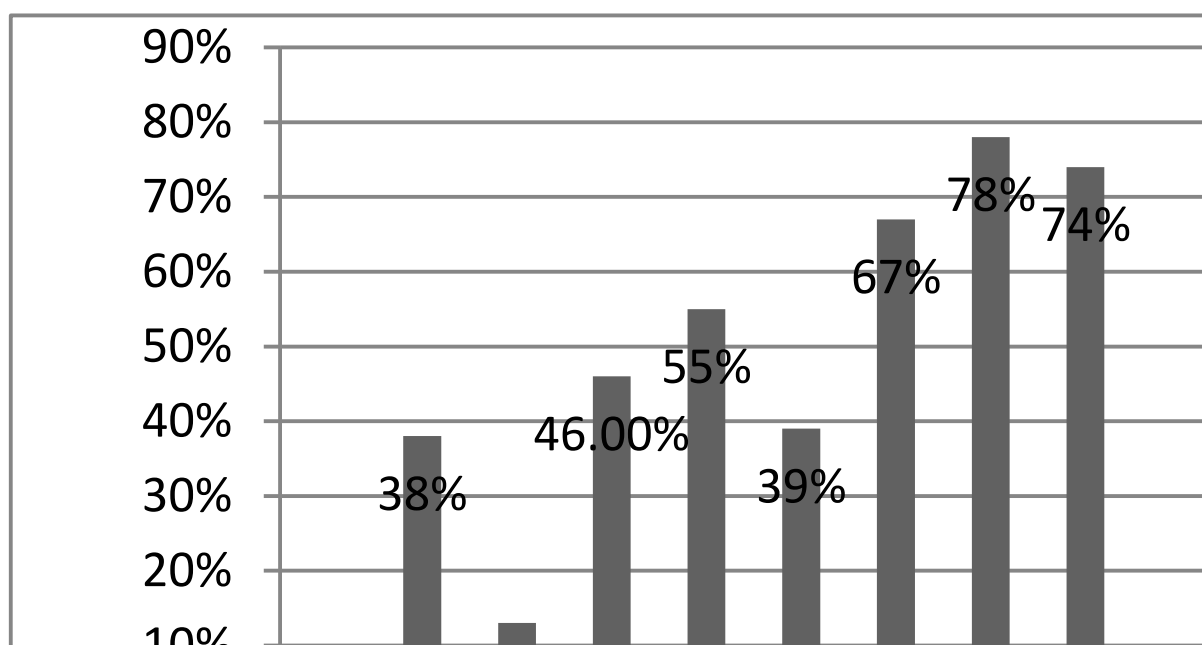
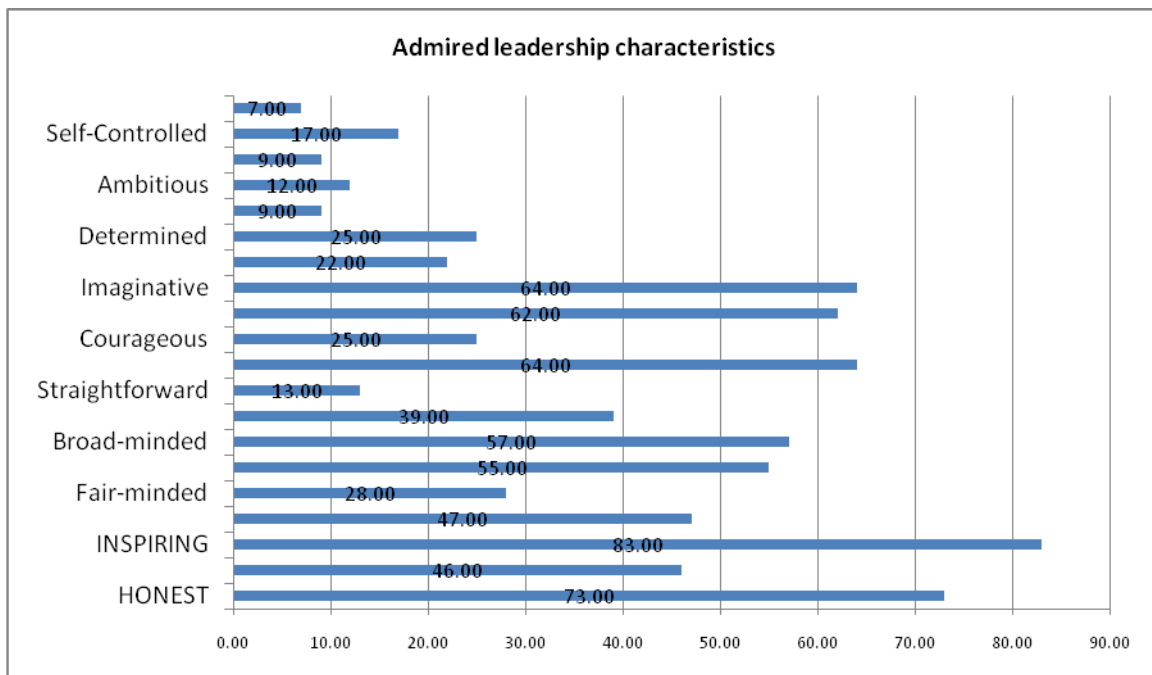


Figure 6. Employees view of leadership

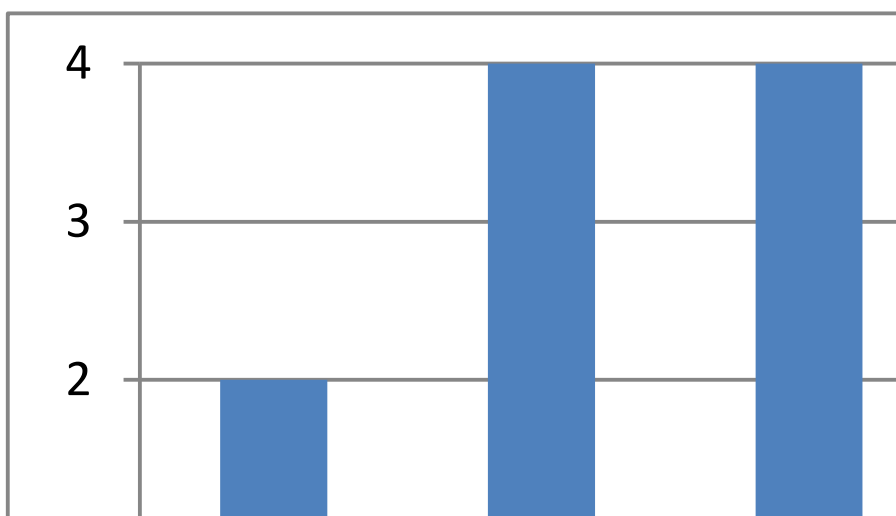
With regard to understanding employees desired leadership characteristics, Kouzes and Posner's (1997) Admired leadership characteristics were shown to the respondents. 76 out of 92 employees (82%) chose Inspiring characteristics as being more important. This shows that the leader should possess this characteristic and it shows that the employee needs inspiration from someone. Honesty comes second chosen by 67 participants. Dependable and imaginative ability has nearly the same importance for employees. More than half the employees (64%) indicated these characteristics as desirable. Broad minded and supportive abilities were chosen by more than half (55%, 56%). According to the questionnaire results, leaders' loyalty, mature and independency do not carry to much importance for employees. They were chosen by less than 10% of participants.

