Dean's Welcome

Bruce E. Winston
Regent University

Welcome to the renewed and rebuilt International Journal of Leadership Studies (IJLS). It has been my desire for some time now, to see this journal, formerly known as the Journal of Organizational Leadership, redeveloped and reinvigorated, and I am grateful for Dr. Fields' apt leadership as the editor. Of particular interest is the change in the name of the journal to incorporate an international appeal, which allows us to include work from around the world and encourage the collective work of scholars from different countries, cultures, and disciplines. This journal is just one example of increased leadership research offered through Regent University, which has been educating Ph.D.s in organizational leadership since 1996.

The IJLS is intentionally free of charge so that its articles are available to a wide audience via the Internet. This aligns with the School of Leadership Studies' desire to be a resource on the Internet where people can come to find information and knowledge about leadership and organizational studies. Topics and methods of inquiry are deliberately broad in focus and scope in order to allow a diverse approach through the humanities and social sciences. By doing so, we can bring together practitioners and researchers whose desire is to explore and expand the field of leadership knowledge.

Bruce E. Winston, Ph.D.
Dean, School of Leadership Studies

International Journal of Leadership Studies, Vol. 1 Iss. 1, 2005, p.1

ISSN 1554-3145

From the Editor

Dail Fields
Regent University

This inaugural issue of the *International Journal of Leadership Studies* is the start of what we intend to be a respected resource for research and theory in the field of leadership studies. We have been fortunate to receive an invited contribution from Charles Manz and his colleagues, Jose Alves and D. Anthony Butterfield that challenges our thinking about leadership models and theory in Asia. Their integration of Chinese philosophy into leadership presents a perspective that invites application to leadership in other settings, such as Europe and America. Eric Romero next takes us into the rather tricky world of ethnic identity and leader prototypes, examining some of the subtle differences that may be present among Hispanics in the United States. His findings have practical significance for managers in an ethnically diverse workforce. In the third study, Audra Mockaitis explores the relatively little studied, but culturally rich Baltic region, examining similarities and differences in implicit leadership models in Lithuania, Estonia, and Poland. Next M. Shane Wood explores the intriguing concept of shared leadership within management teams. His findings about the role of behaviors experienced by team members increases our understanding of the dynamics that influence the emergence of leadership sharing. Finally, Kristin Straiter explores how trust of subordinates and an organization may affect the well being of supervisors. This study gives us a rare look at the leadership issues found at the middle ground of many organizations and presents useful practical results.

In addition to the studies noted above, we have introduced a Practitioner's Forum which will feature research translations such as the one provided for this issue by Jacque King concerning work and family conflict. In the future, we plan to add case studies in leadership development to this forum and welcome new contributions to this area.

As our team has learned first hand over the past 8 months, peer-reviewed journals like this take longer than expected to come together. Julia Mattera, our managing editor, and I owe thanks to our editorial board members, our copy editor, Myra Dingman, and our dynamic web duo, Doris Gomez and Danny Varghese.

Dail Fields, Ph.D.
Editor

ISSN 1554-3145

IJLS
INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF LEADERSHIP STUDIES

Developing Leadership Theory in Asia: The Role of Chinese Philosophy

JOSÉ C. ALVES
CHARLES C. MANZ
D. ANTHONY BUTTERFIELD
University of Massachusetts

This paper is about leadership, culture, and theory development. We argue that development of leadership theories in other cultures has to account for philosophical assumptions and frames of reference underpinning those cultures. Specifically, we point out that leadership theory in China has to account for notions of Chinese philosophy. We start our argument by making a case for studying management and leadership from a Chinese perspective. Then we review Western perspectives of management and leadership and introduce the concept of culture to indicate that the notions of management and leadership may have different meanings in different cultures. After this, we present two Chinese approaches to management – socio-behavioral and philosophical approaches – and present several notions of Chinese philosophy. Finally, we illustrate how these notions can be used in interpreting leadership in Asia. Implications and discussion are also presented.

It is not surprising to us that leadership has interested human beings for centuries, as reflected in the works of Confucius, Plato, or Machiavelli, and that leadership has always been a contested terrain (Sorenson, 2000). What surprises us, as Sorenson pointed out, is the fact that despite being an interdisciplinary field, leadership, as taught and studied in North America, has been largely influenced by psychology, social sciences, and business management. Thus, we are interested in knowing why leadership scholars emphasize the behavioral sciences and pay much less attention to the humanities. We are also interested in the role of philosophy in the study of leadership, which seems to be a more central concern for ancient scholars in China, Greece, and Rome. Furthermore, we are especially interested in learning more about why, given the global nature of contemporary business, we do not hear much, and consequently we do not know much, about how other people and cultures approach this issue that in the West is called leadership.

Recently, these concerns were also recognized by James Burns (2005). Burns noted that during the last century leadership emerged as a distinct field of study, mainly in the United States, which is now seen as a multidisciplinary field that is also concerned with ethics and moral

International Journal of Leadership Studies, Vol. 1 Iss. 1, 2005, pp. 3-27

ISSN 1554-3145

orientations. These two interests reveal a general concern of leadership scholars for context and cultural matters.

The study of leadership in Asia has also regained impetus, possibly due to a combination of historical, social, economic, practical, and research conditions. From a historical viewpoint, Spence and Chin (1996) suggested that the 20th century was the century of China, and we believe that they referred to the significant political, social, cultural, and even economic transformations which China has had since the end of the Qing Dynasty in 1912. With the entry of China into the World Trade Organization, we speculate that the twenty-first century is going to be characterized by an increasing influence of Chinese companies, business persons, and leadership styles in the global economy, and that this will alter existing conceptions of business, management, and organizations, at least as they have been viewed in the West.

At a management and more practical level, we can also see a growing interest in leadership in Asia and China. This may be due to an increasing demand for leadership in Chinese companies (China Daily, 2005) and a general awareness that emerging Asian leaders will likely be shaped by their historical, cultural, and business contexts. Furthermore, also from a practical viewpoint, the importance of doing management and leadership research from an Asian perspective is illustrated at a macro level by recent economic debates between China and the United States. For example, regarding booming textile exports from China to the United States, in 2005, U.S. officials suggested that Chinese currency is undervalued by 15-40% to which the Chinese counterparts responded that the source of U.S. economic difficulties are instead internal (Economist, 2005). But one should look at these debates as also having a cultural dimension. For instance, Chinese businessmen noted that as Chinese companies seek to enter overseas markets, culture becomes the "biggest difficulty" (Lemon, 2005, p. 1).

From a theoretical viewpoint, we are also aware of an increasing interest in organizational research in the Chinese context (e.g., for a review, see Li & Tsui, 2002). One of the reasons for this is that conceptions of management, organizations, and leadership are different in the East and West, and this is largely due to differences between Chinese and Anglo-American cultures (Pun, Chin, & Lau, 2000). Stewart and Bennett (1991) argued that the Chinese way of thinking emphasizes more of the "synthetic" while the Americans focus more on the "analytical" (pp. 43-44). They noted that whereas the American way of thinking is essentially analytical, the Chinese way is "strongly relational and for this reason it lacks clarity from a Western point of view" (Steward & Bennett, 1991, pp. 43-44). Furthermore, added Stewart and Bennett (1991), the Chinese style "lacks the power of precise analysis and abstract classification, but it excels in identification by evoking concreteness, emotion, and commitment to action" (pp. 43-44). In the same line, and taking a more philosophical stand, Hall and Ames (1995) noted that the difference resides on "problematic thinking"; Chinese emphasize analogical and correlative thinking whereas Westerners draw on more causal thinking.

Research focus

This paper focuses on the reasons that underpin Chinese and Western ways of thinking, and specifically we address the study of leadership from an Asian and Chinese perspective. We are aware that the history and context of China play an important role in the way Chinese understand the notion of leadership, which may not be necessarily the same as in the West, though at times both views seem to draw on similar terms, ideas, and concepts. For instance, it is suggested that the Chinese way of thinking is strongly relational, but the Western literature on

transformational leadership also acknowledges the role of social relations. The issue is whether the notion of *relations* carries the same meaning in China as in the West. We will clarify this throughout the paper. The fact that these issues may be addressed differently in American and Chinese reasoning should not be a surprise since organizational researchers have already suggested that *culture* (Smircich, 1983) and *frames of reference* (Shrivastava & Mitroff, 1984) shape ways of thinking of both the researchers and the researched. It seems that a source of difference between ways of thinking is related to culture and frames of reference. As such, we explore these two themes in this paper.

As Western researchers interested in Asia and China, we view the relation between leadership and culture in organizations as informed by globalization matters. In our view, a Chinese perspective of leadership is as much influenced by global business trends as it is a Western perspective. However, we consider that both Chinese and Western perspectives of leadership are distinct and grounded in different cultures and frames of reference. In practice, leaders are aware of environmental forces and able to balance social microcosms by addressing the *why* of work (charisma) and the *way* people work (administration) (Kets de Vries & Florent-Treacy, 1999). In other words, leaders in the global business environment have to be sensitive and aware of phenomena occurring at both individual and organizational levels. We view leadership in Asia as consisting of phenomena that are embedded in and shaped by both global and organizational realities.

One research effort interested in leadership and culture is the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) program (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). GLOBE is a cross-cultural longitudinal and multi-method research project in 62 nations that investigates the influence of societal culture and organizational culture in organizational leadership (House et al., 2004). As Scandura and Dorfman (2004) pointed out, despite its theoretical and methodological limitations, the GLOBE project showed that culture and leadership are two intricately related organizational dimensions worthy of further research, in particular because it provides evidence that leadership is different across cultures and suggests insights into what ways it may be different. Nevertheless, GLOBE is a project developed by Western educated researchers, and thereby largely influenced by Western perspectives. In contrast, our paper proposes a non-Western perspective of leadership, specifically a Chinese philosophy perspective, to understand the notion of leadership in one country, China.

We recognize GLOBE's significant contribution to the literature through its attempt to unveil the meanings of culture and leadership as understood by local societies. However, it is important to keep in mind that it does so by developing a framework of comparison that is largely Western influenced. That framework allows the characterization, measurement, and identification of leadership patterns within cultures and subsequent comparison across cultures. Its purpose is to find out how leadership is understood (differently) across nations, that is, what cultural values influence leadership practices. In contrast, in this paper we are less concerned with comparing how leadership in China differs from other countries, but rather, our aim is to examine the underlying roots of why leadership in China is different from other nations, namely from the West. In particular, our focus is on understanding the values and realities in China from a Chinese viewpoint rather than identifying cultural values and correspondent leadership patterns, as GLOBE does. As such, we draw on Chinese philosophy literature to reveal underlying conceptual structures of meaning.

Research Purpose

The purpose of this paper is not to argue that different cultures originate different understandings, since this has already been well documented in the West (e.g., Hofstede, 1980; Nisbett, 2003; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1988; Said, 1985). The purpose is also not to suggest how to deal with such cultural diversity in organizations which has been the object of extensive research as well (e.g., Gardenswartz, Rowe, Digh, & Bennett, 2003; Jackson & Ruderman, 1995). Instead, this paper is about how people from Asian cultures, specifically Chinese, understand business and management practices and particularly, how they understand leadership. To a certain extent, we can say that our perspective is consistent with Nisbett's (2003) research about how and why Asians and Westerners think differently. Yet our view is different from Nisbett's because, instead of focusing on cognition and psychology as he did, our paper focuses on values and philosophy. A priori we do not consider that the source of those differences is cognitive (psychology). We seek to inform differences in systems of thought by exploring frames of reference and the nature of values (philosophy) in both Asian and Western traditions.

Hereon, we will be using the term *framing* in the same context as defined by Shrivastava and Mitroff (1984). For them, frame of reference refers to the underlying assumptions of human inquiry and provides "the conceptual schemes, models, or theories and cognitive maps that the inquirer uses to order all information and to make sense of it" (Shrivastava & Mitroff, 1984, p. 19). From a Western viewpoint, frames of reference include societal, ontological, human nature, epistemological, and methodological assumptions (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). However, since the purpose of this discussion is to view leadership from Asian and Chinese perspectives, framing also includes Asian assumptions which, though they may be unknown to us, are essential for an accurate representation of an Asian perspective of the social world. To summarize, the purpose of this project is to explore the frames of reference used by Asian businessmen, particularly Chinese, to make sense of their world and specifically, of leadership.

A clarification is worthy at this point. Fairhurst and Sarr (1996) used the notion of framing in leadership contexts to refer to "a quality of communication that causes others to accept one meaning over another" (p. xi) with three components: language, thought, and forethought. To consider leadership as the creation and management of meaning has been suggested by other management scholars (e.g., Smircich & Morgan, 1982). We concur with Fairhust and Sarr that language is one of the most important components of framing. However, we think that leadership involves more than that. As Hodgkinson (1983) noted, if on the one hand, "the very terrain of leadership is linguistic," then on the other hand, "the battles fought on that terrain are affective and valuational and the unending work of leadership is not only to mediate and resolve conflict but from time to time to initiate it" (p. 203). Thus, we suggest that *the essence of leadership is not only how it happens in practice, for example through language, but also how that practice is framed by people's values and philosophical principles.*

Considering that language plays an important role in management, organizations, and leadership demands that we recognize matters of representation, both in practice and theory, in business and academic fields. (For an overview on language and discourse in organizations, see, for example: Grant, Hardy, Oswick, & Putnam, 2004; Putnam & Cooren, 2004). Although this paper does not focus on language per se, we are aware that language is a critical element in the constitution of organizations (Putnam & Cooren, 2004). Thus, how could we then assume similar

conceptions of management, organization, and leadership in social contexts that use distinct languages such as the East and West?

So far we have implied that an important source of the difference between Eastern and Western conceptions of management and leadership rests in philosophical principles. As we are particularly interested in how business leaders from Asia understand leadership, we think it is particularly important to learn about leadership through their own voices. To illustrate this, we include, in a later section, testimonies of Asian leaders about their understandings of leadership. Before addressing this qualitative data, however, it is important to explore how management and leadership have been understood in the West.

Management and Leadership in the West

The nature of leadership has long been an object of study in the management field. In this section, we address the relationship between management and leadership, and then we focus on the nature of leadership. For the first part, we revisit the classic historical works of three scholars – Chester I. Barnard, Mary Parker Follet, and Christopher Hodgkinson. We selected these scholars because they all viewed, however differently, leadership and values as essential aspects of management. Furthermore, they represent different scholarly traditions: Barnard represents a top-down rational approach to organizations; Follett, a bottom-up, humanistic perspective; and Hodgkinson, a more integrative and value-laden approach.

Chester Barnard (1886–1961)

Chester Barnard's conception of management, and more specifically in the executive functions, is based on the notion of top-down communication as the way to promote effective cooperation among the organization's constituencies. The degree of cooperation is dependent on the quality of leadership, which is "the name for relatively high personal capacity for both technological attainments and moral complexity, combined with propensity for consistency in conformance to moral factors of the individual" (Barnard, 1938, p. 288). Though Barnard recognized the complexity of cooperation, especially as it expands throughout the world, he assumed that leadership was essentially related with morals, the individual ability to sustain a stable character, and with responsibility, the power of individuals to control their own conduct. Moreover, Barnard considered morality to be deeply rooted in the past which suggests the importance of history and culture in understanding leadership. Last, he pointed out that as cooperation expands to all the world, conflict will necessarily increase simply because such cooperation will evoke multiple moral codes. Again, this signals the possibility of conflicting conceptions in the business world.

Mary Parker Follet (1868–1933)

Mary Parker Follet (1941) considered *relatedness* as the key concept in management, organizations, and leadership. She was aware that conceptions of leadership reflect distinct definitions of management; her concern about leadership was not to discuss what each theory proposed, but instead, to understand the changes between "old" and "new" theories of leadership. For her, the reason for a renewal of the philosophy of management and leadership theories was the fact that the old philosophy did not address the new "methods of management…new

interrelations of duties and responsibilities" (Follet, 1941, p. 255). For example, in commenting about how old theories focused on issues of a leader's "manipulation" of the followers, she argued, "I do not think that this conception can last long now that everyone is studying what they call applied psychology; for if employers can learn how to manipulate employees, employees can learn how to manipulate employers, and where are we then?" (Follet, 1941, p. 252).

For Follet, leadership is all about inter-relatedness, and it goes to those who are able to find relational significance from everyone's experiences. The leader is anyone "who can organize the experience of the group, make it all available and most effectively available, and thus get the full power of the group. It is by organizing experience that we transform experience into power" (Follet, 1941, p. 258). While the leader's functions are to coordinate, define purpose, and anticipate, Follett pointed out that the essence of leadership is "not to make decisions for his subordinates, but to teach them how to handle their problems themselves" (Follet, 1941, p. 282). In short, leadership should not be conceptualized so much as "leaders persuading people to follow them," but more as "training people to work with." Follett's idea of the leader "is the man who is the expression of a harmonious and effective unity which he has helped to form and which he is able to make a fair going" (p. 267), which she called multiple leadership or diffuse leadership.

Christopher Hodgkinson (1928-)

Similar to the previous two scholars, Christopher Hodgkinson is also interested in the relation between management and leadership, but at the same time, he explicitly refers to philosophy. He starts by asking "what does it mean to be an administrator, a man-of-action, in the last part of the twentieth century? And, further, what can it mean? What ought it to mean? In short, a philosophy of leadership" (Hodgkinson, 1983, p. v).

Hodgkinson draws on Dimock's notion of administration as being "wedded to subjects as philosophy, literature, history, and art, and not merely to engineering, finance, and structure." Moreover, "administrators become increasingly human and philosophical, capable of planning ongoing programs which meet human needs and aspirations, when they are unified by areas of knowledge and skill which stress man's humanity and his philosophical insights" (Dimock, 1958, p. 5; cited in Hodgkinson, 1983, pp. 9-10).

Administration and management, noted Hodgkinson (1983), are distributed along a continuum, with values on one side and facts on the other, that represents three realities. On one extreme pole, those who see reality as based on facts, tend to focus on materiality, managing, and monitoring processes. On the other pole, those who see reality as mostly based on values, tend to focus on ideas, philosophy, and planning. In the middle ground, there are those who see reality based on a mix of facts and values and tend to focus on people, politics, and mobilizing.

Concerned about the representation of such subjectivities, Hodgkinson (1983) mentioned that "we need to be clear about the language games of the three realities, so that, as Wittgenstein would say, our intelligence is not bewitched by language" (p. 78). More specifically, he adds later, the issue is that higher order values "have for certain men the property of transmuting their forms of life, investing them with meaning, giving to them an absoluteness, which carries them beyond the relativity of individual circumscription. … Such influence, whether directly or at many removes can be powerful and overwhelming" (Hodgkinson, 1983, p. 118). The administrator should be aware that these "ideologies enter into reality through individual actors and organizational psychology" thus the administrator "must constantly be aware of his value

environment and be conscious of his own values, his own form of life" (p. 119). What does all this mean for leadership? Hodgkinson (1983) stated that "leadership can never be understood unless the problem of value is incorporated into its study" (p. 191).

Finally, he recognizes that people do not need to solve value conflicts, but simply live with the resulting affective tension and, if necessary, consider the possibility of inaction (Hodgkinson, 1983). Moreover, "the analysis of affect is but one of the leader's obligations; to be able to control his own affect is another. The latter may be much more difficult than the former [and has] the potential for greater harm" (Hodgkinson, 1983, p. 209).

To sum up, we have reviewed how three classic Western scholars considered management, organizations, and leadership as a whole interrelated phenomena. In the next section, we focus particularly on how leadership has been understood in the West.

The Nature of Leadership

Antonakis et al. (2004) consider leadership to be "purpose driven, resulting in change based on values, ideals, vision, symbols, and emotional exchanges" and management to be "objectives driven, resulting in stability based on rationality, bureaucratic means, and the fulfillment of contractual obligations" (p. 5). This interesting contrast implies that leadership is based on purpose, change, and emotions and that management is based on objectives, stability, and rationality. This contrast could evoke the debate about social order/change and epistemology, which when pursued, may raise challenges to the way this distinction has been framed. Specifically, what kind of change are they referring to? If their notion of leadership-driven change is defined as managerial change, then it may be a kind of change that is objective and guided toward social stability. If their notion of leadership-driven change is defined as ideals-emotion change, then it may be a kind of change that is subjective and guided toward social change. Regardless of the answers that we may assign to these questions, it seems that both leadership and management (as described above and by other scholars) are concepts grounded in practice and that there is a fine line dividing both.

In the West, leadership has long been treated as a global field of study borrowing from Eastern and Western classic teachings including Aristotlean, Confucian, and Buddhism, and more recent ones such as Machiavelli and Hobbes (Burns, 2005). Initial leadership studies focused on major historical figures, such as Buddha, Mohammed, Gandhi, or Churchill, but the discussion of leadership as a process may have been originated by Machiavelli in the sixteenth century (Smith & Peterson, 1988). A more systematic analysis of leadership, added Smith and Peterson, may have only been advanced by Max Weber in early last century.