Figure 7. Employees view of admired leadership



4.3.2. Understanding cross-cultural leadership.

Figure 8. Interviewees views of cross-cultural leadership necessities



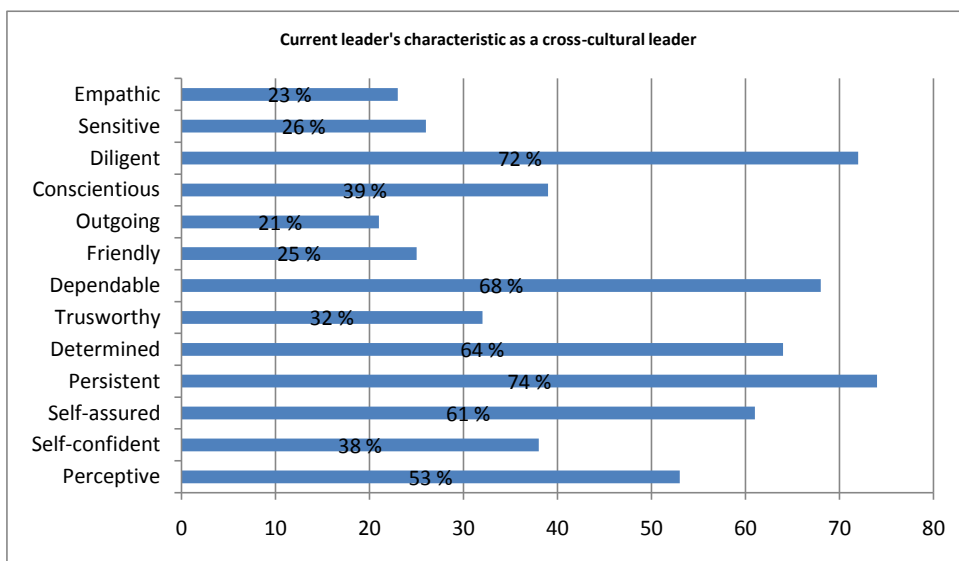
All interviewees were asked if there were any differences between leading people from your own culture and leading people from different cultures and if so, what the differences are. 6 out of 8 managers quickly recognised and identified the fundamental difference between the two saying that they were totally different. One participant indicated that it depends on your international experience and that if you have enough international experience and training, it is not so different. This participant also indicated that leadership is leadership and effectiveness does not only depend on cultural differences.

However, in contrast to this one participant, the vast majority of participants' stressed the importance of learning about culture and the importance of being aware of cultural differences. Only one interviewee did not accept the differences of leading people from another culture. One

participant said it is sometimes different and sometimes not, depending on leadership skills and styles. If a leader is able to transform his style according to circumstances, he can easily lead employees from different cultures. In other words, he said a leader should transform his style according to the circumstances. One manager, compared leading people with leading your family and he also indicated the importance of awareness. If you are aware of your followers' beliefs, characteristics and attitudes, you should easily be able to lead them.

Questionnaire

Figure 9. Employees' views of their current cross-cultural leadership characteristics



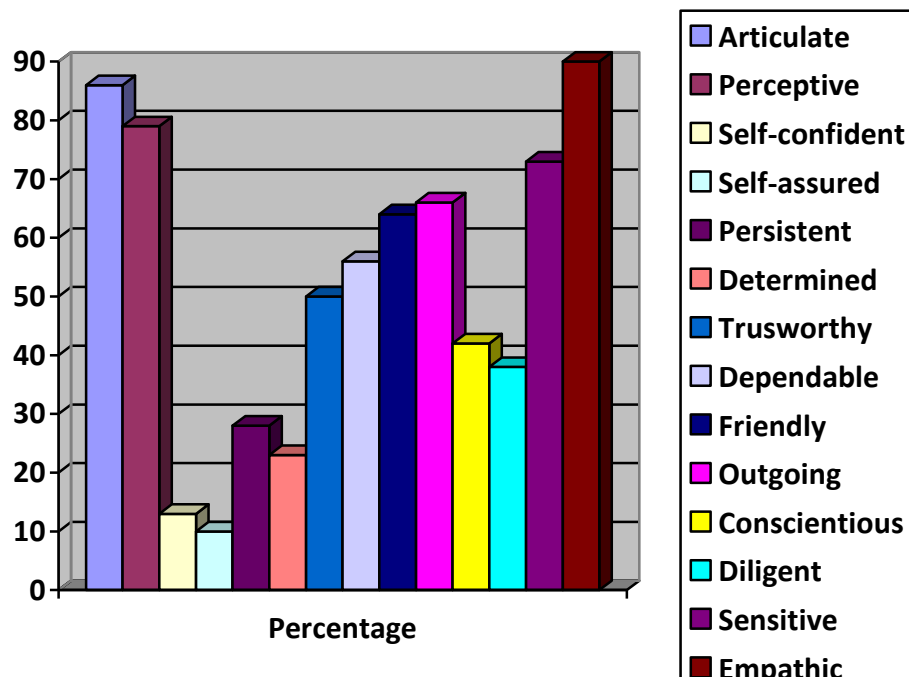
The third and fourth questions asked to participants' enable to understand their current and admired leadership characteristic.

In order to identifying employees' cross-cultural leadership views and desired cross-cultural leadership characteristics, both questions were asked to employees. These two questions shown us which characteristics are desired and which ones are lacking in their leaders. 68 out of 92 employees think their leader is *persistent*; staying fixed on goals despite interference which is a majority of employees (74 %), even though only 26 out of 92 indicate this characteristics as a desired one (figure...) Nearly the same percentage of participants (72 %) think that their leader is *diligent*, hard working. However only 35 of 92 participants indicated this characteristic as a desired quality although approximately, nearly one third of participants assume that it should be. 63 out of 92 employees (68 %) find their leaders *dependable*, consistent and reliable. This and is also indicated by 52 out of 92 participants. According to employees, the fourth specific characteristic that 63 of 92 employees view as being important for their cross-cultural leader is which for them to be

determined. 68 % of participants believe that their leader is acting with certainty despite only 21 of them seeing this characteristic as desirable.

The questionnaire result shows that only 19 out of 92 participants find their leader friendly, even though 62 % employee would like their leader to be more friendly. A second rare characteristic is being emphatic; only 21 people referred to this characteristic. This questionnaire’s most curious data relates to the emphatic leadership characteristic. Only 21 out of 92 find their leader friendly, even though 83 of 92 (90 %) of participants want to work with a friendlier leader.

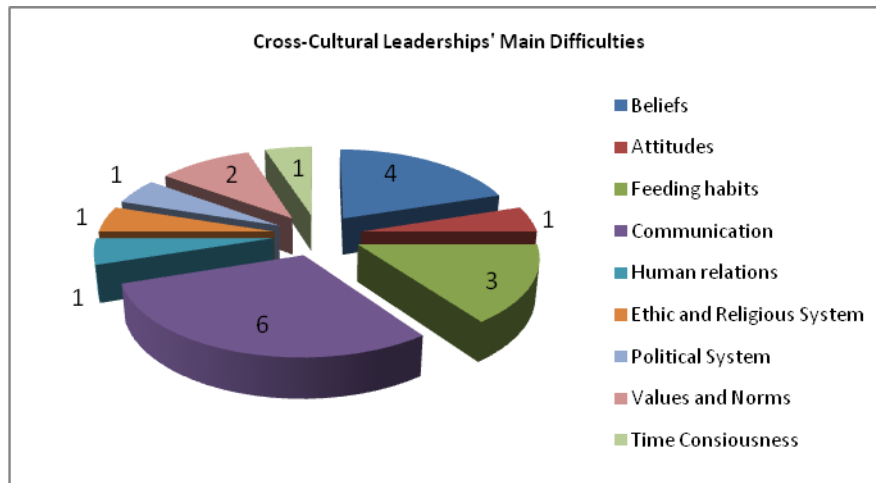
Figure 10. Admired cross-cultural leadership characteristics, (Employees view)