For Weber (1946), leadership rested in three possible sources ("ideal-types") of authority: charismatic authority, reflected personal characteristics; traditional authority, referred to compliance with norms and forms of conduct; and legal authority, which resulted from functional "duty of office." Since Weber, research on leadership has developed more systematically, giving way to an array of theoretical perspectives and conceptual definitions (cf. Bass & Stodgill, 1990; Yukl, 2002).

We think that it is important not only to be aware of existing research streams and definitions of leadership, but also to understand their nature, that is, their underlying assumptions. Recently, Antonakis, Cianciolo, and Sternberg (2004) reviewed the field of leadership studies (in the West) and suggested that

> Leadership can be defined as the nature of the influencing process – and its resultant outcomes – that occurs between a leader and followers and how this influencing process is explained by the leader's dispositional characteristics, and behaviors, follower perceptions and attributions of the leader, and the context in which the influencing process occurs. (p. 5)

We concur with Antonakis et al. (2004) that leadership is essentially a process of influence; however, we think that a clear understanding of this process is needed. Given Antonakis et al.'s definition, it is important to know more, for example, about dispositions. What is the nature of such dispositions: Are they an individual and/or collective phenomena? Are they stable and/or volatile? How do they change and/or evolve? Furthermore, what is the nature of the relation between dispositions and behavior? Do perceptional and attribution processes occur at conscious and/or unconscious levels? What is the nature of these processes and how do they develop? What is the nature of context, that is, how should we conceptualize it? And more important for this paper, do these influence processes differ between Asia and the West?

The history of leadership studies in the West is presented elsewhere (e.g., Bass & Stodgill, 1990; Yukl, 2002), and it is not our purpose to provide such a review here. Instead we refer to the major schools of thought of leadership studies in the twentieth century. According to Antonakis et al. (2004), the traditional schools include the trait, behavioral, contingency, relational, skeptical, cognitive, and the neo-charismatic or transformational. Additionally, contemporary leadership studies are also interested in broader societal and contextal issues such as hierarchy, gender, organizational characteristics, ethics, cognition, and intelligence; some even suggest the integration-hybridization of leadership theories (Antonakis et al., 2004). Note that the interest of leadership scholars in ethics reveals a renewed concern for values and philosophical principles.

To conclude, regardless of the approach adopted, we believe that the nature of leadership can generally be described as a social phenomena that is "simultaneously a *purposive activity* and a *dialogical relationship*" (Barker, Johnson, & Lavalette, 2001, p. 5). Barker et al. described leadership as consisting of "activity" because it is concerned with the intellectual and practical activities of organizing. It is dialogical because it is part of a process with ongoing conversations. It is also purposive because the act of influencing involves identification of people with purposes. Having defined the notion of leadership in the West, we need now to understand how Western researchers have addressed it in relation to culture.

The Relation between Culture, Management, and Leadership

In this section, we explore Western research on management and leadership that has considered the role of culture. Our purpose is not to provide an exhaustive review of the literature, but merely to point out that culture has been recognized as a differentiating factor in management and leadership activities. We first discuss the relation between management and culture and then between leadership and culture.

Management and Culture

Among the most influential research on management and culture is the work done by Hofstede (1980, 1983, 1991). Hofstede's main argument is that national cultures differ and they influence the way people think about their social world, namely about management. He

considered culture as "collective mental programming: it is that part of our conditioning that we share with other members of our nation, region, or group, but not with members of other nations, regions, or groups" (Hofstede, 1983, p. 76). Despite providing this definition, Hofstede (1983) acknowledged that there is no commonly accepted definition of culture. Nevertheless, he concluded that research could find differences between cultures. This is an interesting point. Though there is no agreed definition of culture, for Hofstede, it is still possible to seek cultural differences. We suggest that these differences may be understood in terms of *frames of reference*, that is, according to guiding principles and assumptions that people use to make sense of their social world.

It is important to note that Hofstede's (1983) four dimensions of culture do not constitute a definition of culture but simply an instrument to show that cultures differ. Yet, Hoftstede's intent is not only to show that cultures are different, but also that management theories are understood differently across countries (Hofstede, 1993). The primary point is that societies are different and each generates its own concepts, including leadership and culture itself. Hofstede's work opens up the discussion about the role of culture in other management areas. In this paper, we are particularly interested in the relation between culture and leadership.

Leadership and Culture

Regarding the relation between leadership and culture, "we should not take for granted that models and theories developed in one place will work similarly in another" because leadership behaviors are largely influenced by societal and organizational cultures (Den Hartog & Dickson, 2004, p. 277). Moreover, most Western leadership research, which suffers from a North American bias, may not have much relevance to explain leadership in other cultures (Den Hartog & Dickson, 2004), a view that is shared with other management researchers (e.g., Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991; Hoftstede, 1993; House, 1995).

Den Hartog and Dickson (2004) promoted the development of research on leadership and culture, particularly "large-scale comparative studies involving comparable samples from many different countries" (p. 278). They suggested that such studies should try to overcome methodological limitations, namely measurement invariance (reliability of the measurement), language issues (translation of instruments), and sampling (difficulty in defining populations). We agree with Den Hartog and Dickson regarding the need to extend research on leadership and culture. Yet, we go one step further to suggest that such research can also consider and explain differences between cultures and frames of reference. We think that comparative studies should try to overcome not only methodological limitations, but also be explicit about assumptions of the theoretical frameworks used. In this way, we will be able to understand the degree of explanatory power of comparative studies as well as their cultural groundings.

This paper addresses precisely this matter. As researchers, we have our own cultural biases and preferences, and we should try to account for them when studying leadership in contexts with which we are not familiar. Therefore, if we are to understand leadership in China, we have to learn more about Chinese culture and frames of reference.

Chinese Perspective on Management and Leadership

This section discusses four ideas that we think are relevant to understanding management and leadership from a Chinese perspective. First, we are interested in learning about what

Chinese scholars think about the concept of management and whether they see it as having the same meaning as in the West. Then, we would like to know more about two major approaches to Chinese management (social-cultural and philosophical) and the extent that they have been used in research. Specifically, we are interested in learning about Chinese philosophy and exploring its relation to Chinese culture and frames of reference. Last, as we are interested in the practice of leadership, we wish to know how Chinese and Asian businessmen understand the notion of leadership and whether it reflects philosophical principles.

The Nature of Chinese Management

In a study about the conception of "management" from a Chinese perspective in the context of Singapore, Lee (1987) mentioned that the concept of "management" is almost always based on Western assumptions. Western organization theory, according to Lee (1987), draws heavily on Maslow's view of the individual giving advice on how to protect self-esteem and achieve self-actualization. When this Western view is used in non-Western contexts, it tends to misrepresent non-Western understandings. The research area that is particularly keen to the study of such misrepresentations is *Orientalism*, which was advanced by Edward Said. To Said (1985), Orientalism refers to the study of Eastern societies and cultures by Westerners that is mostly based on European experiences.

For Lee (1987), the main concern with Chinese management research originating in the West is not that they do not recognize differences between Eastern and Western cultures, which they do. The issue is that those studies do not capture and represent the underlying Eastern philosophical assumptions, and as such, end up underrepresenting or misrepresenting Asian conceptions of management and organization theory. She suggested that Asian writers have been "explain[ing] Chinese behaviors using Western theoretical notions" thus being "unable to transcend the dominant mode of western organizational theory" (Lee, 1987, p. 6).

In short, Chinese scholars recognize that the notion of management in China is different from the West. However, because they often draw on Western frameworks, they are unable to come up with a more genuine Chinese perspective of management. Before discussing how researchers could overcome this issue, it is important that we know more about the most common approaches to Chinese management research.

Chinese Social-cultural Approach to Management

The Chinese and the Western socio-cultural approaches to management may be distinguished in several aspects including needs, norms, relationships, family role, decision making, change, cognition, and structures of reasoning (Lee, 1987). To understand Chinese management from a socio-cultural perspective, we should look at these aspects as a whole rather than to its constitutive elements. We provide here a brief overview of each of these socio-cultural aspects and try to show how they are interrelated.

When contrasting human needs of Westerners and Chinese, the former tends to consider their utmost need for self-actualization of the individual, whereas the latter consider it to be self-actualization in the service of society (Lee, 1987). The importance of the collective over the individual is also revealed in the Chinese notion of *face*, which represents prestige and moral character in social relations. Additionally, Chinese social relations are seen as developing over

time rather than being merely based on transactional circumstances. In this regard, the concept of family has a primary role in socializing and professionalizing.

Moreover, according to Lee (1987), Chinese consider that intuition plays an important role in decision making. In the same line, she added that Chinese emphasize the role of informal structures and minimal management control in organizational life. Thus, to the Chinese, it is not surprising that "everything is continuously changing…not only the events…but also the rules governing those events" (Lee, 1987, p. 44). In terms of cognition, Chinese place more emphasis on intuitive, sense-making, and non-abstract processes than Westerners. This helps explain why Chinese and Westerners also have different structures of reasoning across disciplines, professions, cultures, and individuals (Lee, 1987).

The influence of these aspects of Chinese culture on management practices in Chinese organizations has also been suggested by other Chinese scholars. For example, Pun, Chin, and Lau (2000) observed that Chinese management and organizations are shaped by collective orientation, social relations, paternalistic approach, and acceptance of hierarchy.

Chinese Philosophical Approach to Management

In addition to the socio-cultural approach to Chinese management, Lee (1987) also proposed two philosophical perspectives, one based on Confucianism and another on Taoism and Buddhism. The Confucianism path to management emphasizes the notion of self-cultivation and a concern for human relationships that is more subjective than in the West, where organization and work tend to be objectified. From a Confucianist viewpoint, self-cultivation represents the "full development of personality and sensitivity to people's feelings" (Lee, 1987, p. 30). Interestingly, Lee referred specifically to self-cultivation in the management context as the "task of both leaders and subordinates. Leaders are the role models of social order. Managers are to maintain the social harmony" (Lee, 1987, p. 30).

The Taoism and Buddhism path to management emphasizes the process of organizing as "following the nature" and as the "combination of conditions." From this perspective, management is viewed as a more holistic process with particular characteristics, such as "action is by not action; leader is the follower; change is not strategically planned but suddenly 'enlightenment'. The manager is not to control but to reflect like a mirror, to flow like the water, and to allow like nature" (Lee, 1987, p. 31).

Whereas Western management thinking is based on rationality, control, and planning, the Taoism/Buddhism management thinking is more intuitive and contextual, in which "self" and "time" also have distinct meanings. Moreover, the "self", or human being, is simply a manifestation of a Universal Self and individuals do not exist in isolation, as in Western thinking. As such, observes Lee (1987), Chinese have a different "sense of self-dignity compared to the West." In regard to "time," Westerners consider that time is linear, but the Chinese consider that "time is cyclical" (p. 32).

Based on these two approaches to Chinese management, "the concepts of organization, management, leadership, structure, environment, etc. will be very different from the existing dominant Western organization" (Lee, 1987, p. 33). When comparing both, it is argued that the social-cultural approach to management has been more developed than the philosophical one, perhaps because it borrows methodology from behavioral science (Lee, 1987). In our view, this may not be a surprise given that most management researchers have backgrounds grounded in behavioral sciences rather than humanities. As implied in this paper, we think that philosophy

plays an important role in framing social reality and in understanding management concepts from a Chinese perspective. Therefore, we provide in the next section a brief introduction to some notions of Chinese philosophy.

Notions of Chinese Philosophy

Chinese philosophy is rich and complex. In this paper we introduce the following six streams/concepts of Chinese philosophy: philosophy of change, philosophy of human nature, philosophy of knowledge, philosophy of culture, philosophy of governance, and the Yin Yang concept. We selected these topics because, in our view, they parallel areas of Western philosophy that are commonly included in debates about management theory, namely nature of society, human nature, ontology, epistemology, and methodology (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

A common thread among these six concepts of Chinese philosophy is the idea of cosmos. In this context, cosmos refers to a multiple-ordered world – the "emergence of the ten thousand things"; this contrasts with the Western perspective where cosmos refers to a single-ordered world (Hall & Ames, 1995, pp. 11-12). Note that, according to Hall and Ames, in the West, the alternative to cosmos is chaos (unordered world), whereas in China, the alternative to cosmos is still cosmos (ordered world). We present first the philosophy of change because of its marked influence in Chinese thought.

Philosophy of change. As Cheng (2003a) noted, the philosophy of change, called *Yijin*, refers to a comprehensive system of cosmology, culture, and ethics. The observational process that allows us to comprehend the world is called *guan*.

> *Guan* involves an attitude of detachment and what can be described as tranquility and receptivity. It is a sense of seeking understanding and learning things without forcing any prior theoretical model onto nature and without being impeded by emotions and desires. It is not quite phenomenology in the sense of Husserl's conscious 'bracketing-off', nor is it an objectivist methodology of attempting to capture the essences of objects exclusive of the feeling, perceiving mind. *Guan* can perhaps be described as seeing the natural world in terms of large and minute changes and relationships, on the basis of our general experiences of nature. … We may call *guan* phenomenological observation or a natural phenomenological method as opposed to either rational scientific methodology or the phenomenology of rationality. (Cheng, 2003a, p. 518)

Thus, in Chinese philosophy, the notion of change is, from a Western view, atheoretical because it is grounded in practice, as well as it is both subjective and objective since it allows space for emotions and experiences. Cheng (2003a) also suggested that "yijing began as a book of divination" and clarified that

> Divination is not a philosophy, but it has an underlying philosophy or logic. The underlying logic is that divination should be seen as indicating both the limitations of the human condition and its freedom of decision and action. On the one hand, a human being is limited by its situation and even by his own purposes, and the future is not dictated by his wishes. On the other hand, he can seek knowledge of the future or a way of understanding its possibilities and can make his own decisions. Divination provides at once a way to reveal limitations in one's life and a way to change one's situation by acting appropriately. (Cheng, 2003a, p. 519)

From a Western viewpoint, one could say that divination refers to, what we call in organization theory, the duality between agency (freedom of decision and action) and structure (limitations of the human condition). Change occurs in the intersection of these two.

Philosophy of human nature. In Chinese philosophy, there are at least five different views of human nature. However, they all "relate to the ethical and political ideals and cosmological views" (Shun, 2003, p. 556). The previous discussion of philosophy of change reflects much of this ontocosmological view. Man is always seen in interrelation to the experiences of nature, his actions are shaped with situations, and his wishes with possibilities. It is this unity between individuals and cosmos that defines Chinese human nature as opposed to, in the West, where human nature is seen as centered in the individual.

Philosophy of knowledge. To start, one should understand that "there is no Chinese epistemology in precisely the Western sense" (Cheng, 2003b, p. 558). In fact, Chinese epistemology differs according to the schools of thought, since it follows

> a model of observational ontoepistemology in the Zhouyi to an epistemology of virtues in Confucianism and an epistemology of the ontocosmological dao in Daoism. With regard to meta-epistemology, we can see that Chinese epistemology is dominated by an ontoepistemology with a universal, shared experience and faith in a reality that precludes skepticism. (Cheng, 2003b, p. 568)

This suggests various particularities of Chinese epistemology: observation, virtues, *dao* (the way), and belief in realism (as opposed to idealism). Cheng concluded his review of Chinese philosophy of knowledge stating that

> if we are to construct and integrate a comprehensive theory of knowledge that can achieve unity of reality and reason, unity of knowledge and action, and unity of knowledge and valuation – which intrinsically and extrinsically are important – there is much we can learn from the epistemological tradition and the various forms of knowing in Chinese philosophy. (Cheng: 2003b, p. 568-9)

In short, Cheng argued that Chinese epistemology can provide an integration of perspectives that, in the West, are known as realism and idealism, theory and practice, existing know-how and ongoing learning.

Philosophy of culture. According to Neville (2003), "philosophy of culture is a Western category that has no exact Chinese counterpart" (p. 525). Culture is "the sum of conventions that shape the natural endowments so that they can be fulfilled and together fulfill the human" and are "encompassed under the notion of ritual propriety (*li*)" (Neville, 2003, pp. 526-527). The concept of *li* represents guiding principles that derive from inherited rituals and conventions. Specifically, from a Confucianist view, culture is grounded in principled action as (a) it emphasizes the social situation and context, (b) it considers that civilization is achieved through rituals, and (c) it promotes the practicing of rituals in all occasions. The importance of practice and experience in Chinese philosophy requires that we also introduce philosophy of governance.

Philosophy of governance. Angle (2003) noted that Chinese philosophy of governance revolves around three questions: (a) how a state should be organized and governed, (b) what are the goals of governance, and (c) how can answers to the previous question be justified. Yet, forms of governance differ according to schools of thought. For example, while *Guanzi* and *Mozi*

advocated for governance based on objective standards, respectively "carrot and stick" and utilitarian forms, Anaclets and Mencius suggested a softer, "humane government." In contrast *Daodejing* suggests a nature and nonaction approach, whereas, for example, *Xunzi* suggests that governance should be done through transforming, educating people. From a Western viewpoint, we might associate these approaches to utilitarianism, humanism, and individual development. Yet, they are not exactly the same since the Western schools of thought are related to Western philosophical concepts. This idea of relatedness begs us to discuss the *Yin Yang* concept.

Yin and Yang. Ames (2003) stated that "*Yin* and *yang* are terms used to express a contrastive relationship that obtains between two or more things" (p. 846). This may not be completely new since, as we have seen above, it is present in most of the Chinese philosophy concepts. In particular,

> Yinyang explains how one thing stands in relation to another, and hence can be described as expressing a correlation between them. […] yin and yang suggest the interdependence of proximate things in the world […] yinyang became a pervasive way of understanding how all things are related to each other, and it sets a pattern for the vocabulary used to articulate this understanding. (Ames, 2003, p. 846)

The *yin* and *yang* is a concept used not only to help representing "parts" of the world, but also to suggest ways of how these parts may be correlated. For example, as Ames noted, in Classical Chinese philosophy there is no distinction between "reality" and "appearance," which contrasts with the Western idea that "objective knowledge is truth; subjective knowledge is mere opinion" (Ames, 2003, p. 847). Likewise, we could suggest that Chinese and Western philosophies are somehow related because both are concerned with similar questions, yet they are different and, as Cheng (2003b) suggested, possibly even complementary.

Table 1 presents the summary of concepts of Chinese philosophy introduced above and contrasts them with Western philosophy (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Our purpose here is to point out how Chinese and Western philosophies provide different frames of reference for understanding the social world. Moreover, the combination of different philosophy concepts gives place to distinct frames of reference or paradigms. For example, Burrell and Morgan (1979) suggested four sociological paradigms in organization theory: functionalism, interpretivism, radical humanist, and radical structuralism. We do not know what may be the Chinese paradigms that result from Chinese philosophy. However, we think that they should not be necessarily the same as the Western paradigms, simply because they are based on different conceptions of the world.

In the following section, we revisit what Asian leaders think about their leadership and discuss possible understandings of the concept.

Asian Perspectives of Leadership

We have drawn on interviews of Asian leaders (Appendix) made by Heidrick and Struggles (2004). The issue addressed in this paper emerges precisely at this stage. As Westerners, how can one understand others' views without knowing the others' lenses of analysis? To find out emerging themes without knowing the concepts that individuals use to make sense of the world is, in our view, to misrepresent the actual conception of leadership in Asia. Thus, we ask readers to suspend judgment about Asian leadership until we learn about such

Table 1
Concepts of Chinese and Western philosophy

Chinese Philosophy	Western Philosophy (Adapted from Burrell & Morgan, 1979)
Philosophy of change (Yijin). Refers to a comprehensive system of cosmology, culture, and ethics. *Guan* is the process used to observe changes and is grounded in practice. It is both subjective and objective, for it allows space for emotions and experiences. Change is seen as divination which provides a way to reveal limitations in one's life and a way to change one's situation by acting appropriately (cf., Western concepts of agency and structure).	*Nature of society.* Society is seen as stable or not. The regulatory or ordered perspectives seek to explain society in terms of unity and cohesion, where small changes lead to equilibrium. The radical change and conflict views seek to explain society in terms of deep-seated structural conflicts, domination, and contradictions.
Philosophy of human nature, an ontocosmological view. Man is seen in interrelation to the experiences of nature, his actions are shaped with situations, and his wishes with possibilities. It is this unity between individuals and cosmos that defines Chinese human nature as opposed in the West where human nature is seen as centered in the individual.	*Human nature.* Often seen from voluntarist and determinist perspectives. Voluntarists believe that a person has free will when determining what to believe in. Determinists hold that each state of affairs is necessitated (determined) by all the states of affairs that came before it.
Philosophy of knowledge. There are several schools of thought, including observational ontoepistemology in the Zhouyi, epistemology of virtues in Confucianism, and an epistemology of the ontocosmological dao in Daoism. A theory of knowledge that considers the unity of reality and reason, unity of knowledge and action, and unity of knowledge and valuation.	*Ontology.* The metaphysical study of the nature of being and existence. Reality is considered as ranging from subjective perspectives (reality is dependent on thought) to objective perspectives (reality is independent of thought).
Philosophy of culture. Based essentially on the concept of *li* that refers to guiding principles deriving from inherited rituals and conventions. From a Confucianist view, culture is grounded in principled action as (a) it emphasizes the social situation and context, (b) it considers that civilization is achieved through rituals, and (c) it promotes the practicing of rituals in all occasions.	*Epistemology.* The study of the nature of knowledge. Positivists consider all knowledge as based on perceptual experience (physical, material world), whereas anti-positivists accept science as based on intuition or revelation (metaphysical, nonmaterial world).