4.3.3. Cross-cultural leadership difficulties, which diversities effect leadership issue?

Semi-structured interview with Cross-Cultural Leaders

Figure 11. Leaders' view of cross-cultural leadership main difficulties



Numbers show, participant's quantity. A number of participants who indicate this issue

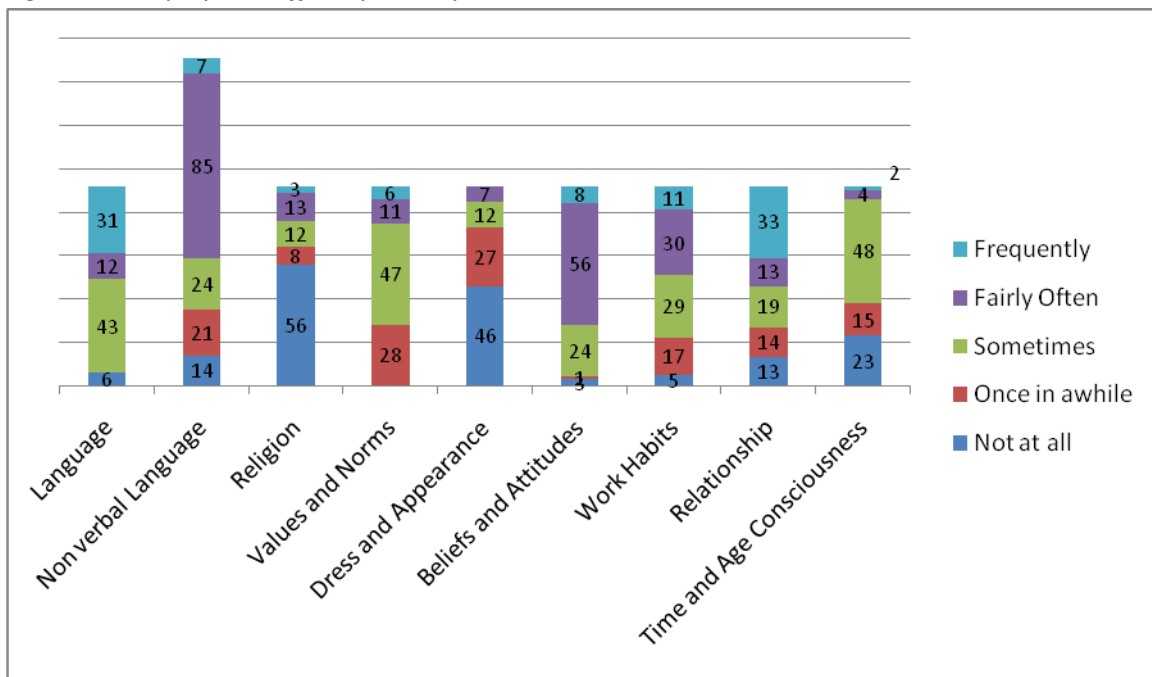
The table in Appendix 1. gives a summary of the eight interviewees conducted. When questioned concerning the main difficulties of leading cross cultural employees, six out of the eight participants indicated communication as a main problem. Some participants stressed language and some others non-verbal (body) language. However, they all mentioned the importance of communication. Four out of eight managers stressed cultural beliefs and one participant said the difficulties of a religious and ethnic system which can be considered as belief stressing the importance of dealing with religious differences and the effect of this on leadership effectiveness. Three out of eight leaders pointed out the importance of eating habits. According to them, these differences would be a problem in some cultures. Attitudes, human relationships, political and bureaucratic systems and time consciousness were indicated by one person as being important.

Questionnaire

The participants were asked how often they felt cultural diversities difficulties with their leader. As can be seen from the chart above, the managers' main problem was communication with six out of eight participants identifying this. From the point of view of the employees the situation was similar with 43 out of 92 participants (47%) sometimes, 31 out of 92 (34%) participants frequently feeling that language was a difficulty, 85 out of 92 employee (92%) almost all of them find body language more difficulty than verbal language. The questionnaires show that religion is not an issue for employees with only 3 of 92 employees indicating it as a problem whilst 56 out of 92 never experience any problem with this issue. In fact, the religious system does not greatly affect business life, only one leader referring to it. Dress and appearance is not creating a big problem between

leaders and employees. Very few employees, barely half of them ever experienced any problem related to appearance. However, time consciousnesses sometimes created difficulties for employees. Leaders indicated that beliefs and attitudes an issue, 56 out of 92 participants stating fairly often, 8 frequently and 24 employee sometimes viewing it this as a problem. Beliefs and attitudes was not identified as a difficulty in the leaders' interviews. Values and norms was occasionally a problem with 56 out of 92 employees choosing this choice. In addition 8 of them frequently experience difficulties with this issue. Work habits were also shown to be a problem by 11 employees frequently, by 30 fairly often.

Figure 12. Employee's difficulty density with their cross-cultural leader



Data shows the number of employee who has chosen indicated density.

4.3.4. What makes an effective leader within a different culture?

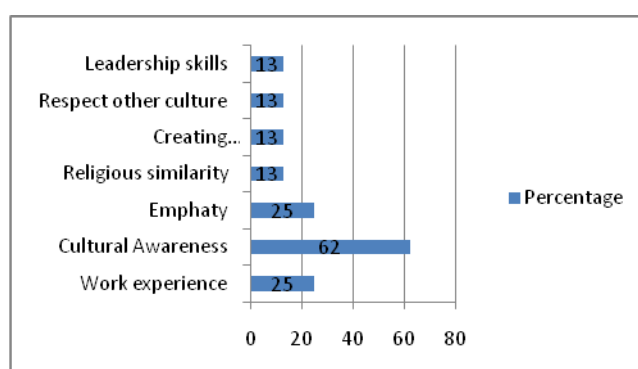
Semi-Structured interview

In order to analyze leadership effectiveness in different cultures, 8 interviewees were questioned about certain parameters. The essential issue relates to what leaders need in order to be efficient

Five out of eight managers pointed out the importance of cultural awareness. According to one interviewee, leaders should understand the cultural environment, another interviewee pointed out the importance of knowledge related to culture, in other words cultural awareness.

When asked “Which characteristic makes you an effective cross-cultural leader?” two interviewees answered this question by indicating that awareness of people’s expectations in another culture and the ability to understand other employees’ culture. 62% identified cultural awareness as a crucial factor for efficiency in another culture. Empathy ability was indicated by two participants as critical in order to be effective in another culture. One interviewee stressed the importance of ethnocentrism (The emotional attitude that one’s own race, nation, group, or culture is superior to all others, Oxford dictionary, 2004). The interviewee correlated his success in another culture with being less ethnocentric. Two interviewees made the point that the key to the success of the managing cross-culture is work experience, particularly international experience which makes leading different cultures easier.

Figure 13 Cross-cultural leadership efficiency factors.



In order to analyze impacting factors on leader, employees’ relation and their approach against leaders have been questioned to interviewees. As can be seen at Appendix... Question 7, only one interviewee hasn’t got any idea and one interviewee believes it should be asked to employees. Rest of five interviewees believe that their approach is good and they have a good relationship with them.

Three of the participants indicated the importance of international experience whether for education or work, although it is giving a person language skill as well as self confidence.

Questionnaire

The Questionnaire’s sixth question asked for the observing employee assumption to their leaders’ success in terms of leading cultural differences. Questions has been chosen Edgar H.Schein’s (2004), Organizational Culture and Leadership book. Participants were wanted to put them in order of importance from one to five. Employees who had given 1 for first option, it means this characteristic must be possessed by the leader.

In Table 5 Cross-cultural leaders’ necessities prioritized by employees; leader’s insight into the culture and its dysfunctional elements isn’t accepted as necessary as other options, only 7 out of 92 employee put this option in first rank, the employees whose think it is less important option among the other four options are 46, 50%. 37% of employee together with 18% want to motivated by their leaders and put this option at first stages. This questions most curious data is closely to effective leaders’ definition; 53% of employee, 49 out of 92, more than half are thinking “Leader must be able not only to lead but also to listen, to involve the group in achieving its own insights into its cultural dilemmas and to be genuinely participative in his or her approach to learning and change”. These characteristics also put into second rate by 37 participants.

Table 5. Cross-cultural leaders’ necessities prioritized by employees

Cross-cultural leader necessities	1	2	3	4	5
The leader must be able to perceive the problem, to have insight into the culture and its dysfunctional elements.	8%	3%	17%	18%	50%
Leadership requires not only insight into the dynamics of culture but also the motivation and skill to intervene in one's own cultural process.	18%	37%	21%	27%	10%
The leader must have the emotional strength to absorb much of the anxiety that change brings with it as well as the ability to remain supportive to the organization through the transition pace, even if group members become angry and obstructive.	15%	20%	22%	16%	5%
Leaders must have the ability to induce "cognitive redefinition" by articulating and selling new visions and concepts or creating the conditions for others to find these new concepts.	5%		40%	34%	35%
Leader must be able not only to lead but also to listen, to involve the group in achieving its own insights into its cultural dilemmas and to be genuinely participative in his or her approach to learning and change.	53%	40%		4%	

4.3.5.What needs to change further in order to make a positive impact upon the role of cross-cultural leadership?

Structured interviewees

All participants interviewed indicated that the something have to be done before the selection stage of the managers.

Four interviewees stated that to be effective cross-cultural leadership need effective communication skills, leader is able to speak and communicate with people. Four interviewees made the point of experience, especially international experiences importance. Two interviewees stressed the marital status and they pointed out the family life and their child's education, before the selection managers want these situations considered. One interviewee said that if you're family is not with you you cannot concentrate the job. Therefore, family issue should be considered. Two interviewees indicated that the technical knowledge and only one mentioned the training but according to him, it is not necessary.

Questionnaires

At employee side, results are completely different; 54 out of 92 employees indicated the necessity of training course before started to work with them and find it vital. 63 out of 92 need to communicate with their leaders easily and want their leader to show an effort for learning their own language. 45 of 92 participants pointed out the importance of experience and according to them leaders need to be tested before starting to work or hiring to the managerial position. 48 out of 92 employee pointed out the importance of orientation ability and according to them cross-cultural leader need to adapt easily and quickly the new culture.

Only 13 out of 92 employees considered managers' family life, even though it is important. Very few employee, only 8 out of 92 stressed the gender of a leader and all that 8 participants wanted to work with men.

4.4.Summary

With regard to the primary data, eight managers were interviewed in this research study. 3 face to face interviews were conducted in Turkey with managers whose nationalities are British, Iranian and Malaysian. Two of whom were conducted in England with managers whose nationalities are Turkish and German. Two were conducted in United Arab Emirates and their nationalities are Turkish and British. Finally one was conducted in Germany with a Turkish manager.

Questionnaire was prepared by the researcher and in order to ensure data reliability and to prevent contamination, participants were identified by interviewed managers. Generally, all departments were represented by few employees. These findings relate directly to each of the research questions.

CHAPTER 5. ANALYSIS AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

Chapter 4 outlined the findings from the data which had been collected relating to the research project. Collected data were examined in chapter four, in this chapter data will be analysed and evaluate in order to support the research aim and objectives. Conclusions will be marked off related back to the research aims and ideas for further researches.

5.2. Critical evaluation of selected methodology

In this research study qualitative data collection method and interpretivist philosophy were adopted. As indicated by Saunders et.al. (2009) feeling researcher concerned with the feelings and attitudes and adopted interpretivist approach. The interpretivist approach aims to understand the impacts on cultural differences from the point of view of participants who are directly involved and it explicitly includes investigation of the context of those system and the approach assumes that human participants are able to influence their immediate surroundings, including other people (Heeks, 2002). By using an interpretivist approach this study was able to investigate the process of cross-cultural management variables from the perspective of the different actors involved.

Initially deductive form of enquiry was used for collecting documental information, literatures were reviewed for setting up the theoretical framework, then inductive approach used for analyzing qualitative data in order to making relationship between cross-cultural environment and leadership out.

The chosen form of collecting the data was semi-structured interviews and questionnaires. Researcher read sense into answers that respondent give to open-ended interviews which is the most popular approach is to treat respondents' answers as describing some facts or internal leadership experience (Silverman, 2005). Open-ended questions ensure researcher to ask following questions in order to ensure the accuracy of interpretation. When researcher have several research questions or want to use different methods or sources to corroborate each other, methodological triangulation can be used. The method of **triangulation** also enable to check the accuracy of what respondent tell by other observation (Silverman, 2005).

Interviewees were conducted with seven foreign leaders who lead people from different cultures. Five of them were carried out face-to-face and three were e-mailed interviewees. However, both

covered the same questions. The questionnaire focused on employees who are working with foreign leaders. The main advantages of face-to-face interviews was, it allowed the researcher “control” over the line of question and historical information was provided (Creswell, 2003).

In order to attempt to prove my hypotheses, focus groups were purposely chosen. Purposive sampling method was allowed to choose sample case and to think critically about the parameters of the studied population (Silverman, 2005). The Focus Groups were chosen because they fulfil two important criteria. Firstly they are managers who are directly report to foreign leaders and secondly at the same time they are employees who work closely with foreign managers.

The fact that focus groups are driven by researcher’s interests can also be a source of weakness. The researcher creates and directs the groups makes them distinctly less naturalistic than participant observation so there is always some residual uncertainty about the accuracy of what the participants say (Morgan, 1997). As indicated by Morgan, in particular, there was a very real concern that the name of maintaining the questionnaires focus will influence the group’s interaction. Employees, whose chosen as the focus group were answered the questions about their managers and this influence was an issue of the objectivity. The other problem of questionnaires was the collecting them and transforming to quantitative data as percentage and ranking.

5.3. Introduction

Research aims

The aim of the research was to establish the level of understanding of cross-cultural leadership, what makes leadership more effective in a different culture, which impacts upon the role and also what more can be done to effectively supporting to employees.

5.3.1. The level of understanding of cross-cultural leadership (Defining cross-cultural leadership)

Even though some functions of leadership are similar across borders and cultures, as indicated by Phatak et. al. (2009) the definition of an effective leader varies greatly across cultures and generally accepted images of leader in different countries are important. Understanding the differences in the ways these leaders and their followers think, feel and act is a condition for bringing about worldwide solutions that work (Hofstede, 1991). As indicated by Phatak et.al. (2009) and Hofstede (1991) leadership requires certain characteristics which are widely recognised as being acceptable across cultures. Understanding this variety in terms of followers thinking and acting serves the success to leaders.

With regard to understanding what effective leadership means in different parts of the world, in other words cross-cultural leadership, participants were asked the meaning of leadership and its cross-cultural versions. One point that was commonly pointed out was that the leader must influence and inspire followers. Three out of eight participants stressed ability, two out of eight effect people and two of them indicated the importance of having vision. As mentioned at Chapter 2, there are many definitions of leadership. Nahavandi (2006) summarized these definitions and indicated three common elements that should be possessed by a leader. First, the leader is a group phenomenon; there can be no leaders without followers. Second, leaders use influence to guide others through a certain course of action or toward the achievement of certain goals and third, the presence of leaders assumes some form of hierarchy within a group. In some cases, the hierarchy is formal and well defined, with the leader at the top; in other cases, it is informal and flexible.