Chinese Philosophy	Western philosophy (Adapted from Burrell & Morgan, 1979)
Philosophy of governance. Guanzi and Mozi advocated for governance based on objective standards. Anaclets and Mencius suggested a "humane government." Daodejing suggested a nature and nonaction approach. Xunzi suggested that governance should be done through transforming, educating people (references included in Burrell & Morgan, 1979). *Yin Yang.* Explains the interdependence of proximate things in the world.	*Methodology.* Two main viewpoints are considered. The nomothetic view involves the search for abstract universal principles. The ideographic is concerned with discrete or unique facts or events.

concepts. In our view, these concepts should be developed from Eastern philosophy and preferably by Asian scholars, possibly by using the philosophical concepts suggested above.

Yet, from our Western viewpoint, the following themes seem to be evoked in the interviews of Asian leaders: (a) the importance of having leadership models, watching and listening to other people; (b) the need for reflection and self-judgment; (c) the need for balancing stability and rejuvenation; (d) the ambivalent value between useful Western experiences and irrelevant Western know-how; (e) the awareness of social positions and time dimensions; and (f) the importance of the whole community.

These themes seem to reflect some principles of Chinese philosophy delineated above. First, the emphasis on leadership models and Western experiences denotes a concern for the "general experiences of nature." Second, reflection, self-judgment, and irrelevant Western know-how signal how Chinese make sense of the relation between man and nature, individuals and reality. Third, stability and rejuvenation reflect Chinese concern for change and process. Fourth, time and space reveal a sense of whole and cosmos. However, we would like to emphasize that this is merely our interpretation as Western researchers, and the emerging themes might not be the same if this exercise were done by Asians. Thus, once again, we suggest that readers suspend judgment until we have a much better grasp of management and leadership from Asian, Chinese perspectives.

Discussion and Implications

We have argued that development of leadership theory should be more explicit about its frames of reference. Westerners, in general, will benefit from an increased awareness of a tendency toward a western bias in leadership theory as well as an increased openness to understanding the differences in Eastern cultures. In addition, non-western researchers will benefit from trying to conduct more research on national cultures of a comparative nature from a non-Western perspective. We recommend that both Eastern and Western researchers attempt to more clearly communicate their philosophical assumptions in terms of ontology, human nature, epistemology, and methodology.

Ontology versus Ontocosmology

Western ontology usually considers reality from objective or subjective viewpoints. The former refers to realist and the latter to nominalist perspectives (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). In contrast, Chinese ontocosmology is not only concerned with the relation between reality and human thought, whether subjective or objective, but also with the general experiences of nature. The meaning of human nature in China is better understood as ontocosmology rather than as ontology. Future research will benefit from the development of concepts that address this Chinese philosophical dimension (see for example Hall & Ames, 1995, 1998; Wang, 2004).

Thus, for example, to more accurately conceptualize leadership from a Chinese viewpoint, we have to consider both objectivity and subjectivity, and in particular, how these relate to change. In turn, change has to account for both the limitations (determinism) and the freedom (voluntarism) inherent to human action. As such, theorizing about leadership in China follows from a broader, more synthetic understanding of reality than in the West. In our view, Burns' (2005) call for multidisciplinarity and broadening of social issues in leadership studies, is a recognition of the importance of more encompassing approaches.

Objectivism versus subjectivism. Antonakis, Schriesheim, Donovan, Gopalakrishna-Pillai, Pellegrini, and Rossomme (2004) recognized that knowledge can be created from objectivist and subjectivist perspectives, yet they strongly advocate the use of the former because they believe that it provides rigorous and testable theories, while the latter eventually may lead us astray to false beliefs. In a different line of thought, Kets de Vries (2001, 2004) noted that leadership is characterized by rational and irrational behaviors, facts and emotions, and objectivity and subjectivity. This perspective seems more aligned with Chinese philosophy, as illustrated in the Chinese notions of action/non-action in governance and rituals/situation in culture. We believe that leadership studies would benefit significantly from considering both objectivity and subjectivity.

Epistemology versus ontoepistemology versus dao. The ways that Chinese and Westerners create knowledge and make sense of the world are quite distinct. For Chinese, epistemology is viewed as a unity of reality and reason, knowledge and action, and knowledge and valuation. For Westerners, epistemology is either thought of from a positivist perspective as perceptual experience or as non-experiential or anti-positivist (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). This means that for the Chinese, the nature of knowledge is actually a phenomenon encompassing thought, action, knowledge, and valuation. Thus, if we are to theorize about Chinese leadership, we have to integrate all these elements.

Qualitative versus quantitative methods. Nisbett (2003) noted that when he and his colleagues studied the values of Eastern and Western students at the Beijing University and at the University of Michigan by using values' surveys (quantitative method), they found that Easterners revealed stronger Western values than the Westerners. In his view, the "odd results are probably partly due to the fact that value checklists, and even attitude scales, are not very good ways of getting values" (Nisbett, 2003, p. 222). The study was then repeated using scenarios (qualitative methods) depicting values from both cultures instead of values' surveys, and the results were consistent with Western research. According to Nisbett, surveys may be a good way to learn about the future if people are asked about what they would do or intend to do

in certain situations, but they may not be as useful for learning about the present. The point we want to make here is that (qualitative) stories may be a better way to understand people's perspectives than to rely on (quantitative) surveys. In our view, this happens because stories retain an openness to interpretation of the situational context of research, whereas surveys tend to enclose and bound it.

Moreover, as shown in some studies on "exceptional leaders" in business (e.g., Kets de Vries & Florent-Treacy, 1999) or major historical figures (e.g., Gardner & Laskin, 1995), the narrative genre can be a particularly strong and evocative form of research in leadership studies. We think that this may be a particularly powerful method for approaching leadership in China, at least from a Western viewpoint, since it encourages opening up to new interpretations and allows a better grasp of the field.

To sum up, we started this paper by making a case for studying management and leadership from a Chinese perspective. We then reviewed Western perspectives of management and leadership, and in particular, we focused on the nature of leadership from a Western viewpoint. Additionally, we introduced the concept of culture to indicate that the notions of management and leadership may have different meanings in different cultures. Then we presented two Chinese approaches to management. The socio-behavioral approach being more developed than the philosophical one, possibly because of the background of management researchers. After this, we introduced several notions of Chinese philosophy and illustrated how they can be used in interpreting leadership in Asia. However, as Westerners, we refrained from providing a Chinese interpretation of leadership. Instead, our purpose was only to suggest ways to begin to more accurately get at a Chinese perspective on the subject.

This paper has theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, we think that the study of leadership in China needs to account for social and cultural assumptions that are grounded in Chinese philosophy. In other words, we need to understand the Chinese frames of reference. We think that developing Chinese concepts of management, organization and leadership are necessary to understand the Chinese perspective. The introduction of Eastern perspectives in the West will allow broader theorization and ultimately a better understanding of management and organization theories in other parts of the world. This will have implications at the practical level. Chinese managers will be able to better articulate their views of leadership by using Chinese concepts. In turn, Western managers will be more aware of Chinese ways of doing business and ultimately may need to change their business practices.

About the Authors

José C. Alves is a doctoral student in organizational studies at the Isenberg School of Management, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, USA. His research interests are leadership, international management, and Chinese management. He has lived several years in Macau, China, where he worked as teacher, researcher, and academic affairs coordinator at the Macau Inter-University Institute, China.
Email: ja@som.umass.edu

Dr. Charles C. Manz earned his Ph.D. in organization behavior from The Pennsylvania State University and is currently, the Nirenberg Professor of Business Leadership in the Isenberg School of Management at the University of Massachusetts Amherst, USA. Formerly a Marvin

Bower Fellow at the Harvard Business School, he is a speaker, consultant, and bestselling author of over 200 articles and scholarly papers and 20 books including *Fit to Lead, The New SuperLeadership, Mastering Self-Leadership* and Foreword Magazine's best book-of-the-year Gold Award winner, *Emotional Discipline*.
Email: cmanz@som.umass.edu

Dr. D. Anthony Butterfield earned his Ph.D. in organizational psychology from the University of Michigan and currently is professor of organizational behavior in the Department of Management at the Isenberg School of Management, University of Massachusetts-Amherst, USA. He has spent several years of his career living and teaching abroad, and recently served as co-chair of the June 2005 International Eastern Academy of Management conference, "Managing in a Global Economy," in Cape Town, South Africa. Dr. Butterfield's research interests center on issues of leadership and gender.
Email: dabutter@mgmt.umass.edu

References

Ames, R. T. (2003). Yin and Yang. In A. Cua (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Chinese philosophy* (pp. 846-847). New York: Routledge.

Angle, S. (2003). Philosophy of governance. In A. Cua (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Chinese philosophy* (pp. 534-540). New York: Routledge.

Antonakis, J., Cianciolo, A. T., & Sternberg, R. J. (2004). Leadership: Past, present, and future. In J. Antonakis, A. T. Cianciolo, and R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (pp. 3-15). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Antonakis, J., Schriesheim, C. A., Donovan, J. A., Gopalakrishna-Pillai, K., Pellegrini, E. K., & Rossomme, J. L. (2004). Methods for studying leadership. In J. Antonakis, A. T. Cianciolo, and R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (pp. 48-70). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Barker, C., Johnson, A., & Lavalette, M. (2001). Leadership matters: An introduction. In C. Barker, A. Johnson, and M. Lavalette (Eds.), *Leadership and social movements* (pp. 1-23). Manchester and New York: Manchester University Press.

Barnard, C. (1938). *The functions of the executive* (30th ed.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Bass, B. M., & Stodgill, R. M. (Eds.). (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research.* New York: The Free Press.

Boyacigiller, N. A., & Adler, N. J. (1991). The parochial dinosaur: Organizational science in a global context. *Academy of Management Review, 16,* 262-290.

Burns, J. (2005). Leadership. *Leadership, 1*(1), 11-12.

Burrell, G., & Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological paradigms and organizational analysis*. Hants, UK: Ashgate Publishing.

Cheng, Chung-ying. (2003a). Philosophy of change. In A. Cua (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Chinese philosophy* (pp. 517-524). New York: Routledge.

Cheng, Chung-ying. (2003b). Philosophy of knowledge. In A. Cua (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Chinese philosophy* (pp. 558-569). New York: Routledge.

China Daily. (2005, May 18). *Narrowing China's corporate leadership gap.* Retrieved May 18, 2005, from http://news.xinhuanet.com/english/2005-05/18/content_2968902.htm

Den Hartog, D. N., & Dickson, M. W. (2004). Leadership and culture. In J. Antonakis, A. T. Cianciolo, and R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (pp. 249-278). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Economist. (2005, May 18). What do yuant from us? *The Economist Global Agenda*. Retrieved on May 18, 2005, from http://www.economist.com/agenda/displayStory.cfm?story_id=3982328

Fairhurst, G. T., & Sarr, R. A. (1996). *The art of framing: Managing the language of leadership.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Follett, M. P. (1941). *Dynamic administration: The collected papers of Mary Parker Follett.* Edited by Metcalf, H.C., & Urwick, L. New York: Harper.

Gardenswartz, L., Rowe, A., Digh, P., & Bennett, M. F. (2003). *The global diversity desk reference: Managing an international workforce.* San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.

Gardner, H., & Laskin, E. (1995). *Leading minds: An anatomy of leadership.* New York: BasicBooks.

Grant, D., Hardy, C., Oswick, C., & Putnam, L. L. (Eds.). (2004). *The SAGE handbook of organizational discourse.* London: Sage.

Hall, D. L., & Ames, R. T. (1995). *Anticipating China: Thinking through the narratives of Chinese and Western cultures.* Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Hall, D. L., & Ames, R. T. (1998). *Thinking from the Han: Self, truth, and transcendence in Chinese and Western culture.* Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Heidrick & Struggles. (2004). *The Heidrick & Struggles leadership capital series: "The Asian Perspective"***.** Chicago, IL: Heidrick & Struggles International, Inc. Retrieved on May 18, 2005, from http://www.heidrick.com/NR/rdonlyres/534475F0-6419-4141-BBE1-360ADDC95672/0/HS_Asian_CEO_Interviews.pdf

Hodgkinson, C. (1983). *The philosophy of leadership.* New York: St. Martin's Press.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Hofstede, G. (1983). The cultural relativity of organizational practices and theories. *Journal of International Business Studies, 14*, 75-89.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: The software of the mind.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Hofstede, G. (1993). Cultural constraints in management theories. *Academy of Management Executive, 7*(1), 81-94.

House, R. J. (1995). Leadership in the 21st century: A speculative enquiry. In A. Howard (Ed.), *The changing nature of work* (pp. 411-450). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (Eds.). (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Jackson, S. E., & Ruderman, M. N. (Eds.). (1995). *Diversity in work teams: Research paradigms for a changing workplace.* Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Kets de Vries, M. F. R. (2001). *The leadership mystique*. London: Prentice Hall.

Kets de Vries, M. F. R. (2004). Putting leaders on the couch: A conversation with Manfred Kets de Vries. *Harvard Business Review, January*, 65-71.

Kets de Vries, M. F., & Florent-Treacy, E. (1999). *The new global leaders: Richard Branson, Percy Barnevik, and David Simon.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Lee, S. K. (1987). *A Chinese conception of 'management': An interpretive approach*. Doctoral dissertation, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst.

Lemon, S. (2005, May). Chinese vendors face cultural challenge. *CIO Asia.* Singapore: IDG Communications. Retrieved on May 18, 2005 from http://cio-asia.com/ShowPage.aspx?pagetype=2&articleid=1214&pubid=5&issueid=48

Li, J., & Tsui, A. S. (2002). A citation analysis of management and organization research in the Chinese context: 1984-1999. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 19,* 87-107.

Neville, R. C. (2003). Philosophy of culture. In A. Cua (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Chinese philosophy* (pp. 525-533). New York: Routledge.

Nisbett, R. E. (2003). *The Geography of thought: How Asians and Westerners think differently…and why***.** New York: The Free Press.

Pun, K. F., Chin, K. S., & Lau, H. (2000). A review of the Chinese cultural influences on Chinese enterprise management. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 2*(4), 325-338.

Putnam, L. L., & Cooren, F. (2004). Alternative perspectives on the role of text and agency in constituting organizations. *Organization: The Critical Journal of Organization, Theory and Society***,** *11*(3).

Said, E. (1985). Orientalism reconsidered. *Race and Class*, *27*(2). Institute of Race Relations. Reprint in 2000. *Reflections on exile and other essays* (pp. 198-215). Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Scandura, T., & Dorfman, P. (2004). Leadership research in an international and cross-cultural context. *Leadership Quarterly, 15*, 277-307.

Shun, Kwong-Ioi. (2003). Philosophy of human nature. In A. Cua (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Chinese philosophy* (pp. 554-558). New York: Routledge.

Shrivastava, P., & Mitroff, I. I. (1984). Enhancing organizational research utilization: The role of decision makers' assumptions. *Academy of Management Review, 9*(1), 18-26.

Smircich, L. (1983). Concepts of culture and organizational analysis. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *28*(3), 339-358.

Smircich, L., & Morgan, G. (1982). Leadership: The management of meaning. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 18,* 257-273.

Smith, P. B., & Peterson, M. F. (1988). *Leadership, organizations and culture: An event management model.* London: Sage.

Spence, J. D., & Chin, A. (1996). *The Chinese century: A photographic history of the last hundred years.* New York: Random House.

Stewart, E., & Bennett, M. (1991). *American cultural patterns: A cross-cultural perspective.* Yarmouth, Maine: Intercultural Press.

Sorenson, G. (2000). *An intellectual history of leadership studies: The role of James MacGregor Burns.* Annual meeting of the American Political Science Association, Washington D.C., August 31-September 3. Retrieved Feb. 5, 2005 from http://www.academy.umd.edu/publications/presidential_leadership/sorenson_apsa.htm

Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. (1998). *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding cultural diversity* (2nd ed.) New York: McGraw-Hill.

Wang, R. R. (Ed.). (2004). *Chinese philosophy in an era of globalization*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Weber, M. (1946). *From Max Weber: Essays in sociology*. Translated and edited by H. H. Gerth and C. Wright Mills. New York: Oxford University Press.

Yukl, G. (2002). *Leadership in organizations* (5th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Appendix

The Asian Leadership Perspective by Heidrick & Struggles (2004)

In a series of interviews about Asian leadership perspectives, business executives were asked, among other things, about their leadership philosophies and how these had developed (Heidrick & Struggles, 2004). (Bolds are our emphasis.)

1. When asked about his leadership philosophy, Yang Yuanqing, president and CEO of Legend Group (Beijing), mentioned that the company has
   > created an open organizational architecture in which the senior executives value employees, **model** positive behaviors and set good examples by being open, honest, decisive and ethical in all of our dealings. … one of the most important attributes of leadership is excellence in communication, both within the company and externally. As to the individual qualities that make up a leader, I believe some of them are born with and others are developed later through studying others who are successful in leading – both individuals and corporations. … I have also studied the **examples of Western leaders** such as Jack Welch…and many others. (Heidrick & Struggles, 2004, p. 8)

2. Frank Ning, chairman of China Resources Enterprise Ltd. (Hong Kong), stated:
   > Leaders do two things: One is establish direction to the company, based on their knowledge and vision for the business. Second, and most important, is to manage the people and manage the organization. … Building a leadership philosophy is very much a **reflection** of your view of yourself and of your own behaviors. (Heidrick & Struggles, 2004, p. 11)
   >
   > In the early stages, you learn to **judge yourself**. … The only way we can learn to be a leader or improve our abilities at leadership is to have new challenges and to do our best to meet them. … It is difficult to judge someone on anything except his actual performance, because everybody has their own leadership style and formula for working with people. … The problem is, how do you evaluate these [leadership] attributes? It is **not so much a science** as it is a feeling, assessing other people. (Heidrick & Struggles, 2004, p. 11)

3. Victor Fung, chairman of Li & Fung Ltd. (Hong Kong), noted:
   > My philosophy is one of learning and evolving with the environment. … [in the company] we have had to create a balance between the need for stability, so people can work productively, and the need to **rejuvenate** the company almost continuously. (Heidrick & Struggles, 2004, p. 15)
   >
   > [As trainee with the Citibank, at the age of 24, I learned] "how entrepreneurial each unit could operate within such a huge, global organization…but then I had to chose between getting my doctorate or continuing as an entrepreneur, and I decided to be an academic, so I gave the business up. … When I came back to **China**, I had spent almost 10 years **unlearning** what I had learned at the business school in the **West**. … [Yet,] my business

school background and the experience of teaching in a business environment enabled me to think longer term and set long-term goals." (Heidrick & Struggles, 2004, pp. 15-16)

4. Margie Yang, chairman and CEO of Esquel Group (Hong Kong), said:
   My task is to apply what I have learned from business school and my years of working in the **West** toward establishing a platform of strong management. … I have been very much influenced by my **family**, because my father is in industry and my maternal grandfather also was a businessman in the textile industry. (Heidrick & Struggles, 2004, p. 20)

5. Morris Chang, CEO of the Taiwan Semiconductor Manufacturing Company (Taiwan), mentioned that
   A leader needs to have two qualities. First he or she has to know in which direction he or she wants to take their people. Secondly, a leader has to have enough people following them to achieve their purpose. … The person who had probably the biggest influence on me was Patrick Haggerty of **Texas Instrument**. …Although I was initially three **levels** below him…I had the good fortune of getting acquainted with him early in my career at TI, and I had frequent **opportunities** to **see** him and **listen** to his advice. (Heidrick & Struggles, 2004, p. 24)

6. Daniel Mao, board member of SINA Corporation, mentioned:
   My leadership philosophy is to have the right people in the right places. … as far as my own ongoing development, I consider myself a **people person**, and I have improved my people skills through mentoring from venture capitalists, management consultants, and business lawyers. … Above all, I continue to learn and improve as a leader by **listening** carefully to my staff and customers. (Heidrick & Struggles, 2004, p. 27)

7. Keiji Tachikawa, president and CEO of NTT DoCoMo (Tokyo), noted:
   A business should continually grow and contribute to the development of the society and economy. In order to achieve these goals, it is the role of the leader to achieve a **consensus** within the organization and to demonstrate a clear direction for the future. …Leadership is required at every level of the **corporate ladder**… At each level there are **opportunities** to grow and develop, but it takes **time**, -- it cannot be achieved in a day. (Heidrick & Struggles, 2004, p. 29)