When looking the employees view, 78% employee, 72 out of 92, see their leaders role in their organizations as inspiring and energizing them. 68 employees stressed the importance of empowering subordinates and 62 out of 92, %67 employee defining leadership as built team and coalitions. Focus group was also questioned for admired leadership characteristics and employees with %82 percentage indicated that the leader able to inspire followers.

Yukl(2002), Northouse(2010), Wright(2006), Gill(2006) and Nahavandi (2006) same as many researcher, stressed the importance of influence on leadership effectiveness. Leadership is relationship of influence (Wright, 2006), leadership occurs only when people are influenced to do what is ethical and beneficial for the organization and themselves (Yukl, 2002), leadership involves influence, without influence, leadership does not exist (Northouse, 2010), and Gill (2006) also indicated that 'if leadership is a process, It is about influencing other people and this requires knowing oneself, knowing those other people and knowing how to influence them. Finally, according to Nahavandi(2006), leader as any person who influences individuals and groups within an organization.

Both managers and employees are aware that the main characteristics of leadership are influencing and inspiring others, thus it can be said that there is a strong relationship between leadership and the ability to influence others.

All interviewees were asked if there were any differences between leading people from their own culture and leading people from different cultures and if so, what the differences are. 6 out of 8 managers quickly recognised and identified the fundamental differences between the two, saying that they were totally different. One participant indicated that it depends on your international experience and that if you have enough international experience and training, it is not so different.

The vast majority of participants stressed the importance of learning about culture and the importance of being aware of cultural differences. Cultural knowledge provides insight into people and cultural awareness and skill can be helpful in influencing organizational culture (Harris et. al., 2004) and a clear implication for business leaders in the global context is the need to become aware and respectful of cultural differences and cultural perspectives (Hughes et. al. 2009).

Identifying the priorities of employees to a cross-cultural leader

In order to identify employees' cross-cultural leadership views and desired cross-cultural leadership characteristics, both questions were asked to employees. These two questions show us which characteristics are desired and which ones are lacking in their leaders. 68 out of 92 employees think their leader is *persistent*; staying fixed on goals despite interference which is a majority of employees (74 %), even though only 26 out of 92 indicate this characteristics as a desired one (figure...) Nearly the same percentage of participants (72 %) think that their leader is *diligent*, hard working. However only 35 of 92 participants indicated this characteristic as a desired quality approximately, nearly one third of participants assume that it should be. 63 out of 92 employees (68 %) find their leaders *dependable*, consistent and reliable. 68 % of participants believe that their leader is acting with certainty despite only 21 of them seeing this characteristic as desirable.

The questionnaire result shows that only 19 out of 92 participants find their leader friendly, even though 62 % employee would like their leader to be friendlier. A second rare characteristic is being emphatic; only 21 people referred to this characteristic. This questionnaire's most curious data relates to the emphatic leadership characteristic. Only 21 out of 92 find their leader friendly, even though 83 of 92 (90 %) of participants want to work with a friendlier leader.

Questionnaires show that employees expect their foreign leaders to be friendlier and they do not find that their leaders show enough empathy. They would prefer their leaders to focus less on targets and goals and more on soft skills. Therefore, it can be seen that an important element of leadership effectiveness in the eyes of employees involves having a leader who is both friendly and shows empathy and furthermore that there is a strong relationship between cross-cultural leadership and the ability to show empathy and a friendly attitude towards employees.

As indicated by Phatak...) "Characteristics of Global Leadership are an inquiring mind, integrity, the ability to manage uncertainty and tension and emotional connections with people throughout the company's worldwide operations and should have the skills and abilities to interact and manage people from diverse cultural backgrounds who work in the multinational or global corporation in different parts of the world. "

5.3.2. What makes an effective cross-cultural leader?

According to Hughes et. al (2009) There are various ways to measure the effects of leaders on subordinates and organizations although the leader's behaviour or personality traits will probably play a key role in these indices.

In order to analyze leadership effectiveness in different cultures, 8 interviewees were questioned about certain parameters. The essential issue relates to what leaders need in order to be effective.

Five out of eight managers pointed out the importance of cultural awareness. According to one interviewee, leaders should understand the cultural environment, another interviewee pointed out the importance of knowledge related to culture, in other words cultural awareness.

When asked “Which characteristic makes you an effective cross-cultural leader?”, two interviewees answered this question by indicating that awareness of people’s expectations in another culture and the ability to understand other employees’ culture. 62% identified cultural awareness as a crucial factor for efficiency in another culture. Empathy was indicated by two participants as critical in order to be effective in another culture. Two interviewees made the point that the key to the success of the managing cross-culture is work experience, particularly international experience which makes leading different cultures easier.

Identifying and dealing with the priorities of the employees

The findings from the data collected from questionnaires indicate the key factor in being effective or being seen as effective to managers and employees is; understanding and identifying with others, shortly; able to make empathy, being an emphatic person. Today’s effective leadership skills have been described to depend, in part, on the understanding of emotions and the abilities associated with emotional intelligence (Benjamin Palmer, *Leadership and Organizational Development Journal*, 2001, Vol.22, Nr.1.). Czinkota et.al., (2009) also indicate the importance of empathy as the traits that have been suggested as necessary for the international manager describes ‘a flexible personality, with broad intellectual horizons, impeccable educational values of cultural empathy, general friendliness, patience and prudence, impeccable educational and professional credentials, creative resourcefulness and respect of peers.

This questionnaire’s most curious data relates to the emphatic leadership characteristic. Secondly, employees want to work with an articulate leader, which means the ability to communicate effectively with others. In this regard the importance of language is significant. According to Hofstede (1991) in most intercultural encounters the parties speak different mother languages and as a leader without knowing the language, one misses a lot of the subtleties of a culture and is forced to remain a relative outsider. A Global leader, should have the skills and abilities to interact and manage people from diverse cultural background and who work in the multinational or global corporation in different parts of the world (Phatak et.al., 2009).

5.3.3. Cultural differences and implications on leadership effectiveness

The role of national culture and potential national cultural differences has become an increasingly important part of the business environment as a result of the increase in globalisation, with more and more countries looking to operate outside their home base and thus finding that they are coming into increasing contact with different cultures (Brooks et.al. 2004). On managers’ side the

main difficulties of leading cross cultural employees, six out of the eight participants indicated communication as a main problem which was also indicated by language as an admired leadership ability. Some participants stressed language and some others non-verbal (body) language. However, they all mentioned the importance of communication. Language and non-verbal language is also problem within employees, nearly half of them (43 out of 92) has live this problem frequently or fairly often, non-verbal language is also create a problem between managers and employees in cross-cultural organizations. 33 out of 92 employees frequently or 24 out of 92 employee sometimes feel this differences as a problem. Four out of eight managers stressed cultural beliefs. Respecting beliefs and attitudes were also pointed by employees, when they were asked for admired leadership characteristics, %90 of them had indicated to work with emphatic leader, who can understand others; beliefs, attitudes, values.