8. Chang Sun, managing director of Warburg Pincus Asia LLC (Hong Kong), mentioned:
   I have two leadership roles to play. One is to lead the professionals in our four country offices and the other is to work with the senior executives of our investee companies… My philosophy has largely been shaped by the many twists and turns in **my life** and by extremely diverse groups of people I have come into close contact with, in **rural China** as well as in cities like Beijing, New York and Hong Kong. … As a teenager during the cultural revolution I learned how to deal with the emotions…four years in the Chinese Air Force in rural China trained me in endurance, discipline and military precision; wining a place in Beijing Foreign Languages **University** against thousands of other applicants made me cherish every opportunity to learn; working as translator at the **United Nations** gave me the chance to observe … diplomacy; …the **Wharton School**

allowed me to switch careers; …[working] at a boutique buyout firm in **New York**, as well as Goldman Sachs in Hong Kong, prepared me well for the challenges of private equity investing. (Heidrick & Struggles, 2004, pp. 32-33)

9. Koh Boon Hwee, chairman of Singapore Airlines (Singapore), mentioned:
   I try to build **consensus** around what we need to do… [which in practice] means that I communicate the company's strategy direction and try to get people's buy into that point of view. … One thing I look for in recruiting for leadership positions – even more important than their educational background – is the amount of drive and the level of **energy** that they would bring to the job. …I was quite fortunate at the start of my career many, many years ago to have worked for **Hewlett Packard**. HP had a really unique philosophy of **believing** in the people who work for them. (Heidrick & Struggles, 2004, pp. 40-41)

10. Peter Wong, CEO and general manager in Hong Kong of the Standard Chartered Bank (Hong Kong), noted about his leadership philosophy:
    There are three approaches important to me. One is being **broad-minded** about people. The second is being broad-minded about business. And third is being broad-minded about changes. … As far as being broad-minded about **people**, my view is that leaders have the responsibility to develop more leaders. … By "people" I don't just mean people inside the company. I am also referring to the people in the **community**… As far as being broad-minded about **business** my motto is "What you can copy, don't try to re-invent everything." There are so many products around the world. … [B]eing broad-minded about **change**, is important because we are living in a world of change. I am totally awed by the pace of change in China today. … Dealing with change also means a lot of trial and error. … Ultimately what is most effective is honesty, consistency and simplicity. (Heidrick & Struggles, 2004, pp. 45-46)

11. Stan Shih, chairman and CEO of Acer, Inc.(Taiwan), stated:
    The first objective in leadership is to **clarify** the mission, and the second is to **communicate** it appropriately to the team members to get their **consensus** and support. Then it is my responsibility to **empower** the team members to carry out the mission. I start by coaching them, based on my own experience, and at the same time I also try to encourage them to work in their own style. The power of the team is that we bring different strengths and support one another in pursuit of the mission, and so it is the leader's responsibility to be the catalyst for that. …I learn to **lead by being a good subordinate**. … I learned by doing and by watching my bosses perform. So once I understood the responsibilities inherent in the tasks, I was able to help others learn how to perform them well. (Heidrick & Struggles, 2004, p. 50)

IJLS
INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF LEADERSHIP STUDIES

The Effect of Hispanic Ethnicity on the Leadership Process

ERIC J. ROMERO
Intrepid Consulting

Leadership categorization and relational demography theory suggest that ethnicity has a major impact on how people work together and perceive leaders. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between leader ethnicity (Hispanic) and perceptions of leader behaviors. The results indicated that Hispanic leaders were perceived as equivalent, in terms of leadership, to Euro-American leaders despite a significant difference in ethnic identity scores between Hispanic and Euro-American students. However, the mean perceived effectiveness ratings for leaders whose leadership style matches their followers' leadership prototype were significantly higher than those in the mismatch condition. Implications for both managers and researchers are discussed.

Prior research indicates that race and ethnicity may have an effect on performance evaluations (Bass & Turner, 1973; Farr, O'Leary, & Bartlett, 1971; Feild, Bayley, & Bayley, 1977; Ford, Schechtman, & Kraiger, 1986; Fox & Lefkowitz, 1974; Kraiger & Ford, 1985; Schmitt & Lappin, 1980). For example, Kraiger and Ford (1985) found that Blacks and Whites tend to rate members of their own race higher. Studies by Hamner, Kim, Baird, and Bigoness (1974) and Schmitt and Lappin (1980) found similar results. Heneman (1986) indicated that a ratee's race may moderate the relationship between objective criteria and supervisor rating. Kraiger and Ford (1990) seemed to support Heneman's position. They found that for Blacks, supervisory ratings were more closely linked to work-performance measures than for Whites. Job-knowledge measures were also linked with supervisory ratings to a higher degree for Blacks than Whites. Hamner et al. (1974) and Schmitt and Lappin (1980) also found that there was an interaction effect between the race of the rater and the race of the ratee. Kraiger and Ford (1990) indicated that the moderating effect may be due to White raters' possible tendency to rate members of their group higher. When rating Blacks, they only use objective data, which would lead to a higher correlation between objective criteria and supervisor ratings for Blacks. This study was designed to determine if a similar phenomenon exists concerning the relationship between leader ethnicity (Hispanic) and follower perceptions of leader behaviors.

Two competing theories were tested to explain potential differences in leader behavior perceptions. After a brief definition of the term Hispanic, an overview of leadership

International Journal of Leadership Studies, Vol. 1 Iss. 1, 2005, pp. 28-43

ISSN 1554-3145

categorization theory and relational demography is provided to lay the foundation for the main hypotheses that were tested.

The term Hispanic defines a person who was born and raised in a Spanish speaking country or a U.S.-born individual of Hispanic heritage (Padilla, 1995). Hispanic means having a Spanish family name and having ancestors from a Spanish speaking country (Stephens, 1989). Euro-American followers often perceive both foreign-born and U.S.-born Hispanics as one category, Hispanic. Demographic data sections on application forms used by governmental and private organizations commonly use the term Hispanic in this fashion. Furthermore, the term Hispanic is commonly used by numerous researchers to mean foreign-born and U.S.-born individuals of Latin American heritage (Stephens, 1989; Triandis, Marin, Hui, Lisansky, & Ottati, 1984a; Triandis, Marin, Lisansky, & Betancourt 1984b). Finally, Hispanics use the term themselves in Spanish (*Hispano*) and in naming organizations (e.g., National Hispanic Scholarship Fund and National Society of Hispanic MBAs).

Leadership Style Match

A significant trend in the leadership field is the interest in cross-cultural issues and the means by which culture affects leader behaviors and follower expectations of leader behaviors (Dorfman, 1996; House, Wright, & Aditya, 1997). Leadership practices that are acceptable in one culture may be counterproductive in another culture. Variables,such as level of modernization, form of government, religion, influence of the military, history of leadership, level of contact with foreign nationals, and general societal power structure contribute to leadership expectations and preferences.

Leadership categorization theory and leadership prototypes (Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984) may explain the possible differences between follower perceptions of Hispanic and Euro-American leaders. Categories, such as “leader,” simplify the processing of numerous stimuli into manageable and understandable sets by reducing the number of characteristics to look for in people (Cantor & Mischel, 1979). Once an individual is categorized, behavioral predictions can be made from the confined set of likely behaviors characteristic of the category (Lord et al., 1982). A leadership prototype is a type of category which summarizes the major and most common aspects of the follower’s concept of a leader (Cantor & Mischel, 1979; Nye & Forsyth, 1991). People compare potential leaders to their leadership prototype when making a leadership assessment. When a person has attributes that are consistent with attributes of a follower’s leader prototype, the individual will be perceived as a leader (Lord et al., 1982). The more attributes the person has that are consistent with the follower’s leader prototype, the stronger the perception that the individual is a leader (Cantor & Mischel, 1979). Additionally, when leaders are categorized as leaders, they are further categorized as an effective leader, political leader, business leader, etc. (Foti, Fraser, & Lord, 1982; Lord et al., 1982).

A number of studies support leadership categorization theory and the concept of leadership prototypes. Nye and Forsyth (1991) discovered that followers preferred leaders who matched their leadership prototype. Fraser and Lord (1988) indicated that the level of the leader’s prototypicality affects leadership perceptions. Leaders who were highly prototypical were rated higher than those who were neutral or low in prototypicality. Hains, Hogg, and Duck (1997) discovered that followers perceived leaders as more effective when the leader matched the follower’s prototype than when the leader did not match the follower’s prototype. Chong and

Thomas (1997) indicated that followers were more satisfied when there was a match between their leadership prototype and the leader's behavior. Ayman and Chemers (1991) found similar results, indicating that followers were more satisfied when there was a leadership style match. Based on these studies, if leaders are not perceived as such by their followers, it will likely have a negative effect on perceived satisfaction with supervision and perceived effectiveness.

Leadership prototypes that followers use to judge leaders are culturally contingent (O'Connell, Lord, & O'Connell, 1990) and consistent within cultures (Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986). Shaw (1990) proposed that leadership perceptions are different across cultures because of differences in leadership prototypes. There is support for these complementary positions. Gerstner and Day (1994) found that followers from eight countries had significantly different leadership prototypes. Morrison (1993) indicated that minority leaders may be judged by White followers using different prototypes than those used to judge White leaders, indicating that ethnicity may moderate leader perceptions. Chong and Thomas (1997) found that both follower and leader ethnicity had an effect on leader perceptions. Followers who had leaders from their ethnic group were more satisfied than followers who did not have a leader from their ethnic group. Chong and Thomas (1997) concluded that followers have culturally specific leadership prototypes, and they proposed that "the greater the difference between cultures, the greater is the potential for differing leader prototypes and hence possible ineffective interaction between members of these cultures" (p. 290). This seems true in the case of leadership in Mexico. Dorfman et al. (1997b) found that in Mexico, leaders were expected to be directive and avoid conflict. In the United States, on the other hand, leaders were found to be participative and supportive (Dorfman et al., 1997b). Similar differences may exist between Hispanic and Euro-American leaders in the United States.

In addition to the effect that culture has on leadership prototypes, it also has a significant effect on leadership style development in leaders. House et al. (1997) indicated that culture places significant limits and constraints on leader behaviors. Cultural factors, such as the level of economic development, influence of the military, and contact with other cultures, all influence leaders in forming their leadership style. Hui (1990) proposed that culture has an effect on a manager's beliefs and values and therefore, a leader's style. For example, an American manager would likely be direct in communicating about a problem with a worker because of the cultural value placed on being direct and not wasting time. In Japan, a manager would likely be indirect because of the cultural value placed on harmony and avoiding conflict.

Based on the literature reviewed, Hispanic culture likely has a significant impact on the leadership style of Hispanic leaders and the leadership prototype of Hispanic followers. The following hypotheses were developed to determine if leadership style match has an effect on the two major leadership perceptions mentioned earlier: perceived satisfaction with supervision and perceived effectiveness.

Hypothesis 1a: Leaders whose leadership style matches their follower's leadership prototype have higher perceived satisfaction ratings from followers than leaders whose leadership style does not match their follower's prototype.

Hypothesis 1b: Leaders whose leadership style matches their follower's leadership prototype have higher perceived effectiveness ratings from followers than leaders whose leadership style does not match their follower's prototype.

Ethnicity Match

Relational demography theory offers an alternative mechanism to explain the effect that leader ethnicity may have on follower perceptions of leader behaviors. The authors of the theory postulate that people compare their demographic features to other people in their social groups to judge whether the group's demographic features are similar to their own (Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). Similarity affects attitudes and behaviors regarding their coworkers, such as commitment to the group, group cohesiveness, and high group evaluations (Riordan & Shore 1997), friendship ties and more frequent communication (Lincoln & Miller, 1979; Zenger & Lawrence, 1989). O'Reilly, Caldwell, and Barnett (1989) determined that higher levels of demographic similarity are related to more social integration within work groups. When leaders and followers are from different cultural groups, ethnicity may become an important factor in social perception and integration.

Tsui et al. (1992) found that the individual's attachment to the organization is lower when there is a significant difference in race between an individual and other members in a work group. Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) concluded that "increasing dissimilarity in superior-subordinate demographic characteristics…is associated with lower effectiveness as perceived by supervisors, less personal attraction on the part of superiors for subordinates and increased role ambiguity experienced by subordinates" (p. 402). Wesolowski and Mossholder (1997) determined that subordinates in racially diverse dyads had lower job satisfaction when compared to homogeneous dyads. These studies imply that ethnicity may be a psychologically relevant dimension when encountering a Hispanic leader.

Research suggests that Hispanic culture has an impact on leadership. Romero (2004) proposed that Hispanic culture has a general and predictable effect on leader behaviors such that leaders will tend to be directive and autocratic. Preliminary data from seven Latin American countries supported this proposition. Offerman and Hellman (1997) discovered that uncertainty avoidance had a significant positive correlation with increased leader control, and power distance had a significant negative correlation with leader delegation, approachability, communication, and team building. Given that Hispanic countries scored high in power distance and uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1980), one might expect to see Hispanic leaders exhibit these behaviors which are consistent with directive leadership. This is evident in Mexican leaders, which previous researchers have characterized as autocratic and paternalistic (Stephens & Greer, 1995; Dorfman & Howell, 1997a). The results from these studies suggest that Hispanic leaders will have a tendency to be more directive than most leaders in the United States. Directive and participative leader behaviors were selected for this study to reflect the preferred leadership style of Hispanic and American followers, respectively.

Based on the literature reviewed, the following hypotheses were developed and tested to determine if ethnicity match has an effect on perceived satisfaction with supervision and perceived effectiveness.

Hypothesis 2a: When the ethnicity of the leader is the same as the follower's, the follower has higher levels of perceived satisfaction with supervision compared to when there is no ethnicity match.

Hypothesis 2b: When the ethnicity of the leader is the same as the follower's, the follower perceives the leader as more effective compared to when there is no ethnicity match.

Ethnic Identity

The explanatory power of leadership categorization theory and relational demography theory, in terms of ethnicity based differences, relies on the degree of ethnic identity of at least one group being compared. If both groups have little sense of identity with their ethnicity, they are likely to perceive each other as equivalent if all other factors are the same. Therefore, it is imperative to establish the degree to which Hispanics identify with their ethnicity.

Although Hispanics come from many different countries representing numerous cultures, a common Hispanic culture does exist (Lozano, 1997). In a study of 43 countries, Smith, Dugan, and Trompenaars (1996) found similar cultural scores for Mexico and Argentina. Spain, although not part of Latin America, shared similarities with Mexico and Argentina, indicating a cultural link between the three countries. Triandis et al. (1984a) indicated that "U.S. Hispanics should exemplify cultural attributes commonly found in collectivist cultures given that their background and cultural roots have emerged from Latin America" (p. 298).

The social psychology literature sheds light on Hispanic social expectations. Hispanics place significant value on harmony in social relationships and close family ties (Triandis et al., 1984a). Triandis et al. (1984b) found that Hispanics expect more positive social behavior and less negative social behavior than non-Hispanics. Kagan (1977) found a similar result, indicating that Hispanics prefer cooperation over competition. Triandis et al. (1984b) indicated that the difference between Hispanic and non-Hispanic social behavior expectations may lead to misunderstandings, stress, and discomfort when non-Hispanics and Hispanics work and interact together. Perhaps this difference in social behavior is due to a difference in coping style. Diaz-Guerrero (1979) discovered that coping styles are culturally contingent, which explains the substantial differences in coping styles between Americans and Mexicans. He described coping style as the general way in which people deal with stress and problems. According to Diaz-Guerrero (1979), the American coping style is primarily focused on modifying the interpersonal, physical, and social environments, whereas the Mexican coping style is primarily concerned with self-modification, such as passively tolerating stress or problems. Other Hispanics should have a similar coping style due to cultural similarities.

Hofstede's (1980) research supports the notion of a common Hispanic culture and differences between Hispanics and non-Hispanics. Hofstede (1980) found significant commonalities among Hispanic cultures, particularly that they are generally high in power distance, collectivism, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance compared to U.S. culture. Power distance is a particularly important dimension of Hispanic culture, given the hierarchal nature of most Hispanic societies. Hofstede (1980) defined power distance as "the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally" (p. 45). Another way to think of power distance is as an acceptance of power and control by people above one's level in a given power structure. Hofstede (1980) described uncertainty avoidance as the extent to which people feel at ease with uncertainty, risk, and ambiguity. A culture that scores high on the uncertainty avoidance dimension indicates that people feel uncomfortable with ambiguity, risk, and uncertainty. Collectivist cultures value cooperative effort and expect people in their groups (friends and family) to take care of them. In individualist cultures, such as

American culture, the expectation is that people should primarily take care of themselves. Hofstede (1980) found some variability in Hispanic cultures concerning the masculinity dimension, with some cultures being more masculine than others. The masculinity dimension measures a culture's dominant values regarding assertive and aggressive social behaviors. Feminine cultures are the opposite of masculine cultures, which Hofstede (1980) defined as stressing equality among the sexes, being nurturing, sympathetic, and cooperative.

Overall, it is proposed that Hispanics tend to have a connection with their native or ancestral cultures and they identify more with them than Euro-Americans who are more disconnected from their ancestral cultures. Given this observation and the material discussed in the previous section, the following hypothesis is proposed.

Hypothesis 3: Hispanics have a stronger ethnic identity than Euro-Americans.

Method

Sample

Undergraduate students were recruited from management courses offered at New Mexico State University. The student population at New Mexico State University has a sizeable proportion of Hispanics (approximately 45%). The high representation of Hispanics facilitated an effective comparison between Hispanic and Euro-American follower perceptions of Hispanic leaders. Students are suitable subjects because they have ample experience being followers and they are the future leaders, managers, and professionals of tomorrow. The fact that firms eagerly recruit undergraduate students implies that these subjects are relevant to organizations.

The sample included 409 students, 341 met the Hispanic or Euro-American ethnicity requirement necessary for inclusion in the study. Students from other ethnicities (68) were not used in the study. Out of the 341 students who met the ethnicity requirement, 6 records were unusable due to missing data, leaving 335 records for analysis. A complete description of the sample is presented in Table 1.

Measures

The satisfaction with supervision sub-scale of the Job Description Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) was used to measure perceived satisfaction with supervision. The scale was slightly adapted to suit the use of the scenario used in the study. The JDI has been used in numerous studies and has internal reliabilities ranging from .80 to .88 (Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr, 1981). For this study, Cronbach's alpha for the satisfaction with supervision subscale was .86. Perceived effectiveness was measured with 4 items developed by Nye and Forsyth (1991). For this study, Cronbach's alpha for the perceived effectiveness scale was .91. Both dependent variables were measured with a 9-point scale.

The ethnic identity subscale of the Scale of Ethnic Experience (Malcarne, Chavira, & Liu, 1996) was used to detect the difference in cultural affiliation between Hispanics and Euro-Americans. A higher score indicated a firmer attachment to one's ethnic group. Malcarne et al. (1996) calculated Cronbach's alpha of .87. For this study, Cronbach's alpha for the sub-scale was .87. The variable was measured with a 5-point scale.

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics (N = 335)

Demographics	Number	Percent
Ethnicity		
Euro-American	211	63
Hispanic	124	37
Gender		
Male	156	50
Female	156	50
Age		
17-19	22	7
20-22	192	60
23-26	70	21
26 >	42	12
Years of full-time work experience		
< 1 year	120	36
1 -2 years	80	24
3-4 years	49	15
4 > years	83	25

Design

The study was designed as a between students, quasi-experiment (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Students were randomly assigned to a Hispanic or Euro-American leader condition and a directive or participative leader condition. The follower's leadership prototype was an independent variable that students self-reported indirectly on the questionnaire by responding to a mini-leadership scenario. Ethnicity match was tested with the leader and follower ethnicity match/mismatch conditions. Leadership match was tested with the leadership prototype and leadership style match/mismatch conditions.

Procedures

After receiving verbal instructions, students read the leadership prototype preference paragraphs that were designed to allow students to indicate their preferred leadership prototype. The leadership prototype preference paragraphs contained two brief scenarios with a directive and participative leader, respectively. The students answered two questions in which they were

asked which leader was more likely to be effective and have satisfied followers. The students chose either the directive or participative leader. The answer to the two questions indicated which leadership prototype the subject preferred (directive or participative). The participants were next given a leadership scenario.

The leadership scenario described a work situation involving new college graduates and a leader working at a major American company in the United States. The students responded to the leader in the scenario as if they were followers and part of the work group. The subject received one of the four versions of the leadership scenario at random. One difference in the scenarios was the leader's ethnicity (Hispanic or Euro-American), which was used to test for the effect of a match or mismatch in ethnicity between the leader and follower. The second difference in the scenarios was the leader's leadership style (directive or participative), which was used to test for the effect of a match or mismatch between the student's leadership prototype and the leader's leadership style. After reading the scenarios, the students completed the questionnaire containing the measures described earlier, as well as demographic items.

Results

Planned contrasts were used to test Hypotheses 1 and 2. The four factors were follower ethnicity, leader ethnicity, leadership prototype, and leadership style. A *t* test was used to test Hypothesis 3. Perceived effectiveness and satisfaction were significantly correlated ($r = .133$, $p = .01$). The mean perceived effectiveness and perceived satisfaction with supervision scores were 6.68 ($SD = 1.74$) and 5.26 ($SD = .58$), respectively. The leadership prototype preference questions indicated that most Hispanics (69%) and Euro-Americans (72%) selected the participative leader as being more effective. Most Hispanics (90%) and Euro-Americans (90%) also selected the participative leader as having more satisfied followers. Table 2 indicates the followers' ethnicity and the number of students. The students were distributed adequately across the possible conditions.

The results provided no support for Hypothesis 1a which predicted that leaders whose style matches their follower's leadership prototype have higher perceived satisfaction with supervision scores. There was no statistically significant difference in mean perceived satisfaction with supervision between the two groups. However, there was support for Hypothesis 1b which predicted that leaders whose style matches their follower's leadership prototype have higher perceived effectiveness. There was a statistically significant difference ($p = .002$) in mean perceived effectiveness between the two groups. The results provided no support for Hypotheses 2a or 2b which predicted that ethnicity match impacts the dependent variables. There was no significant difference between the ethnicity match and mismatch conditions in terms of the dependent variables. There was support for Hypothesis 3 ($p = .000$) which predicted that there was a difference between Hispanic and Euro-American ethnic identity. The mean score for Hispanic students was 43.57 ($SD = 9.16$) while for Euro-Americans it was 35.71 ($SD = 8.73$). The results are summarized in Table 3.

Table 2
Quasi-Experimental Conditions Distribution

Follower Ethnicity	Leader Ethnicity			
	Hispanic		Euro-American	
Hispanic	H, H, D *39*	H, H, P *34*	H, E, D *30*	H, E, P *21*
Euro-American	E, H, D *49*	E, H, P *54*	E, E, D *51*	E, E, P *57*
	Directive	Participative	Directive	Participative
	Leadership Style			

Note. H = Hispanic, E = Euro-American, D = Directive Leader Behavior, and P = Participative Leader Behavior.

Table 3
Results for Hypotheses

Variable	Contrast Estimate (same – different)	*p*	*F*	*t*	*SE*
Leadership Style Match					
Hypothesis 1a. Satisfaction	.02	.95	0.01	0.07	.23
Hypothesis 1b. Effectiveness	.67	.00**	10.07	3.17	.21
Ethnicity Match					
Hypothesis 2a. Satisfaction	.04	.85	0.03	0.19	.23
Hypothesis 2b. Effectiveness	.05	.80	0.06	0.25	.21
Ethnic Identity					
Hypothesis 3. Ethnic Identity	n/a	.00**	0.92	-7.809	1.00

**$p < .01$.

Discussion

The results for leadership style match (Hypotheses 1a and 1b) were mixed. There was no support for Hypothesis 1a which predicted that leadership style match leads to higher perceived satisfaction with supervision ratings. There was, however, support for Hypothesis 1b which predicted that leaders whose style matches their follower's leadership prototype have higher perceived effectiveness ratings than leaders whose style does not match their follower's prototype. This result indicates that leadership style match is important in perceived effectiveness by followers, and it also provides partial support for leadership categorization theory.

Although there is a significant difference in ethnic identity between Hispanics and Euro-Americans, there was no support for the notion that Hispanic ethnicity affects leader behavior perceptions. The non-significant effect of ethnicity is surprising, given the literature which suggests that ethnicity is a significant factor in leadership and in ethnically integrated workgroups. There are two possible explanations for this finding.

One possible explanation is that the students have not experienced much discrimination from leaders who are of another ethnicity. New Mexico has a large and integrated Hispanic population, and students are likely to experience less discrimination because they are viewed as equivalent to Euro-Americans in terms of work behaviors. Such a perception is a function of the long-term interaction between Euro-Americans and Hispanics. This dynamic is unlikely to be evident in other parts of the United States where Hispanics are a minority and not well integrated. In such areas, respondents would be more likely to report differences in perceptions between leaders of their own ethnicity compared to leaders from another ethnicity.

Another possible explanation for the ethnicity match results is also related to the sample. The population sampled in this study is unique when compared to other populations in the United States. Many of the Hispanics sampled were not immigrants, rather they were second or third generation Mexican Americans. Berry (1990) indicated that the length of time interacting with the dominant culture, the education system used, the dominant language, daily practices, and social relations all contribute to acculturation. Regarding the Hispanics sampled, these factors are such that they have led to a high level of acculturation in terms of leadership, but not in terms of ethnic identity. The Hispanics sampled seem to have been fully socialized concerning American leadership expectations, yet they have retained their ethnic identity.

A recent field study of leadership in Mexican *maquiladoras*, published after this study was conducted, yielded results similar to those found in this study. Howell, Romero, Dorfman, Paul, and Bautista (2003) found no main effects for leader ethnicity on follower satisfaction with work, satisfaction with supervision, job performance, role ambiguity, and organizational commitment. There was no statistically significant mean difference between Mexican and American leaders working in Mexico, based on the dependent variables examined in the study. The study by Howell et al. (2003) illustrated that the lack of significant ethnicity effect concerning leadership is not an isolated incident.

Although not statistically significant, the ethnicity results are significant in a practical sense and may be of value to future researchers interested in Hispanic leaders and followers. It suggests that not all Hispanic groups in the United States are the same in terms of their leadership perceptions, which is contrary to what is commonly assumed.

Implications for Managers

The Hispanic population is growing rapidly (Fullerton, 1999) and is one of the fastest growing segments of the U.S. population (Galper, 1998; Larmer, 1999). The 2000 census data indicated that the Hispanic population grew 57.9% from 1990 to 2000 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2001). The growth of the Hispanic population creates a need for a full understanding of how Hispanics are perceived as leaders. Organizations may use this study as a basis to eliminate Hispanic ethnicity as a possible factor contributing to low perceived effectiveness or low perceived satisfaction with supervision of a particular Hispanic leader.

Managers who use Hispanic leaders in an expatriate role might be interested in the findings of the current study. Hispanic ethnicity does not seem to have a negative effect on

perceived satisfaction with supervision or perceived effectiveness. Based on the results, managers may feel comfortable using either Hispanic expatriate leaders or Euro-American leaders since there was no statistically significant difference between leader perceptions for Hispanic and Euro-American leaders. Managers may rule out Hispanic ethnicity as a factor contributing to low perceived effectiveness and low perceived satisfaction with supervision if these are important factors contributing to expatriate failure in a particular organization. Firms operating with similar populations as those sampled in this study may use the findings as a basis for human resource policies concerning expatriate Hispanic leaders. Even if similar populations are not used by a firm, these results in combination with the results from a study by Chemers, Fiedler, Lekhyananda, and Stolurow (1966), can be useful for managers employing Hispanic workers. Chemers et al. (1966) found that leadership training had a significantly positive effect on leader attitudes and group atmosphere and performance. Given these findings, training may be used with Hispanic leaders or Euro-American leaders to assist their adaptation to a given situation.

Limitations and Future Research

The results of the current study must be interpreted with care. Since the study was conducted using a quasi-experimental design, the results are of limited use in terms of generalizability. The sample came from one university in New Mexico; thus, some bias in the sample may be evident which was discussed earlier. Care must be exercised when interpreting the results due to this possible bias as it may affect internal and external validity.

Future research might be conducted to replicate the study using populations from different parts of the United States. The results would likely be different due to the various experiences of other Hispanic populations, which might consist of more recent immigrants or less integrated Hispanics. Furthermore, Euro-American populations in other parts of the United States are likely to have different perceptions of Hispanic leaders due to lower levels of interaction with Hispanics. A replication with such samples could possibly produce mean differences between match and mismatch groups regarding perceptions of Hispanic leaders.

Other future research might be conducted to investigate whether there is a similar preference for participative leadership, such as the strong preference found in this study and in other contexts such as the military, fast food chains, and other organizations that typically use a directive leadership style. It would be interesting and useful to examine the relationship between industry sector, training, and leadership style preference.

This significant finding for Hypothesis 1b indicates that leadership style match is an important factor regarding perceived leader effectiveness. Future research might be conducted to discover whether leadership style match may be influenced by education, organizational culture, or other variables. From a human resource perspective, it would be useful to discover whether training could modify leadership preferences in contexts where a particular leadership style is most common (e.g., directive leadership in the military).

The results from this study and Howell et al. (2003) illustrate that the results regarding ethnicity match warrant further study to better understand the process underlying these surprising findings. In particular, if Hispanic ethnicity does not impact leader prototypes, what other variables are not affected? Is the relationship between ethnicity and leadership prototype similar in other ethnic groups? Is the relationship between ethnicity and leadership style preferences similar in other ethnic groups?

Conclusion

This study examined the effect of a leader's Hispanic ethnicity on leader behavior perceptions. The results were surprising because ethnicity did not have a significant effect on leader behavior perceptions. Therefore, relational demography theory was not supported. However, leadership categorization theory was partially supported. The results are useful because they demonstrate a relationship that is contrary to that found in the literature. Both researchers and practitioners may find value in the results of the study.

About the Author

Dr. Eric J. Romero earned his Ph.D. in business administration from New Mexico State University and holds a B.S. in management/finance and an M.S. in accounting from Binghamton University, USA. He currently serves as a consultant and professor of management. Dr. Romero's research interests include international management, organizational humor, and Latin American leadership. He has published articles in the *Journal of International Management, Academy of Management Executive, Cross Cultural Management,* and *Latin American Business Review,* and he has presented papers at numerous conferences in both the United States and abroad.

Email: ericromero@intrepid-consulting.net
URL: www.intrepid-consulting.net

References

Ayman, R., & Chemers, M. M. (1991). The effect of leadership match on subordinate satisfaction in Mexican organization: Some moderating influences of self-monitoring. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 40,* 299-314.

Bass, A. R., & Turner, J. N. (1973). Ethnic group differences in relationships among criteria of job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 57,* 101-109.

Berry, J. W. (1990). Psychology of acculturation: Understanding individuals moving between cultures. In R. Brislin (Ed.), *Applied cross-cultural psychology* (pp. 232-253). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Campbell, D. T., & Stanley, J. C. (1963). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Cantor, N., & Mischel, W. (1979). Prototypes in person perception. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 12,* 291-317.

Chemers, M. M., Fiedler, F. F., Lekhyananda, D., & Stolurow, L. M. (1966). Some effects of cultural training on leadership in heterocultural task groups. *International Journal of Psychology, 1,* 301-314.

Chong, L. M. A., & Thomas, D. C. (1997). Leadership perceptions in cross-cultural context: Pakeha and Pacific Islanders of New Zealand. *Leadership Quarterly, 8,* 275-293.

Cook, J. D., Hepworth, S. J., Wall, T. D., & Warr, P. B. (1981). *The experience of work.* New York: Academic Press.

Diaz-Guerrero, R. (1979). The development of coping style. *Human Development, 22,* 320-331.

Dorfman, P. W. (1996). International and cross-cultural leadership. In B. J. Punnett & O. Shenkar (Eds.), *Handbook for international management research* (pp. 267-331). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

Dorfman, P. W., & Howell, J. P. (1997a). Managerial leadership in the United States and Mexico: Distant neighbors or close cousins? In C. S. Granrose & S. Oskamp (Eds.), *Cross cultural workgroups* (pp. 234-264). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dorfman, P. W., Howell, J. H., Hibino, S., Lee, J. K, Tate, U., & Bautista, A. (1997b). Leadership in western and Asian countries: Commonalties and differences in effective leadership processes across cultures. *Leadership Quarterly, 8,* 233-274.

Farr, J. L., O'Leary, B. S., & Bartlett, C. J. (1971). Ethnic group differences as a moderator of the prediction of job performance. *Personnel Psychology, 24,* 609-636.

Feild, H. S., Bayley, G. A., & Bayley, S. M. (1977). Employment test validation for minority and nonminority production workers. *Personnel Psychology, 30,* 37-46.

Ford, J. K., Schechtman, S. L., & Kraiger, K. (1986). Study of race effects in objective indices and subjective evaluations of performance: A meta-analysis of performance criteria. *Psychological Bulletin, 99,* 330-337.

Foti, R. J., Fraser, S. L., & Lord, R. G. (1982). Effects of leadership labels and prototypes on perceptions of political leaders. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 67,* 326-333.

Fox, H., & Lefkowitz, J. (1974). Differential validity: Ethnic group as a moderator in predicting job performance. *Personnel Psychology, 27,* 209-233.

Fraser, S. L., & Lord, R. G. (1988). Stimulus protypicality and general leadership impressions: Their role in leadership and behavioral ratings. *The Journal of Psychology, 122,* 291-303.

Fullerton, H. N. (1999). Labor force projections to 2008: Steady growth and changing composition. *Monthly Labor Review, 122,* 19-32.

Galper, J. (1998). Population update. *American Demographic, 20,* 26.

Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1994). Cross-cultural comparison of leadership prototypes. *Leadership Quarterly, 5,* 121-134.

Hains, S. C., Hogg, M. A., & Duck, J. M. (1997). Self-categorization and leadership: Effects of group prototypicality and leader stereotypicality. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 23,* 1087-1099.

Hamner, W. C., Kim, J. S., Baird, L., & Bigoness, W. J. (1974). Race and sex as determinates of ratings by potential employers in a simulated work-sampling task. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 59,* 705-711.

Heneman, R. L. (1986). The relationship between supervisory ratings and results-oriented measures of performance: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, 39,* 811-826.

Hofstede, G. (1980, Summer). Motivation, leadership and organization: Do American theories apply abroad? *Organizational Dynamics,* 42-63.

House, R. J., Wright, N. S., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). Cross-cultural research on organizational leadership: A critical analysis and a proposed theory. In P. C. Earley & M. Erez (Eds.), *New perspectives in international industrial organizational psychology* (pp. 535-625). New Lexington: San Francisco.

Howell, J. P., Romero, E. J., Dorfman, P. W., Paul, J., & Bautista, A. (2003). Effective Leadership in Mexican Maquiladoras: Challenging Common Expectations. *Journal of International Management, 9*(1), 51-73.

Hui, C. C. (1990). Work attitudes, leadership styles and managerial behaviors in different cultures. In R. Brislin (Ed.), *Applied cross-cultural psychology* (pp. 186-208). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Kagan, S. (1977). Social motives and behaviors of Mexican-American and Euro-American children. In J. L. Martinez (Ed.), *Chicano psychology* (pp. 45-86). New York: Academic.

Kraiger, K., & Ford, J. K. (1985). A meta-analysis of ratee race effects in performance ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 70,* 56-65.

Kraiger, K., & Ford, J. K. (1990). The relation of job knowledge, job performance, and supervisory ratings as a function of ratee race. *Human Performance, 3,* 269-279.

Larmer, B. (1999, July 12). Latino America. *Newsweek,* 48-51.

Lincoln, J. R., & Miller, J. (1979). Work and friendship ties in organizations: A comparative analysis of related networks. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 24,* 181-199.

Lord, R. G., De Vader, C. L., & Alliger, G. (1986). A meta analysis of the relation between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71,* 42-410.

Lord, R. G., Foti, R. J., & De Vader, C. L. (1984). A test of leadership categorization theory: Internal structure, information processing and leadership perceptions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 34,* 343-378.

Lord, R. G., Foti, R. J., & Phillips, J. S. (1982). A theory of leadership categorization. In J. G. Hunt, U. Sekaran, & C. Schriesheim (Eds.), *Leadership: Beyond establishment views.* (pp. 104-121). Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.

Lozano, E. (1997). The cultural experience of space and body: A reading of Latin American and Anglo-American American comportment in public. In A. Gonzalez, M. Houston, & V. Chen (Eds.), *Our voices: Essays in culture, ethnicity, and communication* (2nd ed., pp. 195-202). Los Angeles, CA: Roxbury.

Malcarne, V. L., Chavira, D. A., & Liu, P. (1996). *The scale of ethnic experience: A measure for use across ethnic groups.* Paper presented at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Canada.

Morrison, A. M. (1993). Leadership diversity and leadership challenge. In W. E. Rosenbach & R. L. Taylor (Eds.), *Contemporary issues in leadership* (pp. 159-166). San Francisco, CA: Westview Press.

Nye, J. L., & Forsyth, D. R. (1991). The effects of prototype-based biases on leadership appraisals: A test of leadership categorization theory. *Small Group Research, 22,* 360-379.

O'Connell, M. S., Lord, R. G., & O'Connell, M. K. (1990). *An empirical comparison of Japanese and American leadership prototypes: Implications for overseas assignment of managers.* Paper presented at the meeting of the Academy of Management, San Francisco, CA.

Offerman, L. R., & Hellman, P. S. (1997). Culture's consequences for leadership behavior: National values in action. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 28,* 342-351.

O'Reilly, C. A., Caldwell, D. F., & Barnett, W. P. (1989). Work group demography, social integration, and turnover. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 34,* 21-37.

Padilla, A. M. (1995). Introduction to Hispanic psychology. In Padilla, A. M. (Ed.), *Hispanic psychology: Critical issues in theory and research* (pp. xi-xxi). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Riordan, C., & Shore, L. M. (1997). Demographic diversity and employee attitudes: An empirical examination of relational demography within work units. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82,* 342-358.

Romero, E. J. (2004). Latin American Leadership: El Patrón & El Líder Moderno. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal, 11,* 25-37.

Schmitt, N., & Lappin, M. (1980). Race and sex as determinates of the mean and variance of performance ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 65,* 428-435.

Shaw, J. B. (1990). A cognitive categorization model for the study of intercultural management. *Academy of Management Review, 15,* 626-645.

Smith, P. B., Dugan, S., & Trompenaars, F. (1996). National culture and the values of organizational employees: A dimensional analysis across 43 nations. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 27,* 231-264.

Smith, P. C., Kendall, L. M., & Hulin, C. L. (1969). *The measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement.* Chicago: Rand-McNally.

Stephens, G., & Greer, C. (1995). Doing business in Mexico: Understanding cultural differences. *Organizational Dynamics, 24,* 39-55.

Stephens, T. M. (1989). *Dictionary of Latin American racial and ethnic terminology.* Gainesville, FL: University of Florida Press.

Triandis, H. C., Marin, G., Hui, C. H., Lisansky, J., & Ottati, V. (1984a). Role perceptions of Hispanic young adults. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 15,* 297-320.

Triandis, H. C., Marin, G., Lisansky, J., & Betancourt, H. (1984b). Simpatia as a cultural script of Hispanics. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 47,* 1363-1375.

Tsui, A., Egan, T., & O'Reilly, C. (1992). Being different: Relational demography and organizational attachment. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 37,* 549-579.

Tsui, A., & O'Reilly, C. (1989). Beyond simple demographic effects: The importance of relational demography in superior-subordinate dyads. *Academy of Management Journal, 32*, 402-423.

U.S. Census Bureau. (2001, April). *Difference in Population by Race and Hispanic or Latino Origin, for the United States: 1990-2000* (PHC-T-1). Retrieved May 30, 2002, from http://www.census.gov/population/cen2000/phc-t1/tab04.pdf

Wesolowski, M., & Mossholder, K. (1997). Relational demography in supervisor-subordinate dyads: Impact on job satisfaction, burnout, and perceived procedural justice. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 18*, 351-362.

Zenger, T. R., & Lawrence, B. S. (1989). Organizational demography: The differential effects of age and tenure on technical communication. *Academy of Management Journal, 32*, 353-376.

IJLS
INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF LEADERSHIP STUDIES

A Cross-Cultural Study of Leadership Attitudes in Three Baltic Sea Region Countries

Audra I. Mockaitis
Vilnius University, Lithuania
Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand

This study adds to previous research on the influence of national cultural values on leadership attitudes and introduces new findings for three countries - Lithuania, Estonia, and Poland. The attitudes of managers and employees toward various aspects of leadership in these three geographically and historically similar countries are, in fact, different. Significant differences were found across countries on the following variables: control, supervision, view toward authority, commitment, decision type, initiative, preferred leader orientation, and leadership style. It is revealed that differences in attitudes are closely related to differences in country positions on Hofstede's cultural dimensions. This study provides interesting cues for managers working in the region.

Effective leadership depends on the understanding by leaders of the attitudes, expectations, and behaviors of subordinates in various situations. Subordinates must also be motivated to satisfy leaders' expectations of them. This also means that leaders must understand the needs and expectations of subordinates. Thus, the leader should lead in ways both acceptable and encouraging for subordinates to strive for organizational and personal goals and objectives. Traditional studies of leadership, however, have generally focused on leader styles and behaviors, and not on the congruence between leader and follower behaviors, expectations, and attitudes. Many studies have concluded that leaders will be effective in certain situations, provided that certain contingencies are met. However, these contingencies have often been vaguely described.