Every culture distinguishes itself from others by the specific solutions it chooses to certain problems which reveal themselves as dilemmas (Trompenaars and Turner, 2000) and every culture differ from one another just as individuals differ from one another (Hughes et.al 2009) Significant “cultural” differences are evident across organisations owned and managed by individuals of one nationality and significant “cultural” similarities are evident across organisations owned and managed by individuals of different nationalities. Many other factors such as the legal, economic and regulatory context of the organisation influence its values, orientations and practices more profoundly than the national culture of its owners and managers. (Suku Bhaskaran, Victoria University, Melbourne, Australia Nishal Sukumaran, The Melbourne Business School, Melbourne, Australia, Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal Volume 14 Number 1 2007 pp. 54-67)

The role of national culture and potential national cultural differences has become an increasingly important part of the business environment as a result of the increase in globalisation, with more and more countries looking to operate outside their home base and thus finding that they are coming into increasing contact with different cultures (Brooks et.al. 2004) There is undoubtedly important that cultural dimensions which come into play as managers manage in corporations around the world. At the same time there are the developing and influential social, political and economic forces of and changes brought about by industrialisation and post-industrialisation that are to a great extent shaping the developing and developed world in an uncertain way (Steve Mc Kenna, Leadership and Organizational Development Journal, 1998, Vol.19, Nr.2)

Rugman and Brewer (2001) indicate that cultural differences cause four kind of problems in international business negotiations – at the levels of; Language, Nonverbal behaviours, values, and thinking and decision-making processes.

Language is a factor that greatly affects cultural stability and when people from different areas speak the same language, culture spreads easily (Daniels and Radebaugh, 2001)

5.3.4. Cultural Dimensions and leadership effectiveness

For this research study, questionnaires conducted in different four countries with 92 employees. 19 out of 92 from England, 48 from Turkey, 7 from Germany and 18 from United Arab Emirates. In order to analysing how and why people from various cultures behave as they do, by using Hofstede’s cultural dimension it will explain.

Hofstede’s cultural dimensions	England	Turkey	Germany	United Arab Emirates	GLOBE Overall
Power distance	3.9	6.1	4.1	8.2	5.17
Uncertainty Avoidance	4.4	5.9	3.7	8.6	4.16
Individualism	12.8	8.1	12.2	5.0	Na
Masculinity	5.9	6.0	3.5	13.4	3.37

Table6. Hofstede’s dimensions of current research study

The first of these dimensions is power distance which represents the social distance between people of different rank. If we look at United Arab Emirates with a high power distance score, this would suggest that there is a clear gap between superiors and subordinates in this country. This would be reflected in the way that superiors are addressed (formal or informal) and the willingness or unwillingness to question any decision made by a superior, in a high power-distance country superiors’ decisions would be accepted without discussion and they would carry great respect. This is very common in Asian cultures where this is underpinned by the Confucian philosophy which encourages respect for superiors and elders (Hofstede, 1991)

Comparing the GLOBE overall score, United Arab Emirates and Turkey are taken place above to overall score. In countries with high power distance, managers make autocratic and paternalistic decisions and the subordinates do as they are told. In countries with moderate to low power distance which Turkey could be acceptable in this line, people put a high value on independence, managers consult with subordinates before making decisions, and there is fairly strong work ethic (Rugman and Hodgetts, 2000)

Low power-distance countries would suggest cultures where managers may be challenged more openly and where respect may draw more from ability than seniority (Phatak et.al., 2005)

The second dimension identified by Hofstede is individualism which reflects the extent to which an individual relies on a group or collectivist approach to issues (a low individualism score) or the extent to which the individual takes individual initiatives to solve problems or make decisions (a high individualism score)(Hofstede, 1991). Table... shows a high score for the England and Germany, the

most individualistic cultures, whereas Turkey and UA reflects a much more collectivist approach (hence a low individualism score), which again is quite common in Asian cultures (Hofstede, 1991)

The third dimension identified by Hofstede is uncertainty avoidance, which is the extent to which people threatened by ambiguous situations and have created institutions and beliefs for minimizing or avoiding these uncertainties (Rugman and Hodgettes, 2000). When there is a high score for uncertainty avoidance, like United Arab Emirates, it suggests a culture where people are unhappy with ambiguous situations and prefer more direction. It also suggests that in these countries it will be hard to undertake rapid changes in the organisation because this would probably cause anxiety and stress, as the nature of rapid change is that it does lead to uncertainty. According to the data, England has a high level of uncertainty avoidance whereas in a Germany uncertainty would be much more tolerated and thus change programmes might be likely to receive less resistance (Phatak et.al., 2005)

The final dimension identified by Hofstede was that of masculinity, which one of the more complexes of his variables is probably (Phatak et.al., 2009). It reflects values which are widely considered to be more 'masculine', such as assertiveness, competitiveness and the need to achieve results. A low masculinity figure like Germany and England, suggests a higher degree of co-operation. In low masculine, feminine societies everybody is supposed to be modest and both men and women are allowed to be tender and to be concerned with relationship.

This value can also reflect the level of discrimination against women in the organisation. It might be hard for a woman manager to progress in a high-masculinity culture or to have the same degree of respect as a male manager (Hofstede, 1991). In UAE and Turkey which has high masculinity index in Hofstede's survey and where it is seen as very difficult for female managers to progress up the corporate ladder whereas In England and Germany gender role differences are minimized (Northouse, 2010)

5.3.5. What needs to change further in order to make a positive impact upon the role of cross-cultural leadership?

Cultural diversity affects the way leaders go about defining their roles as leaders and applying themselves to the responsibilities of leadership (Robinson, 2008) and the emerge of leadership, especially the way a leader influences followers is often a product of cultural factors (Phatak et.al., 2009).

When asked "What needs to change further in order to make a positive impact upon the role of cross-cultural leadership?", four interviewees answered this question by indicating that the ability to effective communication skill and the importance of experience. Even though, the traits that have been suggested as necessary for the international manager describes 'a flexible personality, with broad intellectual horizons, impeccable educational values of cultural empathy, general friendliness, patience and prudence, impeccable educational and professional credentials, creative

resourcefulness and respect of peers (Czinkota et.al., 2009), managers didn't indicate this skills anymore.

The findings from the data collected from questionnaires indicate the key factor in being effective or being seen as effective to managers and employees is; understanding and identifying with others. When asked "what kind of managers have to be chosen for multinational business" a vast majority of them believe the importance of training programmes, even though it didn't indicated by managers. Employees need to communicate with their managers, thus, expected to speak their own languages by the managers.

Of the Fortune 500 Firms surveyed, 85 percent think they do not have an adequate number of effective global leaders and 65 percent believe that their existing leaders need to acquire additional skills and knowledge before they can meet or exceed needed capabilities in the global marketplace (Phatak et.al., 2009)

5.3.6.Conclusions

A Global leader, should have the skills and abilities to interact and manage people from diverse cultural background and who work in the multinational or global corporation in different parts of the world (Phatak et.al., 2009) and according to Northouse (2010) global leaders need to develop five cross-cultural competencies; First, leaders need to understand business, political and cultural environment worldwide. Second, they need to learn the perspectives, tastes, trends and technologies of many other cultures. Third, they need to be able to work simultaneously with people from many cultures. Fourth, leaders must be able to adapt to living and communicating in other cultures and fifth, they need to learn to relate to people from other cultures from a position of equality rather than cultural superiority.

The findings of the research show that working within different cultures requires very special leadership qualities. To be an effective leader in different cultures is highly complex and place very specific demands on a manager. The result of the survey emphasizes that the biggest problem facing foreign leaders working overseas relates to language even when they can speak the mother tongue of their fellow employees. Employees' level of education, ethical and religious differences and international business experience also have impact heavily on the role.