With the internationalization of business, it became increasingly evident that certain methods or styles are not as effective elsewhere as they are at home. This, in turn, sparked interest in cross-cultural management studies in which various theories were tested or previous studies were replicated in several countries. The main focus of these studies was to test whether differences exist in attitudes toward management aspects across countries. Since the first comparative management studies (e.g., Haire, Ghiselli, & Porter, 1966; Hofstede, 1984 – study conducted from 1968-1972), a number of studies have addressed attitudes toward different aspects of leadership in different countries (Bochner & Hesketh, 1994; Brodbeck et al., 2000; Offermann & Hellmann, 1997; Smith, Peterson, & Wang, 1996; Suutari, 1996). Although they

International Journal of Leadership Studies, Vol. 1 Iss. 1, 2005, pp. 44-63

ISSN 1554-3145

have produced varying results, most have confirmed that national culture influences attitudes toward and behaviors of leaders. Among the most researched topics are attitudes toward leadership and decision-making styles. These are also the focal topics in this study. Consequently, it is no longer necessary to prove that differences in attitudes toward leadership exist across countries, but rather, it is more important to reveal how organizational attitudes are influenced by culture and to describe this relationship.

However, we still know relatively little about employee attitudes and preferences in the former socialist countries. Cross-cultural research is a new field in Central and Eastern Europe (CEE). To date, little research has been conducted on cultural values and their influence on aspects of management in the CEE countries (Ardichvili & Kuchinke, 2002). Most of the studies on leadership, to date, have been conducted in the United States and Western Europe (Yukl, 1994). More recent studies, which have included Eastern Europe, are those of Nasierowski and Mikula (1998) (a replication of Hofstede's 1984 study in Poland); Suutari's (1998) comparison of Estonian, Russian, and Finnish leadership behaviors; a study of human resources practices in 10 countries by Aycan et al. (2000); and the GLOBE study (Brodbeck et al., 2000; Koopman et al., 1999). Little is still known about the Baltic countries. This study fills this gap by examining the influence of cultural values on attitudes toward leadership in Lithuania, Estonia, and Poland. Since this is the first such comparative study in these countries, it is important to provide an accurate picture of the relationship between culture and leadership attitudes. Thus, the aim of this exploratory study is to compare employee attitudes toward supervision and control, views of authority, organizational commitment, types of decisions preferred, taking initiative and leadership styles across the three countries.

Background

Over the last three decades, there has been witnessed a gradual increase in both quantity and quality of comparative leadership studies; however, many of the studies, which address apparently similar issues, report different findings. This may be due, in part, to the differences among studies in their measurement of leadership dimensions (Bass, 1990). Another reason for variation lies in lack of uniformity in the designs of the studies. The studies of the 1960s and 1970s generally attributed variations in country mean scores to cultural differences, without operationalizing the independent variables or theoretically justifying cross-national differences. More recently, studies have related aspects of leadership to specific cultural variables. The following sections introduce the independent and dependent variables in this study and provide an overview of some of the earlier comparative studies from which the dependent variables are drawn.

The Independent Variables

In this study, culture is defined as a set of learned values shared by a group, which influences the group's way of life, including its perceptions (beliefs and attitudes) and behavior, and distinguishes one human group from another (Mockaitis, 2002). Hofstede's (1984) dimensions of culture are used to operationalize the independent variables. Although more recent studies, such as the GLOBE project (Koopman et al., 1999), the dimensions of Schwartz (1994) or Trompenaars (1993) exist, the dimensions of Hofstede (1984) have been chosen to

operationalize culture in this study, as this is the only study, to date, in which data are provided for Lithuania, Estonia, and Poland.

Based on survey research conducted from 1968-1972 on IBM subsidiaries in 40 countries, Hofstede (1984) was able to distinguish four factors, or dimensions, on which countries more or less differ: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity. *Power distance* (PDI) is defined as "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede, 1991, p. 28). *Uncertainty avoidance* (UAI) refers to "the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations" (Hofstede, 1991, p. 113) and their ways of coping with this uncertainty. *Individualism* (IDV) refers to the relationships between an individual and society, whether these ties are loose (high IDV) or whether individuals form tight-knit groups early on in their lives (low IDV). *Masculinity* (MAS) distinguishes between those societies in which gender roles are distinct and "masculine" values dominate (high MAS) and those in which gender roles overlap (low MAS). A fifth dimension, *long term orientation*, was later added by a team of researchers (Chinese Culture Connection, 1987), but data concerning this dimension is unavailable for Lithuania, Estonia, and Poland.

Although Hofstede's work has been criticized for its use of one multinational corporation in drawing generalized conclusions about societies (Triandis, 1982) and that the corporate culture may have had an affect on the results (Shackleton & Ali, 1990), the patterns of relationships found by Hofstede among countries have been shown to remain over time in replication studies (Hoppe, 1998). Hofstede (2001) has provided over 400 external validations of his dimensions. To date, this is the largest and most cited study on national cultural values. The inclusion of findings from several extension and replication studies in new countries currently brings the total number of countries (and regions) in the database to 70.

The original study by Hofstede (1984) did not include Eastern European countries. Results of recent replication studies provide indices for Poland (Nasierowski & Mikula, 1998) and Lithuania (Mockaitis, 2002), while Estonian indices are based on estimates (Hofstede, 2001). Although these data were obtained via replication studies, if culture influences the dependent variables as hypothesized, this justified the use of Hofstede's dimensions for predicting relative differences in employee attitudes across countries. The indices for the three countries on the four dimensions are depicted in Table 1.

Table 1
Indices for Lithuania, Estonia, and Poland on Four of Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

	Individualism (IDV)	Power Distance (PDI)	Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)	Masculinity (MAS)
Lithuania	50	45	67	65
Estonia	60	40	60	30
Poland	60	68	93	64
Highest index score in Hofstede's database	91	104	112	110
Lowest index score in Hofstede's database	6	11	8	5

Ronen and Shenkar (1985) have grouped countries together into country clusters based on previous cross-cultural studies. Since no data were available at the time on Lithuania, Estonia, and Poland, these are not included in any country clusters. Ronen and Shenkar (1985) speculated that countries similar in geographic proximity and institutional environment also share cultural values. It can be seen from Table 1 that there are quite a few similarities between the three countries on certain cultural dimensions. For example, the individualism dimension is similar for Estonia and Poland, masculinity is similar for Lithuania and Poland, and the power distance and uncertainty avoidance dimensions are similar for Lithuania and Estonia. However, although the three countries shared a similar institutional environment, this may actually be used to better reveal true cultural differences.

The Dependent Variables

As with the definition of culture, there are about as many definitions of leadership as there are authors attempting to define it (Stogdill, 1974). The fact that the concept of leadership contains many dimensions adds to this difficulty. Leadership has been defined as a focus of group processes, personality, compliance, influence, behaviors, persuasion, and power relations (Bass, 1990). Here, leadership is defined as "an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of group members" (Bass, 1990, p. 19). An important aspect of this definition is the stress on perceptions and expectations of group members, which is particularly important in cross-cultural interactions. Consequently, actual behaviors of managers and subordinates will not be addressed in this study, but rather, their general beliefs and preferences.

The dependent variables in this study were drawn from several earlier comparative studies. Table 2 provides an overview of some of these earlier studies and the items used to measure leadership variables. Because of the dearth of research in Central and Eastern Europe, I sought to address those aspects of leadership which have been previously measured in other comparative studies in order to provide a better theoretical basis from which to formulate hypotheses.

All of the studies, with the exception of Smith, Peterson, and Wang (1996), measured relatively similar aspects across five or more countries; however, rather different results were obtained. Bass, Burger, Doktor, and Barrett (1979) discussed cross-cultural differences (specifically Hofstede's power distance and uncertainty avoidance dimensions); however, they did not discuss their findings in relation to cultural differences. The later studies, however, all made predictions regarding how their results should differ based on country differences in cultural dimensions, mainly those of Hofstede (1984). Although only Suutari (1996) defined culture, these studies all operationalized culture to some extent by providing definitions of Hofstede's variables and relating their findings to these.

Another noticeable difference lies in the measurement of the variables. Some authors (e.g., Suutari, 1996) measured the degree of agreement with general statements, while others (Bass et al., 1979; Offermann & Hellmann, 1997; Pavett & Morris, 1995) measured both behavior and attitudes. Effective leadership depends on the manager's or leader's ability to recognize subordinate needs and expectations and adjust methods to subordinate perceptions of effective leadership. Of the above studies, however, only Bochner and Hesketh (1994) addressed employee attitudes, while the remaining studies involved managers. Here too is a gap in comparative studies, where studies of employee attitudes are few. In light of these differences, it

Table 2
Summary of Leadership Aspects Addressed by Earlier Studies

Variable	Author(s)	Type of Items Used
Leadership Styles	Haire, Ghiselli, & Porter (1966)	Agreement/disagreement with statements regarding leadership and initiative, sharing information and objectives, participation and internal control. Higher scores indicated a preference for participative/democratic leadership, while lower scores indicated an autocratic/ directive orientation.
	Sadler & Hofstede (1972)	Comparison of preferences for four leadership styles in different situations (Tells, Sells, Consults, and Joins).
	Bass, Burger, Doktor, & Barrett (1979)	Preference for one-way (autocratic) or two-way (democratic) communication and preference for involved (participative) and uninvolved (directive) subordinates.
	Pavett & Morris (1995)	Likert's System 4 Survey.
	Suutari (1996)	Agreement/disagreement with statements regarding autonomy-delegation (deciding how to do own work, making decisions related to their jobs, and regarding how to strive for objectives).
	Offermann & Hellmann (1997)	The extent to which managers engage in the behavior, delegation (also rated by the managers' manager and subordinates).
Decision-making	Haire, Ghiselli, & Porter (1966)	Two statements measuring participation (see above).
	Bass, Burger, Doktor, & Barrett (1979)	Respondents rated their actual and preferred decision-making styles. Individual versus group decision-making was measured.
	Suutari (1996)	Agreements/disagreement with statements regarding participation in decisions.
Supervision and Control	Haire, Ghiselli, & Porter (1966)	Two statements each included in the sharing information and objectives and internal control (see above).
	Bass, Burger, Doktor, & Barrett (1979)	Submissiveness included measures for actual and preferred concern for rules and actual and preferred dependence on higher authority.
	Bochner & Hesketh (1994)	Agreement with McGregor's Theory X.
	Suutari (1996)	Agreement/disagreement with statements regarding role clarification (providing detailed instructions and job descriptions).
	Smith, Peterson, & Wang (1996)	Respondents rated their actual reliance on rules and procedures in evaluating various events.
	Offermann & Hellmann (1997)	(See above). Items included in control were time emphasis, control of details, and goal pressure.

Variable	Author(s)	Type of Items Used
Task vs. Relations Orientation	Bass, Burger, Doktor, & Barrett (1979)	Self-appraisal of actual and preferred concern for human relations.
	Bochner & Hesketh (1994)	Preference for task or people orientation.
Superior-Subordinate Relationships	Bass, Burger, Doktor, & Barrett (1979)	Self-appraisal of actual behaviors and preferences for the use of authority in getting work done and concern for the welfare of subordinates.
	Bochner & Hesketh (1994)	Measured the degree of contact with immediate superior, the extent that subordinates are afraid to disagree with the boss, and hesitancy to approach their superior.
	Offermann & Hellmann (1997)	Communication included feedback and recognition. Approachability also included.
Initiative and Risk-Taking	Bass, Burger, Doktor, & Barrett (1979)	Risk-tolerance measured based on results from various exercises.
	Suutari (1996)	Agreement/disagreement with statements related to initiation – trying out new ideas, stressing the need for new ideas, and practices.

was not possible to directly apply the measures used by previous researchers in this study; however, where possible, similar statements were formulated regarding ideal or preferred, but not actual, leadership behavior.

Research Hypotheses

Culture will influence perceptions about the role of the leader in organizations, the interaction between leader and follower, the types of decisions preferred by superiors and subordinates, and the degree of participative decision-making seen as acceptable. It is expected that Hofstede's cultural dimensions will be useful in predicting differences in Lithuanian, Estonian, and Polish attitudes on different leadership factors. Previous studies (Bochner & Hesketh, 1994, Offermann & Hellmann, 1997; Suutari, 1996) have already found these dimensions to be useful in explaining preferences for participation in decisions, conflict management, supervision and control, leadership styles, and leader orientation. Thus, these studies provide a useful base from which to draw conclusions regarding the relative views of employees in the three Baltic countries toward similar aspects.

Power distance is relevant to the study of leadership because it deals with preferences for, expectations of, and relationships to authority (Offermann & Hellmann, 1997). In high power distance societies, inequality, expressed as differences in status, is the societal norm. On the other hand, where power distance is low, status differences are not accentuated and authority is based on the skills and knowledge of the individual (Hofstede, 1984, 2001). Smith et al. (1994) asserted that managers in high power distance societies use more rules and procedures than those from lower power distance countries. In addition, high uncertainty avoidance induces subordinates to be reluctant to exercise autonomy and accept responsibility, which leads the manager to exercise greater control and provide more detailed instructions than are actually required (Kanungo & Mendonca, 1996). In fact, in their study of managers from 19 countries,

Offermann and Hellmann (1997) found statistically significant positive correlations between uncertainty avoidance and leader control and negative correlations between both uncertainty avoidance and power distance and leader delegation and approachability. Den Hartog et al. (1997) found that Poles have a more positive view of autocratic behavior and status consciousness and risk avoidance than in countries where power distance and uncertainty avoidance are lower. In line with these views, the following two hypotheses are presented.

Hypothesis 1: Supervision and control will be acceptable in Poland the most and acceptable in Estonia the least.

Hypothesis 2: Leadership based on status will be acceptable in Poland the most and acceptable in Estonia the least.

In individualist societies, leadership is about leading individuals who seek their own self-interests based on their needs. In collectivist societies, leadership is a group phenomenon. The group must be an effective unit in order to be led. Subordinates will bring forth loyalty in exchange for security and protection from their superior (Hofstede, 2001). Loyalty will also be higher in societies with higher uncertainty avoidance where security is highly valued. The dependence relationship between superior and subordinate in high power distance societies may also be manifested in increased employee commitment when employees have to depend on superiors for instructions, rewards, and sanctions. Considering that Poland is far higher than Estonia and Lithuania on uncertainty avoidance and power distance and only slightly higher than Lithuania on individualism, the following hypothesis is presented.

Hypothesis 3: Poland will score the highest on preference for leadership based on commitment and loyalty followed by Lithuania and Estonia.

Differences are also hypothesized regarding the way decisions are made, that is, whether decisions are based on logic or intuition and experience. Hofstede (1984, 2001) proposed that this is exemplified in the masculinity dimension. In more feminine societies, decisions will be based on intuition and consensus, will be sought, while in highly masculine societies, they will be based on facts and logic. However, higher uncertainty avoidance also implies that decisions are based on facts and information, as this provides greater control over the decision outcomes. Since Estonia is lowest on masculinity and uncertainty avoidance and Poland scores highest on uncertainty avoidance and high on masculinity, it is expected that Estonians will most and Poles will least prefer intuitive decisions.

Hofstede (1984) and other researchers (e.g., Pavett & Morris, 1995; Suutari, 1996) have found correlations between power distance and preferred leadership styles and participation in decision-making. A higher power distance has been found to be associated with more authoritarian attitudes, while lower power distance societies prefer more consultative styles. On the other hand, individuals in high power distance societies also often indicate a preference for a participative/democratic leader and participation in decision making, indicating a higher enthusiasm for what they least have. In countries where power distance is lowest, initiative in participative decision-making is expected to be taken by subordinates, and we would, thus, expect a consultative or democratic manager to be most preferred. In feminine societies, as already mentioned above, there is a preference for cooperation, but also for decisions by

consensus. Thus, participative decisions may be more preferred in these societies, as well as a consultative or participative manager most valued.

The masculinity dimension is also useful in explaining preferences for a task- versus relations-oriented manager. However, the higher the power distance, the more formal the relationship is between superior and subordinate. Hofstede (1984) found a relationship between the preference for task- and relations-oriented managers and uncertainty avoidance. In high uncertainty avoiding societies, managers are seen as more task-oriented, as a lower tolerance for ambiguity is expressed in controlling tasks, deadlines, and meeting performance objectives. Here, Estonia scored the lowest on power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity, while Poland scored the highest and Lithuania in between. Thus, participation in decisions and a democratic or participative manager will be preferred in Estonia the most and preferred in Poland the least.

Hypothesis 4: Estonia will score highest and Poland the lowest on preference for intuitive decisions.

Hypothesis 5: Estonians will prefer a relations-oriented manager the most, and Poles will prefer this type of manager the least.

Hypothesis 6: Estonians will prefer a democratic/participative leadership style the most, and Poles will prefer this leadership style the least.

Initiative is characteristic of individualist societies. It should not be expected that members in lower individualist societies display initiative, as this would jeopardize their membership to the in-group. When an individual displays initiative, he/she demonstrates a willingness to accept greater responsibility for one's actions and a desire to perform. This is also characteristic of masculine societies, which stress performance and challenge - the more uncertain the outcome of a certain decision, the greater the risk. Thus, an individual's ability to take the risk involved depends on his/her ability to cope with uncertainty. Although Estonia and Poland scored higher on individualism than Lithuania, and both Lithuania and Poland were relatively masculine, Poland scored considerably higher on uncertainty avoidance compared to Lithuania and Estonia, indicating that Poles will be least inclined to demonstrate initiative. Based on these country positions, the following hypothesis is proposed.

Hypothesis 7: Estonians will favor opportunities to show initiative the most, and Poles will favor this the least.

Methods

Many empirical studies may be termed national studies because of the lack of attention to methodological requirements, namely, the isolation of the influence of culture (Kelley & Worthley, 1981). Several steps have been taken to isolate and measure the effect of culture on the dependent variables in this study and are outlined in detail below.

Sample

One of the main problems in cross-cultural research is controlling that variance in the data that is truly attributed to cultural differences. Age, gender, and occupation are among some of the variables that may influence the results. Thus, controlling for background variables is a necessary step in cross-cultural research. One way of ensuring that demographic differences are minimized is to match samples as closely on as many variables as possible. Another method is to apply control of background variables in the statistical analysis, in this way "teasing" out any differences in samples. Both of these methods were applied in this study. The sample consisted of 90 respondents in eight organizations in three countries: four companies in Lithuania, three in Estonia, and one in Poland. Not only were respondents in the organizations matched, but the organizations themselves were similar as well. The influence of contextual factors, such as historical or institutional environment influences were also considered to be minimal, as the three chosen countries share a similar institutional environment, level of economic development, and the like. Because of the similarities between countries, any observed differences are more likely to be a result of cultural differences (Van de Vijver & Leung, 1997).

Choice of organizations. Study participants worked in comparatively young organizations in a single industry, advertising. Because the advertising sector is relatively new in the Baltic countries, it was expected that the average age of employees in the organizations would be relatively low and similar across all organizations. Since the studies of cultural values in the three countries were based on student samples, I sought companies in which the average age of employees was similar to the average age of respondents in the cultural values studies, thus, minimizing the possibility of generation effects, which are especially apparent in post-socialist societies. For example, the replication study in Lithuania (Mockaitis, 2002) reported a mean age of 23, and in Poland the mean age of the student sample was 29 (Nasierowski & Mikula, 1998).

Second, the newness of the advertising sector in the three countries and its specific nature ensured that the agencies engaged in similar activities, used similar technologies and had similar organizational structures. This was confirmed through interviews with company representatives.

Third, because the organizations are relatively small, it was decided to include several organizations in each country, while still ensuring that they were matched on as many aspects as possible. The organizations were all locally-owned, and shared similar ownership or affiliated status. Three of the organizations in Lithuania and two in Estonia belonged to the same parent group of companies, which was owned by Estonian and Lithuanian nationals and was also part stakeholder in the remaining organizations. One Lithuanian and one Estonian organization were also linked to the Polish organizations by partnership association.

All of the organizations employed mostly nationals. Although the Polish organization was head by an expatriate, it had local ownership, as did its affiliated companies in Lithuania and Estonia. This strategy of choosing organizations with shared ownership or affiliation was the only available option, as multinational advertising agencies have entered these markets only recently. All of the companies also shared a similar client base across the three countries and were all engaged in both creative advertising and media strategy. At the time of the study, there were relatively few leading agencies in the three countries. Most advertising companies served mainly local clients and did not have clear strategies. The companies in this study were all leading companies in the three countries, which had adopted uniform methods of working with clients. Although the companies technically belonged to different parent organizations, their

main stakeholders were shared across all organizations in the three countries. This strategy of establishing technically different companies to serve a wider client base was not unusual in these countries, at a time when taxation laws were still changing quite often and profits were kept at a minimum.

Finally, all of the organizations had a similar market share at the time of the study. Thus, with the exception of size, the organizations were matched on several contextual factors: technology, market share, ownership, and organizational structure. This information was also confirmed during preliminary interviews with company management.

Respondent characteristics. The respondent sample consisted of 18 respondents in Poland, 44 in Lithuania, and 28 in Estonia. It was expected that samples would be matched on gender, age, level of education, and job position, considering the specifics of the sector. However, some discrepancies were found. The levels of education in each of the countries were fairly similar, with 75% of respondents in Lithuania, 70% in Estonia, and 78% in Poland having a university degree. The mean age of respondents was 27 in Lithuania and Poland and 29 in Estonia. The gender ratio was 59%, 78%, and 67% female in Lithuania, Estonia, and Poland, respectively. The percentages of respondents in managerial positions were 41% in Lithuania, 29% in Estonia, and 44% in Poland. Because of the uneven distribution of respondents on demographic variables, it was decided to adjust the country means to account for differences in demographic variables by treating them as covariates in the analysis, in this way, ensuring that any remaining differences between the samples be accounted for by culture.