Yukl(2002), Northouse(2010), Wright(2006), Gill(2006) and Nahavandi (2006) same as many researcher, stressed the importance of influence on leadership effectiveness. Leadership is relationship of influence (Wright, 2006), leadership occurs only when people are influenced to do what is ethical and beneficial for the organization and themselves (Yukl, 2002), leadership involves influence, without influence, leadership does not exist (Northouse, 2010), and Gill (2006) also indicated that 'if leadership is a process, It is about influencing other people and this requires knowing oneself, knowing those other people and knowing how to influence them. Finally, according

to Nahavandi(2006), leader as any person who influences individuals and groups within an organization.

Both managers and employees are aware that the main characteristics of leadership are influencing and inspiring others, thus it can be said that there is a strong relationship between leadership and the ability to influence others.

Employees want to see their manager as a leader with some specific traits, such as motivating and inspiring them. If their leaders coming from different culture, expectations are changing and some special expectations are appearing. Communication is main problem, even employees or managers aware of this difficulty and its affects. Employees want to work with an articulate leader, which means the ability to communicate effectively with others. In this regard the importance of language is significant. According to Hofstede (1991) in most intercultural encounters the parties speak different mother languages and as a leader without knowing the language, one misses a lot of the subtleties of a culture and is forced to remain a relative outsider. A Global leader, should have the skills and abilities to interact and manage people from diverse cultural background and who work in the multinational or global corporation in different parts of the world (Phatak et.al., 2009).

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APPENDIX 2

Data Display Table (Analysis from semi-structured interviews)

Q1 What is leadership, what is leadership role?

Interview 1 Leadership is ability to affect people, influence their ideas and ability to encourage them toward goal attainment.

Interview 2. Depends on your leadership style, but generally leadership is an influence issue. Every leader in the world remembered by influencing groups. For example, Mandela is viewed as a highly effective leader. He had a vision, charisma and leading ability that change South Africa's future,

Interview 3. Leadership is an issue that means different things to different people, but general idea, there is no doubt that; leaders act as coaches and advisers may use delegation to help followers.

Interview 4. Leadership means responsibility, huge responsibility. If a person viewed as a leader. It means he is carrying enormous responsibility for changing current situation. Leadership is about creating differences by effecting followers.

Interview 5. Some people inherit leadership position and it makes them a leader.

Interview 6. Leadership is an art that you have to play different role in different situation, Leaders able to choose correct style in different circumstances, sometimes directive, sometimes friendly and sometimes strict.

Interview 7. Leadership is creating an inspiring vision for the future.

Interview 8. Leadership is looking ahead and creating something really meaningful.

Q2. Is leading people from different culture different than leading people from your own own culture? And what is the differences.

Interview 1. Not really, if you have enough international experience, it doesn't make to much sense.

Interview 2. There is big differences between them. You should learn and aware of culture what you are working in and must respect their culture.

Interview 3. It is different, you must be careful for working with foreign employees, first of all, you should respect their own culture and learn their cultural differences.

Interview 4. Sometimes yes, sometimes no. As a leader who doesn't come from followers culture, you should have some specific leadership skills on your own. For example you should be able to transform your leadership style according to circumstances. Cross-cultural leadership need this transform.

Interview 5. It is different, if you are aware of the culture and beliefs of the people in a country, it makes all your leadership charisma and success destroy.

Interview 6. If you are an enough international experience and training with this issue, it is not. Leadership is leadership and doesn't only depend on cultural differences. It is an important

issue but leadership is an ability of creating new vision, you can create it everywhere.

Interview 7. It is different and a leader who works in different culture must learn to shape cultures, For this reason, you must understand the cultures you are exposed.

Interview 8. Leading people in your own country is like leading your family, you know their behaviours, attitudes, weaknesses, rules, characteristics. But leading people from different culture means you must learn all these characteristics from the start.

Q3. Which leadership characteristics are required in cross-cultural environment?

(Self-confident, determined, persistent, determined, dependable, friendly, emphatic, self-assured, trustworthy, perceptive, outgoing, diligent, conscientious, articulate...)

Interview 1. Articulate and conscientious

Interview 2. Articulate and friendly

Interview 3. Emphatic and trustworthy

Interview 4. Self-confident, emphatic and conscientious

Interview 5. Emphatic and articulate

Interview 6. Sensitive and emphatic

Interview 7. Outgoing and emphatic

Interview 8. Sensitive, friendly, determined and emphatic.

Q4. What is main difficulties of leading people from different culture?

Interview 1. There is no doubt that; Language, beliefs and attitudes and feeling habits.

Interview 2. Communication, Language, but not only verbal also body language, human and organisational relationship and beliefs.

Interview 3. Food habits, communication, ethnic and religious system and their beliefs.

Interview 4. Countries political system and bureaucratic applications.

Interview 5. Values and norms are different every culture, in some cultures culture is setting norms of behaviour for that society. Understand values and norm everytime biggest issue in different cultures.

Interview 6. Language is biggest problem every time, even though you are master in.

Interview 7. When interact with people from another culture as a leader effective communication is main problem, not only verbal also un verbal and then beliefs, feeding habits and time consciousness.

Interview 8. Values and communication style and also unknown beliefs.

Q5. What makes you an effective cross-cultural leader?

Interview 1. My work experience and aware of what effects people in different culture. Ability to making empathy, ability to speak their own language and have been living more than ten years in this culture.

Interview 2. Coming from same religious, coming from very close habits, creating organizational culture, always involved in their celebrations and special events, find out what they expect to me

Interview 3. Cross-cultural leader need to be less ethnocentric*. Because people tend to give priority to their own values. I , as a leader always managed to understand another persons culture and respect them.

Interview 4. Leaders need to understand cultural environments worldwide and must be able to adapt to living and communicating in other cultures. I think, my work experience helped me too much. Last twenty years of my work experience passed in international companies and I think I trained myself.

Interview 5. Team building ability and effective communication style.

Interview 6. Hard to make judgement about yourself, however, I can tell; ability to deal with different kind of people, interact and manage people from different parts of the world.

Interview 7. Knowledge about cultural differences and respect it. Ability to emphasize with them and accept employees with their own values.

Interview 8. Possessing emotional intelligence, I mean ability to understand with my emotions.

Q6. What is your employees' approach against to you as a leader who comes from different culture?

Interview 1. It depends on person education degree and experience and of course language. If a person is really self confident and able to speak English well, we can communicate easily and their assumption, obviously more friendly and acceptable. But on the other hand some employees haven't got any working experience abroad and they are fairly worried about communicate and work closely.

Interview 2. Good, we haven't got any problem. If a leader able to manage organizational culture successfully, they don't assume you as a foreigner.

Interview 3. Some are working to me very closely because they can speak at least one language very well. It shows that language is crucial in international organizations. Some employees have overseas experience and it also affect their assumption. Not only work experience, even education experience abroad is making employee more flexible.

Interview 4. Very good, I am not accepted as a leader if they don't believe and follow my emotions. We have a really good communication and relationship, my cultural origin and their cultural origin doesn't cause distress anymore.

Interview 5. I haven't any idea.

Interview 6. I think they accepted me who I am, we haven't lived any problem till now, sometimes language might be a problem but we are getting through.

Interview 7. Good, very good. We haven't ever lived any stress with them. Especially if they have an abroad experience it is making our connection better.

Interview 8. It should be asked them.

Q7. How can you describe your leadership style through the attached "Situational Leadership" chart?

Interview 1. High directive and High Supportive

Interview 2. High Supportive and Low Directive

Interview 3. High Directive and High Supportive

Interview 4. High Supportive and High Supportive

Interview 5. High Directive and Low Supportive

Interview 6. High Supportive and Low Directive Behaviour

Interview 7. Low supportive and Low Directive

Interview 8. High Supportive and Low Directive Behaviour

Q8. What needs to change further in order to make a positive impact upon the role of cross-cultural leadership?

Interview 1. Before the selection, some criteria's must supplied. For example language, they have must experience, New managers are able to adapt easily the new culture. After starting to work in a new culture, as indicated before, have to respect a new culture and understand new culture and dimensions.

Interview2. Technical Training programmes might be applied but it is nor necessary too much.

Interview3. A new leaders need to learn technologies of other culture

Interview4. Leaders must be able to adapt to living in other cultures. Family is important You should live with your family otherwise, cannot concentrate more. Leader obviously need to posses leadership characteristics.

Interview5. Age, experience, language and leadership characteristics are important. But, and understand new culture and dimensions. communicate with others and managing to cultural differences are also important. In the future before selecting a manager to abroad, they must considered.

Interview6. Should be selected carefully, managers view must be considered because it is not easy. A good life standards should be supplied to all family, you cannot effective without family, it is vital and also experience, especially international experience must.

Interview 7. in another culture you need to orient easily and quickly and need to adapt the new culture. That's why, managers should chosen according to leadership style and still. Transformation is vital, you need to posses transformational leadership abilities and must be communicate with them, so you need to speak and understand their own language.

Interview 8. It is an interesting experience and your willing is important, you need to work abroad and for future, managers family situation must be considered because some countries is not suitable for child education. Experience is important, you need to have international experience and technical knowledge.

APPENDIX 2. QUESTIONNAIRES

1. What is leadership? What is leaders role in your organisation?					Sum of responses	%
Leaders;						
Create a vision					35	38.04
Clarify big picture					12	13.04
Set strategies					42	45.65
Communicate goals					51	55.43
Seek commitment					36	39.13
Built teams and coalitions					62	67.39
Inspire and energize					72	78.26
Empower subordinates					68	73.91
Satisfy unmet needs					8	8.70
2. What is admired leadership characteristic would be?						
HONEST					67	72.83
FORWARD-LOOKING					42	45.65
INSPIRING					76	82.61
COMPETENT					43	46.74
Fair-minded					26	28.26
Supportive					51	55.43
Broad-minded					52	56.52
Intelligent					36	39.13
Straightforward					12	13.04
Dependable					59	64.13
Courageous					23	25.00
Cooperative					57	61.96
Imaginative					59	64.13
Caring					20	21.74
Determined					23	25.00
Mature					8	8.70
Ambitious					11	11.96
Loyal					8	8.70
Self-Controlled					16	17.39
Independent					6	6.52

3. What is your current leader's personal characteristic, as a cross-cultural leader?			
1.Articulate; Communicates effectively with others	46		50.00
2.Perceptive; is discerning and insightful	49		53.26
3.Self-confident; Believes in himself/herself and his/her ability	35		38.04
4.Self-assured; in secure with self, free of doubts	56		60.87
5.Persistent;; Stays fixed on goals, despite interference	68		73.91
6.Determined; Takes a firm stand, acts with certainty	59		64.13
7.Trusworthy; Is authentic and inspires confidence	29		31.52
8. Dependable; is consistent and reliable	63		68.48
9.Friendly; Shows kindness and warmth	23		25.00
10.Outgoing; Talks freely, gets along well with others	19		20.65
11.Conscientious; Is thorough, organized and controlled	36		39.13
12. Diligent; is persistent, hard working	66		71.74
13. Sensitive; Shows tolerance, is tactful and sympathetic	24		26.09
14.Empathic; Understands others, identifies with others	21		22.83
4. What is admired cross-cultural leader characteristics?			
1.Articulate; Communicates effectively with others	79		85.87
2.Perceptive; is discerning and insightful	73		79.35
3.Self-confident; Believes in himself/herself and his/her ability	12		13.04
4.Self-assured; in secure with self, free of doubts	9		9.78
5.Persistent;; Stays fixed on goals, despite interference	26		28.26
6.Determined; Takes a firm stand, acts with certainty	21		22.83
7.Trusworthy; Is authentic and inspires confidence	46		50.00
8. Dependable; is consistent and reliable	52		56.52
9.Friendly; Shows kindness and warmth	59		64.13
10.Outgoing; Talks freely, gets along well with others	61		66.30
11.Conscientious; Is thorough, organized and controlled	39		42.39
12. Diligent; is persistent, hard working	35		38.04
13. Sensitive; Shows tolerance, is tactful and sympathetic	67		72.83
14.Empathic; Understands others, identifies with others	83		90.22

5. Which one of these cultural differences do you live as a problem with your leader and how often?				
Language				
Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
6		42	12	31
Nonverbal language				
Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
14	21	24	26	7
Religion				
Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
56	8	12	13	3
Values and norms				
Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	28	47	11	6
Dress and Appearance				
Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
46	27	12	7	

Beliefs and attitudes				
Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently , if not always
3	1	24	56	8
Work Habits				
Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently , if not always
5	17	29	30	11
Relationship				
Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently , if not always
13	14	19	13	33
Time and Age Consciousness				
Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently , if not always
23	15	48	4	2
Please indicate if any other difficulties that you lived?				
Foreign leaders cannot understand our family relations; Cross-cultural leaders aren't able to be friend with us; We can't arrange intimacy degree with them; They don't interested in our private problem like our own cultured managers.				

6. To cope with cultural differences, in terms of leadership effectiveness, please put in order to one to five, most important one would be 1, less important one 5.is ?

1. The leader must be able to perceive the problem, to have insight into the culture and its dysfunctional elements.
2. Leadership requires not only insight into the dynamics of culture but also the motivation and skill to intervene in one's own cultural process.
3. The leader must have the emotional strength to absorb much of the anxiety that change brings with it as well as the ability to remain supportive to the organization through the transition pace, even if group members become angry and obstructive.
4. Leaders must have the ability to induce "cognitive redefinition" by articulating and selling new visions and concepts or creating the conditions for others to find these new concepts.
5. Leader must be able not only to lead but also to listen, to involve the group in achieving its own insights into its cultural dilemmas and to be genuinely participative in his or her approach to learning and change.

	Most	1	2	3	4	5	Less
1st option		7	3	16	17	46	
2nd option		17	34	19	25	9	
3rd option		14	18	20	15	5	
4th option		5	0	37	31	32	
5th option		49	37	0	4	0	

7. Dimensions of Culture Questionnaire

Instructions; Using the following scales, circle the number that most accurately reflects your response to each of the statements. (The items on this questionnaire are adapted from the items used in GLOBE studies to assess the dimensions of culture) (Northouse, 2010)

Power Distance							
1. In this society, followers are expected to:							
Question their leaders when in disagreement						Obey their leaders without question	
1		2		3		4 5 6 7	
2. In this society, power is:							
Shared through the society						Concentrated at the top	
1		2		3		4 5 6 7	
Institutional Collectivism							
1. In this society, leaders encourage group loyalty even if individual goals suffer.							
Strongly disagree						Strongly agree	
1		2		3		4 5 6 7	
2. The economic system in this society is designed to maximize:							
Individual interests				Collective interests			
1		2		3		4 5 6 7	

Uncertainty Avoidance							
1. In this society, orderliness and consistency are stressed, even at the expense of experimentation and innovation							
strongly disagree							Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. In this society, societal requirements and instructions are spelled out in detail so citizens know what they are expected to do.							
strongly disagree							Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gender Egalitarianism							
1. In this society, boys are encouraged more than girls to attain a higher education.							
strongly disagree							Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. In this society, who is more likely to serve in a position of high office?							
Men							Women
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Do you have any idea or recommendation for the future?

Thank
you all....