Research Instrument

The data for the study were collected in 2001. The main section of the questionnaire consisted of 34 items asking respondents to indicate the extent of agreement to statements regarding general beliefs about effective leadership on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). The choice for the use of a 6-point scale was made because the items measured opinions and not actual behaviors, and an opinion was sought for each item. It was deliberately sought to avoid labels such as "neither agree nor disagree," as there is still a higher overall prevailing uncertainty in these countries as compared to western European countries and hesitancy to participate in survey research (Michailova & Liuhto, 2000). This was taken as a precautionary measure even though employees were assured that their individual responses would not be revealed to their colleagues or management.

The next section included two questions pertaining to leadership styles and task versus relations orientation. Respondents were asked to choose, from various descriptions, the manager for whom they would most like to work. The last section contained six demographic questions measuring job position, level of education, gender, age, nationality, and department.

The original version of the questionnaire was developed in English. Back-translation was used to check for inconsistencies in the Lithuanian language version, and small changes were made to the questionnaire before distributing the final version. A drawback of the research instrument was that it was not translated into Polish and Estonian, but only Lithuanian, due to the inability to find competent translators in the languages familiar with the topics, and the inability to then back-translate these versions to check for agreement between versions. It could not be guaranteed that meaning equivalence would be maintained if the surveys were translated without back-translation. Although the use of English-language questionnaires in cross-national surveys

has been criticized because of the risk of cultural accommodation (Harzing et al., 2002), it was decided that the original English language questionnaire would be used for Estonian and Polish respondents after interviews with company management in these countries which revealed that the language of communication between companies was English and that command of English by Estonian and Polish respondents was far better than Russian, another possible choice for the language of the questionnaires. As a precaution, the questionnaires were checked for meaning equivalence and instrument and item bias by examining reliabilities, histograms, variance, and standard deviations, as well as theoretical reasoning (comparing the results to hypothesized outcomes). No significant effects of bias on responses were found.

Measures

The constructs in this study were developed based on the analysis of previous cross-national leadership studies. Questionnaire items were formulated to reflect concepts previously addressed in the literature. Most of the measures were inspired by the studies presented in Table 2, with wording changed to reflect general attitudes to avoid reference to one's direct superior and ensure that items assess employee attitudes toward leadership and not actual behaviors, which might be more a reflection of the working environment of respondents. Suutari's (1996) role clarification measure and Haire et al.'s (1966) sharing information and objectives construct were useful in this study in measuring supervision and control. The studies of Laurent (1983) and Bochner and Hesketh (1994) were useful in developing items reflecting views toward authority and conflict avoidance. Other studies provided help, as well, in developing items measuring preferences for a task versus relations orientation (e.g., Bass et al., 1979; Bochner & Hesketh, 1994) and leadership styles (Sadler & Hofstede, 1972). However, most of the previous studies either did not test their scales through factor analysis or reliability analysis, or they did not report these results. For these reasons and because of the lack of uniformity in samples, constructs and measurement of items in previous studies, it was necessary to develop additional measures.

Table 3 depicts the dependent variables of this study. All questionnaire items were first analyzed and grouped into constructs on the basis of intercorrelations and theoretical reasoning. The internal consistency of constructs was tested using Cronbach's alpha. To ensure that constructs were reliable measures in all three countries, the overall alpha reliabilities were first calculated across countries and then analyzed separately within each country. This strategy allowed for the detection of constructs, which at first glance appeared reliable, but showed low reliabilities in one or more countries. Constructs with alpha reliabilities lower than 0.60 overall or in more than one country were subsequently removed from the analysis. This resulted in the six composite variables in the table with alpha reliabilities all over 0.62 and two additional variables: task versus relations orientation and leadership style, which were each measured with a single question asking respondents to indicate preferences for leader type from among two choices for a task versus relations orientation and four choices regarding leadership style.

Although the reliabilities within countries for each of the constructs were satisfactory, there were some discrepancies. The 3-item control scale had the highest overall alpha reliability of 0.86 and high reliabilities in Estonia and Poland, yet lower in Lithuania ($\alpha = 0.63$). The same is true of decision type ($\alpha = 0.76$) and initiative ($\alpha = 0.73$), where reliabilities in Estonia and Lithuania were $\alpha = 0.58$, respectively. The highest consistency, although with a lower overall alpha reliability ($\alpha = .63$), was for the supervision scale. Although the overall

Table 3
Alpha Reliabilities of Leadership Constructs

	Reliabilities (alpha, α)			
Construct and Items	Overall	LT	EE	PL
Control	0.86	0.63	0.85	0.92
1. A good job is one in which what is to be done and how it is done are always clear.				
2. A good leader should be able to answer any questions that employees have about their work.				
3. A good leader will provide detailed instructions for employees to accomplish their tasks.				
Supervision	0.63	0.65	0.64	0.60
1. Strict supervision is necessary for high performance in any organization.				
2. Subordinates need to be provided with detailed instructions on how to do their job, rather than general direction.				
3. A boss who checks that work is being done correctly shows that he/she is concerned with getting the job done.				
View toward Authority	0.67	0.58	0.73	0.63
1. People in authority are usually more intelligent and more knowledgeable than their subordinates.				
2. A good manager should be an expert in his/her area.				
3. Top management should make all important company decisions.				
4. It is normal for those in higher positions to receive special privileges.				
Commitment	0.62	0.64	0.75	0.59
1. A good employee will accept a group decision, even if he/she has a different opinion.				
2. Group incentives and rewards are better than individual ones.				
3. If I were offered the same job with slightly higher pay elsewhere, I would have to think seriously before accepting.				
Decision Type	0.76	0.71	0.58	0.84
1. Good decision-makers use intuition and experience.				
2. Usually, better decisions are made quickly, based on intuition.				
Initiative	0.73	0.58	0.66	0.72
1. In order to get ahead it is necessary to show initiative and be ambitious.				
2. Allowing subordinates to display initiative is one of the keys to organizational success.				

Note. LT = Lithuania, EE = Estonia, and PL = Poland.

reliabilities are rather satisfactory, where the reliabilities of constructs vary significantly within countries, the results should be approached with some caution.

Findings

Table 4 depicts the results for all of the dependent variables. Mean scores for composite variables were calculated as the average of items comprising the scale. A comparison of hypothesized to observed outcomes, highlighting significant differences in mean scores between pairs of countries, is presented in Table 5.

Poland scored the highest on control and supervision and Estonia scored the lowest, as was predicted in Hypothesis 1. Post-hoc tests indicated that differences in mean scores between all countries were significant for control, and that Poland scored significantly higher on supervision than Estonia, as suggested in the hypothesis.

The next variable in Table 4 is view toward authority. Hypothesis 2 predicted that status (as expressed here in acceptance of authority and privileges) will be acceptable in Poland the most and in Estonia the least. Although post-hoc tests revealed that Poland scored significantly higher than both Estonia and Lithuania, the mean difference between Lithuania and Estonia was not significant, and Estonia scored even slightly higher than Lithuania, contrary to what was predicted.

It was predicted in Hypothesis 3 that Polish respondents would demonstrate a clear preference for loyalty to the organization and group commitment. These aspects were grouped in commitment, where Poland scored the highest and Lithuania the lowest, and post-hoc tests indicated that Poland scored significantly higher than both of the remaining countries. Hypothesis 3 was not fully supported by these results.

Table 4
Adjusted Country Mean Scores and Culture Effects for Leadership

	Lithuania		Estonia		Poland					
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	F_1	η^2	F_2	η^2
Control	4.50	.86	3.74	1.03	4.94	1.18	18.77***	.20	17.08***	.19
Supervision	3.32	.91	2.92	.95	3.51	.93	1.88	.02	6.31*	.08
View toward Authority	3.77	.73	3.78	.76	4.50	.74	13.19***	.15	14.57***	.17
Commitment	3.92	.76	3.96	.91	4.40	.85	5.02*	.07	4.75*	.06
Decision Type	3.91	.90	4.56	.73	3.88	1.14	10.73***	.12	7.74**	.10
Initiative	5.14	.61	5.26	.53	4.54	.74	18.01***	.19	18.15***	.20
Task vs. Relations Orientation	1.71	.47	1.95	.27	1.35	.50	22.30***	.23	26.33***	.27
Leadership Style	2.89	.85	3.63	.56	2.66	.57	27.14***	.27	30.97***	.30

***$p < 0.001$. **$p = 0.001$. *$p < 0.01$.

A higher score on decision type indicated that intuitive decisions were preferred to facts-based decisions. This was predicted in Hypothesis 4 to be associated with the masculinity and uncertainty avoidance dimensions, where Estonia was expected to score the highest and Poland the lowest on a preference for intuitive decisions. The results were in line with this proposition, and the differences in mean scores between Poland and Estonia were statistically significant. It was also expected that Estonians would not only prefer intuitive decisions the most, but also a relations-oriented leader (Hypothesis 5), indicated by a higher score on the task versus relations orientation. This hypothesis was supported by the findings.

The preference for leadership styles differed significantly across countries. It was hypothesized (Hypothesis 6) that Estonians would prefer a democratic/participative leadership style the most (Type 4 of the four leader descriptions in the questionnaire) and Poles the least. Here, Estonia indicated a preference for a Type 3 (consultative) or Type 4 (democratic/ participative) manager, while Poland most preferred a persuasive (Type 2) manager. Lithuanian respondents preferred a persuasive or consultative style (closer to Type 3). These results, thus, supported Hypothesis 6.

The final hypothesis (Hypothesis 7) pertained to initiative, where Estonia was predicted to score the highest, followed by Lithuania and Poland. The ordering of countries is in line with predicted positions, and post-hoc tests indicated that Estonians do agree far more than Poles that showing initiative leads to individual and organizational success. This could be expected, given the large relative country differences on the uncertainty avoidance dimension. The final hypothesis was, thus, supported by the findings.

Table 5
Pairwise Comparisons of Country Mean Scores and Hypothesized Differences

	Hypothesized	Observed	Sign.diff.	Support
Control	PL>LT>EE	PL>LT>EE	PL>LT; PL, LT>EE	YES (H1)
Supervision	PL>LT>EE	PL>LT>EE	PL>EE; LT>EE	YES (H1)
View toward Authority	PL>LT>EE	PL>EE=LT	PL>LT, EE	NO (H2)
Commitment	PL>LT>EE	PL>EE>LT	PL>LT, EE	NO (H3)
Decision Type	EE>LT>PL	EE>LT>PL	EE>LT, PL	YES (H4)
Initiative	EE>LT>PL	EE>LT>PL	LT, EE>PL	YES (H7)
Task vs. Relations Orientation	EE>LT>PL	EE>LT>PL	EE>LT, PL; LT>PL	YES (H5)
Leadership Style	EE>LT>PL	EE>LT>PL	EE>LT, PL; LT>PL	YES (H6)

Note. LT = Lithuania, EE = Estonia, and PL = Poland; Pairs reported were significantly different at $p < 0.05$.

Main Effects

Most of the findings presented above supported the hypotheses in so far as the ordering of countries was in line with predictions on the dependent variables. However, this did not fully

reveal why these differences exist. The proposals regarding country positions on the dependent variables were based on reasoning regarding country positions on four of Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Thus, this reasoning may be justified if culture effects are found on the dependent variables.

Analysis of Variance was used to test the main effect of culture on the dependent variables. However, since background variables may also explain some amount of cross-cultural differences, a procedure suggested by Van de Vijver and Leung (1997) was used to test the main effects of culture in the presence of other variables. The procedure consisted of two stages. An ANOVA was first conducted to test the null hypothesis of no cultural differences on the dependent variable and the effect of culture is measured (F_1). Demographic variables were next introduced as covariates and the effect of culture after control of these variables was measured again (F_2). These values were then compared. Where the effect of culture before and after the introduction of covariates does not differ significantly, cross-cultural differences cannot be accounted for by the context variables. Where F_1 was significant, F_2 is smaller yet significant as well, the context variables provided a partial explanation for mean differences. And, if F_2 is not significant, mean differences may be entirely attributed to the context variables. In those instances where background variables are seen to have an effect on mean differences, separate ANOVAs were conducted entering the background variables each separately as covariates, and the F-ratios before and after their introduction were compared to the original F_1 values once again, to isolate those variables, which have the strongest effects. To verify that these background variables indeed influence mean scores, separate ANOVAs were then conducted, treating the identified demographic variables as independent factors. This method provides an efficient way to identify which external variables affect mean differences.

It may be seen in Table 4 that the most significant initial effects of culture (F_1) were found for the variables control, view toward authority, decision type, initiative, task vs. relations orientation, and leadership style. A smaller effect was found for commitment, and the effect on supervision was insignificant. It became clear from the table that were we not to isolate culture and conduct the analysis again with the inclusion of covariates, the results could be misleading. It is clear that for some of the variables, differences on the demographic variables interfere and do not allow us to see the clear picture.

After the introduction of covariates (F_2), it is seen that some of the variables were influenced wholly by culture (e.g., view toward authority, initiative, task vs. relations orientation, and leadership style). Where the influence on supervision was not significant before statistical control, mean differences on this variable were now attributed to cultural differences. Here, only education ($F = 8.17$, $p < .001$) had a large initial effect on supervision, which is not surprising, as Hofstede (1984, 2001) had also found a negative relationship between power distance and level of education. Demographic variables partially explained differences on commitment and decision type. It may be said that the evidence of culture effects for the above variables assisted in confirming hypotheses 1, 4, 5, 6, and 7; and the lack of significant effect of culture on some of the factors helped to explain why the remaining hypotheses were not fully supported.

It makes sense to identify other explanatory variables and identify their effects. Table 6 depicts the two variables identified as partially explained by demographic variables and their F_2 values. It became evident that commitment was slightly affected by age and more so by job position, and decision type was influenced by age and more so by gender. Separate ANOVAs were conducted, treating each of the identified demographic variables as independent factors, to determine which of these were most accountable for differences in mean scores. The ANOVAs

revealed that commitment was most affected by job position, while the mean differences on decision type were partially explained by gender. None of the *F*-ratios for the remaining demographic variables exceeded 1.00. Also, the only highly significant effect was that of gender on decision type ($F = 10.71$, $p < .01$). Thus, the effects of demographic variables on the dependent variables were only slight. Aside from the influence of gender on decision type, it may be concluded that the cultural influences overrode influences of demographic variables.

Table 6
The Effects of Demographic Variables on Select Leadership Factors

		New F_2 Values			
	F_1	Age	Education	Gender	Job Position
Commitment	5.02*	4.57	5.02*	7.72*	4.61*
Decision Type	10.73*	9.77**	11.45**	7.86*	10.48**

**$p < 0.001$. *$p < 0.01$.

Discussion

This study suggests that even apparently culturally "close" countries exhibit variations in attitudes about leadership, which may be explained by cultural differences. The former command economy countries, despite a relatively shared institutional environment, were quite different with respect to national cultural values and attitudes with Lithuania midway between Estonia and Poland on almost all dimensions (with the exception of the masculinity dimension). Culture was found to wholly explain mean differences on five dependent variables and partially explain differences on three. The relative country positions on many of the leadership factors were in line with expectations, which were based on previous research and lend support to the usefulness of Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Some implications of the results are discussed next.

Supervision

Strict supervision will cause the most negative consequences in Estonia, where relationships are less formal and superior-subordinate relationships are based on interdependence and trust. Employees in Estonia are willing to show initiative, express their opinion, and prefer a democratic leader. On the other hand, Lithuanians prefer a manager who is persuasive or consultative, who depends less on subordinates than in Estonia. Consequently, relationships may be more formal and the manager will be given more control than in Estonia. In Poland, even stricter supervision will be acceptable in comparison, as this leaves little room for subordinates to make mistakes and lessens the need for initiative.

Leader Style and Authority

Employees in Poland prefer a persuasive leader who makes the decisions and informs employees about them. Participative decision-making will be most encouraged by superiors and accepted by subordinates in Estonia. Here, a low power distance implies that superiors and subordinates are interdependent, and subordinates are willing to take the individual initiative

associated with decision making because of high individualism. The low masculinity, of Estonia is also characterized by cooperation and consensus. In Lithuania, with a higher power distance, high masculinity and lower individualism, employees may prefer participative decision-making; however this will take a different form. The superior may be expected to take the initiative or decide when participation is necessary and provide guidance in the process. In Poland, on the contrary, supervision and decision-making are inherent in the hierarchy and prerogatives of authority.

Teamwork

It is also likely that reaching consensus in teams will take the longest in Estonia, where the opinions of each group member will be sought. Individuals are likely to express their opinions and have a lower hesitancy to disagree with other group members. Commitment to the team may not be as high as in the other two countries, as each group member also has individual interests to defend, however optimal solutions will be sought. In Lithuania, membership to the group also determines group members' opinions to some extent, and group members may be more likely to go along with the group despite their personal opinions. Employees may also depend on the leader to have the final say in decisions. The highest commitment to the group was expressed in Poland, however, just as in decision-making, group members may not be able to arrive at solutions without the guidance of someone in authority.

Limitations and Future Research

This study is not without limitations. First of all, the small sample size was a result of regional specifics, as nonexistence of multinational corporations with offices in all three countries limited the ability to find perfectly matched organizations in all three countries. Thus, I had to rely on the next best strategy of finding relatively matched organizations, albeit small in size. However, the control of background variables helped to minimize any remaining differences in the samples. Support was also found for many of the hypotheses, thus lending support to the relevance of the country samples. Another limitation was the inability to find qualified translators (and back-translators), at the time of the study, in all three languages. Although the overall instrument reliabilities were high in all three countries, some minor discrepancies in construct reliabilities were found within countries. Third, the results represent relative similarities and differences in employee attitudes toward various leadership concepts. Thus, the conclusions should be viewed only relative to the other countries in the study. The actual practices in organizations in the three countries and a comparison, not only to cultural values, but to employee preferences, is an area for future research in the region. Replication would also improve the generalizability of the findings.

It is expected that this study will enhance understanding of emerging management practices in the Baltic States and neighboring countries - at least in as much as an understanding of relative similarities and differences in values and attitudes is provided, and that it will not only spark interest in this, as yet, neglected region in comparative management, but also establish a foundation for further comparative research in the region. This may provide new insights for policy-formation by multinationals in the region and especially for those companies which have, thus far, treated the region as a single market.

About the Author

Dr. Audra I. Mockaitis holds a Ph.D. in comparative/cross-cultural management from Vilnius University in Lithuania and a B.A. from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, USA. Until recently, she has been an associate professor of international business and marketing at Vilnius University. In 2006, she will transition to Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand as their senior lecturer in international business.

Dr. Mockaitis' current research focuses on the internationalization of firms (SMEs), consumer ethnocentrism, cultural values and their influence on consumer behavior, communication, and leadership in the Central and Eastern European region.

Email: audra@mockaitis.com
URL: www.mockaitis.com

References

Aycan, Z., Kanungo, R. N., Mendonca, M., Yu, K., Deller, J., Stahl, G., & Kurshid, A. (2000). Impact of culture on human resource management practices: A 10-country comparison. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 49*(1), 192-221.

Ardichvili, A., & Kuchinke, K. P. (2002). Leadership styles and cultural values among managers and subordinates: A comparative study of four countries of the former Soviet Union, Germany and the US. *Human Resource Development International, 5*(1), 99-117.

Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research and managerial application (3rd ed.).* New York: The Free Press.

Bass, B. M., Burger, P. C., Doktor, R., & Barrett, G. K. (1979). *Assessment of managers: An international comparison.* New York: The Free Press.

Bochner, S., & Hesketh, B. (1994). Power distance, individualism/collectivism and job-related attitudes in a culturally diverse work group. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 25*(2), 233-57.

Brodbeck, F. C., Freese, M., Akerblom, S., Audia, G., Bakacsi, G., Bendova, H., et al. (2000). Cultural variation of leadership prototypes across 22 European countries. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 73,* 1-29.

Chinese Culture Connection. (1987). Chinese values and the search for culture-free dimensions of culture. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 18*(2), 143-164.

Den Hartog, D., Koopman, P., Thierry, H., Wilderom, C., Maczynski, J., & Jarmuz, S. (1997). Dutch and Polish perceptions of leadership and culture: The GLOBE project. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 6*(4), 387-413.

Haire, M., Ghiselli, E., & Porter, L. W. (1966). *Managerial thinking: An international study.* New York: John Wiley.

Harzing, A. W., Maznevski, M., Barzantny, C., Castro, F. B., Feely, A., Fischlmayr, I., et al. (2002). The Interaction between language and culture: A test of the cultural accommodation hypothesis in seven countries. *Language and Intercultural Communication, 2*(2), 120-139

Hofstede, G. (1984). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values.* London: Sage.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. London: McGraw-Hill.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations.* London: Sage.

Hoppe, M. (1998). Validating the masculinity/femininity dimension on elites from 19 countries. In G. Hofstede, W. A. Arrindell, D. L. Best, M. De Mooij, M. H. Hoppe, E. Van de Vliert, et al. (Eds.), *Masculinity and femininity: The taboo dimension of national cultures* (pp. 29-43). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Kanungo,R. N., & Mendonca, M. (1996). *Ethical dimensions of leadership.* London: Sage.

Kelley, L., & Worthley, R. (1981). The role of culture in comparative management: A cross-cultural perspective. *Academy of Management Journal, 24*(1), 164-173.

Koopman, P. L., Den Hartog, D. N., Konrad, E., Akerblom, S., Audia, G., Bakacsi, et al. (1999). National culture and leadership profiles in Europe: Some results from the GLOBE study. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 8*(4), 503-520.

Laurent, A. (1983). The cultural diversity of western conceptions of management. *International Studies of Management and Organization, 13,* 75-96.

Michailova, S., & Liuhto, K. (2000). Organisation and management research in tansition eonomies: Towards improved research methodologies. *Journal of East-West Business, 6*(3), 7-46.

Mockaitis, A. I. (2002). The national cultural dimensions of Lithuania. *Ekonomika, 59,* 67-77.

Nasierowski, W., & Mikula, B. (1998). Culture dimensions of Polish managers: Hofstede's indices. *Organization Studies, 19*(3), 495-509.

Offermann, L. R., & Hellmann, P. S. (1997). Culture's consequences for leadership behaviour. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 28*(3), 342-51.

Pavett, C., & Morris, T. (1995). Management styles within a multinational corporation: A five country comparative study. *Human Relations, 48*(10), 1171-1191.

Ronen, S., & Shenkar, O. (1985). Clustering countries on attitudinal dimensions: A review and synthesis. *Academy of Management Review, 10,* 435-54.

Sadler, P.J., & Hofstede, G. (1972). Leadership styles: Preferences and perceptions of employees in an international firm in different countries. *Mens en Ondernerning, 26,* 43-63.

Schwartz, S. (1994). Beyond individualism/collectivism: New cultural dimensions of values. In U. Kim, H. C. Triandis, C. Kagitcibasi, S. C. Choi, & G. Yoon (Eds.), *Individualism and collectivism: Theory, method and applications* (pp. 85-119). London: Sage.

Shackleton, V. J., & Ali, A. H. (1990). Work-related values of managers: A test of the Hofstede model. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 21*(1), 109-118.

Smith, P. B., Peterson, M. F., Akande, D., Callan, V., Cho, N. G., Jesuino, J., et al. (1994). Organizational event management in 14 countries: A comparison with Hofstede's dimensions. In A. M. Bouvy, F. van de Vijver, P. Schmitz, & P. Boski (Eds.), *Journeys into Cross-Cultural Psychology* (pp. 364-373). Amsterdam: Swets and Zeitlinger.

Smith, P. B., Peterson, M. F., & Wang, Z. M. (1996). The manager as mediator of alternative meanings: A pilot study from China, the USA and UK. *Journal of International Business Studies, 27*(1), 115-38.

Smith, P. B., Dugan, S., & Trompenaars, F. (1996). National culture and the values of organizational employees. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 27,* 231-64.

Stogdill, R. M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership.* New York: The Free Press.

Suutari, V. (1998). Leadership behaviour in Eastern Europe: Finnish expatriates' experiences in Russia and Estonia. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 9*(2), 235-58.

Suutari, V. (1996). Leadership ideologies among European managers: A comparative survey in a multinational company. *Scandinavian Journal of Management, 12*(4), 389-409.

Triandis, H. C. (1982). Review of culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values. *Human Organization, 41,* 86-90.

Trompenaars, F. (1993). *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding cultural diversity in business.* Avon: Bath Press.

Van de Vijver, F., & Leung, K. (1997). *Methods and data analysis for cross-cultural research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Yukl, G. (1994). *Leadership in organizations.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

IJLS
INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF LEADERSHIP STUDIES

Determinants of Shared Leadership in Management Teams

Michael Shane Wood
Nebraska Christian College

This study investigated the extent to which behaviors in a team and structure of a team influence the willingness of team members to share in leadership. The results indicated that empowering team behaviors related positively with shared leadership. Horizontal team structure had limited effects on shared leadership. The development of shared leadership in a management team depends largely on increasing the perception of empowering behaviors that team members experience. Implications for the practice of shared leadership, as well as ideas for future research, are discussed.

Historically, organizations have been arranged and led hierarchically (Halal, 1994; Hatch, 1997). In these institutions, the individual at the "top" of the organization is a central figure who sets the vision for the company, communicates organizational policy, and enforces institutional control (Bass, 1990; Hatch, 1997). In many cases today, top management teams (TMTs), rather than CEOs alone, guide organizations. In this arrangement, members share the responsibility in leading, rely on others for social support, and benefit from the physical assistance of others when faced with significant challenges. Since shared leadership is an increasingly powerful leadership approach within TMTs, it is important to identify what specific factors may contribute to team members being willing to take on leadership responsibilities. Shared leadership refers to the state or quality of mutual influence in which team members disperse the leadership role throughout the group, participate in the decision-making process, fulfill tasks traditionally reserved for a hierarchical leader, and, when appropriate, offer guidance to others to achieve group goals (Caramanica & Rosenbecker, 1991; Cohen, Chang, & Ledford, 1997; Harrison, 1996; O'May & Buchan, 1999; Pearce & Conger, 2003a).

Zaccaro, Ritman, and Marks (2001) suggested that the process of sharing leadership within a team develops as a result of many factors. This current study investigated two possible components contributing to shared leadership: team behaviors that encourage individual empowerment and team structure that is horizontal in nature. Team behaviors denote the attitudes and actions expressed by members of the team, in a collective fashion, toward other members of the team, while team structure refers to the structures and framework of authority that exists among members of a team.

International Journal of Leadership Studies, Vol. 1 Iss. 1, 2005, pp. 64-85

ISSN 1554-3145

Theoretical Development

Shared Leadership

Previous research indicated that an essential distinction between shared leadership and more traditional, hierarchical forms of leadership is that the shared approach to leadership emphasizes lateral, peer influence rather than the downward influence of an appointed leader upon subordinates (Conger & Pearce, 2003) (see Table 1).

Table 1
Differences between Shared Leadership and Traditional Forms of Leadership

Issues Related to Leadership Style	Shared Leadership	More Traditional Leadership
Behavior expressed	Aggregated behavior (Cox, Pearce, & Perry, 2003; Cox, Pearce, & Sims, 2003)	Singular or multiple behavior (Yukl, 2001; Pearce, 1997)
Type of structure	Lateral and decentralized (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996; Pearce, 1997; Pearce & Sims, 2000)	Hierarchical and centralized (Hatch, 1997; Yukl, 2001)
Actions of member	Autonomous and self-led (Pearce & Sims, 2002; Porter-O'Grady, Hawkins, & Parker, 1997)	Dependent and instructed (Hatch, 1997; Yukl, 2001)
Actions of team	Collaborative and consensus-driven (Graham & Barter, 1999; Spooner, Keenan, & Card, 1997)	Responsive to desires of leader (Hatch, 1997; Yukl, 2001)

Team members engaging in shared leadership exhibit particular traits. First, Barker (1993) identified that members of teams with shared leadership frequently displayed behaviors *in concert* with one another. In other words, teams express an aggregated behavior so as to intentionally influence other members. A failure to respond to this expressed, concertive influence leads the members expressing the concertive behavior to take corrective measures against those individuals not responding to it. The goal of this expressed influence is to either have unresponsive members adjust to the desired behavior or to leave the team.

Another distinction of shared leadership is the autonomy exhibited by team members (Kennerly, 1996). Porter-O'Grady and Wilson (1995) noted that members engaged in sharing leadership used this enhanced sense of autonomy to address issues that directly affected their specific role within the team. Team members experiencing leadership characteristics may feel an implied permission to resolve problems they encounter without the guidance of an immediate supervisor. Thus, rather than relying on a supervisor to offer insight and lend support, team

members sharing in leadership personally address issues that affect their work. It is important to note, however, that the ability to act autonomously does not automatically guarantee a team will practice shared leadership. Team members with increased autonomy may function in a way that makes their own desires a higher priority than the needs of the team. Therefore, members of teams with shared leadership balance personal autonomy with collaboration among members (Blase & Blase, 1999; Coluccio & Havlick, 1998; Harrison, 1996).

Third, O'May and Buchan (1999) stated that the ability of members to participate in the decision-making process of a team is one of the core values of shared leadership. They noted that this participation is particularly important when the decision-making process involves elements of administrative oversight. Participation in decision-making, then, may range from the rotation of leadership responsibilities among various team members to the building of a consensus among all members of that team (Fielding, 1999; Yeatts, Hyten, & Barnes, 1998).

A fourth characteristic of shared leadership is an increase in the accountability that members experience with one another (Laschinger & Wong, 1999; Spooner et al., 1997). Accountability refers to the willingness of individuals to accept responsibility for the tasks and roles that they fill on the team (Laschinger & Wong, 1999). In other words, members participate in decision-making and goal-setting, but they also accept responsibility for the consequences of those decisions and "pull their own weight" in reaching those goals. Among members sharing leadership, no one individual is too important or too expendable for the team to function appropriately. Likewise, no one member is completely responsible or completely exonerated should the group fail to meet its obligations. Consequently, for team members engaging in sharing leadership, there is a balance of autonomy and accountability, and these characteristics are distributed among all individuals on the team.

Empowering Team Behaviors

Behaviors experienced by members of teams range on a continuum between two extremes: behaviors that are more empowering in nature and behaviors that are more controlling (Pearce & Sims, 2002). Behaviors that are more controlling in nature may lead team members to sense a greater degree of instruction and oversight regarding job tasks and personal roles within the team. Conversely, behaviors that are more empowering in nature may lead team members to sense an encouragement to function in a more self-led manner and participate in the leadership of the team (Pearce, Perry, & Sims, 2001).

In a study that examined the effects of behaviors upon team effectiveness, Pearce and Sims (2002) noted that experiencing *more empowering* team behaviors generated greater feelings of motivation and aroused positive emotions among team members. This finding was consistent with the previous empowerment research. Kirkman and Rosen (1999) stated that empowered individuals feel as though they are performing meaningful work that advances the organization as a whole. This sense of psychological empowerment moves team members beyond the point where they only feel the freedom to function autonomously. This type of empowerment motivates members to act upon that freedom.

Another distinctive of teams that exhibit empowering behaviors is the emphasis placed upon mutual and self-influence among employees (rather than external, top-down control) (Cox, Pearce, & Perry, 2003; Pearce & Sims, 2002). Members experiencing more empowering behaviors within their team feel encouraged to develop greater competency and breadth in their own work roles (Short, 1994). For example, members recognize that different individuals, at

different times, make valuable contributions to the group. While each member may have an area of expertise, all members of the team strive to familiarize themselves with tasks performed by other members. This practice minimizes the quandary of a team having only one individual who is capable of providing important services to stakeholders as well as functioning as the *resident expert* on certain tasks. Functionally, a team expressing more empowering behaviors promotes task development among several members to help insure that the team meets increasingly complex and time-consuming requirements. Developing such competencies allows members to expand their own skill level as well as expand the competencies of other members so that the group operates as a high-functioning team (Cox, Pearce, & Sims, 2003; Klenke, 1997; Perry, Pearce, & Sims, 1999). Furthermore, this practice helps members sense their added value to and increased identification with others on the team (Hackman, 1992; Spreitzer, 1996). Consequently, as members increase their contributions to the team, they likely begin to feel a greater sense of investment regarding the function of that group and will take an active part in helping the group adequately complete its tasks.

Horizontal Team Structure

Authority structure within a team usually exhibits characteristics that range on a continuum from vertical (hierarchical) to horizontal (level). In a structure that is more vertical in nature, a hierarchy exists where an appointed leader serves as the primary source of instruction, oversight, and control for others (Houghton, Neck, & Manz, 2003). Traditionally, these leaders project influence in a downward, *one-to-many* fashion (Yukl, 2001). Individuals in the higher levels of this hierarchy may serve as the source of control and oversight for others on the team (Bass, 1990; Houghton et al., 2003; Yukl, 2001). Correspondingly, the appointed leader in the vertical team structure delegates specific tasks to other members. Essentially, the leader oversees the activities of the group and the group executes the desires of this leader. In this type of structure, the individual at the top of the hierarchy is the primary source of information for members rather than multiple individuals who evaluate information and reach a consensus concerning a decision (Northouse, 2001). In a structure that is more horizontal in nature, however, there is a greater diffusion of influence, guidance, and instruction among members throughout the team. A team with such a structure promotes relational connection and mutual influence rather than one assigned leader overseeing the function of the team (Cox, Pearce, & Perry, 2003). Thus, there is no one individual at the top of a hierarchy, but each member interacts with other members of the team as a colleague (Houghton et al., 2003). Seibert, Silver, and Randolph (2004) argued that, whereas psychological empowerment influences an individual's subjective experiences of empowerment on work practices, structures and policies create an *empowering climate* that supports the objective sense of employee empowerment.

One important dynamic of horizontal team structure is that members experience greater freedom to voice their opinion regarding matters affecting the team. Researchers affirm that a more horizontal authority structure emphasizes a lateral relationship of leadership among fellow team members (Pearce & Conger, 2003b; Pearce & Sims, 2000). Rather than feeling forced to function only within their chain-of-command, each member operates more freely across lines of authority. For example, a positional leader may exist in a team that is structured more horizontally, but members on the team will likely view and interact with this leader as a peer rather than a person of positional authority.

The significance of a more horizontal structure also influences the function of diversely-trained members serving on the same team. For example, if highly skilled members feel the freedom to cross over boundaries that might otherwise exist within a hierarchical structure, then they may more adequately contribute to problem solving when the team experiences significant need. Because members are more than mindless cogs completing tasks within a hierarchical structure, these members function as participants in a highly-functional team (Klenke, 1997). A leveling of the team structure, therefore, allows members to function in a manner that benefits the overall success of the team (Porter-O'Grady & Wilson, 1995). This factor encourages members to provide significant, proactive contributions to the team regardless of their pre-assigned roles.

Research Question

Based upon theory development and previous observations regarding empowering team behaviors, horizontal team structure, and the occurrence of shared leadership, this project investigated, "To what extent are team behaviors and team structure determinants of shared leadership within top management teams?" This study tested two specific hypotheses. A model representing the conceptualization of this study is presented in Figure 1.

Hypothesis 1. Team members who experience more empowering team behaviors will be more likely to share in leadership of their teams.

Hypothesis 2. Team members who experience more horizontal team structure will be more likely to share in leadership of their teams.

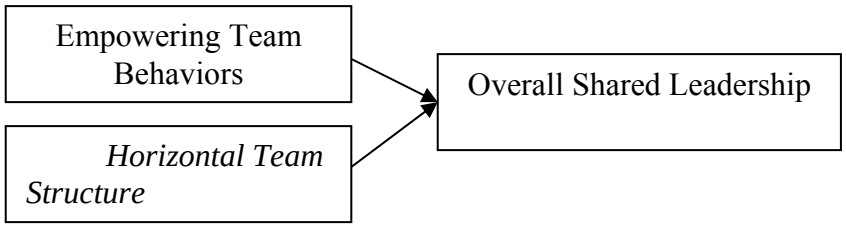

Figure 1. A theoretical model of potential antecedents to overall shared leadership.

Method

Sample

The sample for this study was comprised of members of top management teams from churches with three or more full-time vocational pastors within the Independent Christian Churches and Churches of Christ in the states of Nebraska, Iowa, Minnesota, South Dakota, Wyoming, Colorado, Kansas, and Missouri. The Independent Christian Churches are not

generally subjected to a predetermined hierarchical structure within the congregation that might occur within other church denominations. In other words, individual congregations have the freedom to establish shared leadership within their respective church management teams.

A search of *ANUKAN* (1999) (A Network Uniting Knowledge and Need) and the *Directory of the Ministry* yearbook (Noll, 2004) indicated that 485 pastors qualified for this study by serving on a top management team consisting of three or more individuals within the geographic region. Out of the 485 potential respondents, 200 pastors participated in this study for an overall response rate of 41%. An evaluation of the study sample indicated that it was representative of pastors in the sampling frame with respect to job role and gender, but over-represented pastors working in smaller leadership teams.

Measures

Dependent variables. The occurrence of shared leadership experienced by pastors within church management teams was assessed by the Shared Leadership Perception Survey. The items of this instrument were based on questions derived from the theory of Porter-O'Grady and Wilson (1995) as well as questions adapted from the leadership questionnaire of Hiller (2002). Questions from Hiller's instrument were rephrased to better capture the occurrence of shared leadership within top management teams of churches. Items 2, 4, and 8 on the survey were reversed-scored because the questions sought to determine the directive (rather than empowering) nature of leadership within the team. The 19 items of this shared leadership instrument measured perception of shared leadership on a 4-point Likert-type scale. The answers ranged from 1 (*definitely not true*) to 4 (*definitely true*). The items used to measure shared leadership are shown in Appendix A.

The questions used to measure overall shared leadership were factor analyzed using SPSS to determine if the measure contained multiple dimensions of shared leadership. The factors were extracted using the *maximum likelihood* method of question extraction as this method assures unbiased estimates of the factor loadings for data whose underlying distribution is unknown (Harmon, 1967). Due to the possibility of correlation among the dimensions of this instrument, the extracted factors were subjected to *direct oblimin rotation*. The results of the factor analysis are shown in Table 2. The rotated factor solution indicated that 18 questions loaded on four factors while one question loaded equally on two factors. That question was dropped from the scale.

Nine items loaded on a factor that represents the *joint completion of tasks* dimension. Two items loaded on the *mutual skill development* dimension. Four items loaded on the *decentralized interaction among personnel* dimension. Finally, three items loaded on the *emotional support* dimension.

Independent variables. Team behaviors were assessed with the Leadership Behavior Questionnaire IV (LBQ IV) developed by Pearce (1997) and used by Pearce and Sims (2002). This measure originally contained 63 questions that estimated the tendencies of team members to express aversive, directive, transactional, transformational, or empowering styles of behavior. Because this study considers team members capable of expressing behaviors that range on a continuum from directive to empowering in nature, only questions from the directive (6 questions) and empowering dimensions (12 questions) of the LBQ IV were chosen for this project (18 total questions). Responses to each item were measured on a 4-point Likert-type scale

with answers ranging from 1 (*definitely not true*) to 4 (*definitely true*). The items used to measure behaviors are shown in Appendix B.

Table 2
Factor Analysis of the Shared Leadership Perception Measure (Direct Oblimin Rotation)

	Dimension			
	1	2	3	4
Share in goal establishment	.842			
Share in framing vision	.654			
Share in problem diagnosis	.584			
Mutual accountability	.560			
Share in decision making	.549			
Share in determining resource allocation	.528			
Share in determining team action	.525			
Share in fulfillment of team obligations	.400			
Opinions count regardless of titles (*dropped*)	.367			-.345
Share important information	.347			
Members learn job skills from others		-.820		
Members help others develop job skills		-.647		
There is no pecking order			-.919	
Equality regardless of job "titles"			-.457	
There is no one person who makes all the decisions			-.364	
There is not a feel of "everyone for himself/herself"			-.301	
Team members encourage one another				-.759
Team members display patience with one another				-.670
Team members experience a relational connection				-.401

Note. Pattern Matrix (Loadings <.30 are not included).

Team structure was measured with a three-item instrument designed specifically for this study. This team structure survey focuses exclusively on the presence of a structure emphasizing strict chains-of-command within church management teams. Because the nature of the questions address a top-down structure, the items were reversed-scored to assess the lateral structure within the team. The items in the scale used a 4-point Likert-type scale with answers ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 4 (*strongly agree*). The items for the team structure survey are included in Appendix C.

Cronbach alphas were calculated for the overall shared leadership (18 items), empowering team behavior (17 items), and team structure (3 items) scales. The reliability of each of these scales exceeded a .70 standard. These alphas are shown in Table 3. Furthermore, a reliability test was conducted on the sub-scales of the overall shared leadership measure. These alphas are also shown in Table 3. The inter-correlation of the two questions concerning the overall shared leadership dimension of mutual skill development was .75.

To ensure that the measures of overall shared leadership and empowering team behaviors were empirically distinct, one from another, a factor analysis was conducted on the items in the

Shared Leadership Perception Survey and the Leadership Behavior Questionnaire. The factor analysis indicated that overall shared leadership and empowering team behaviors loaded on the dimensions described above and did not cross-load on measures of other constructs.

Table 3
Reliability Results for the Overall Shared Leadership, Empowering Team Behavior, and Horizontal Team Structure Measures

Reliability Results	Cronbach's Alpha, α
Measure of Shared Leadership Dimensions	
Overall Shared Leadership (18 items)	.91
Joint completion of tasks (9 items)	.87
Mutual Skill Development (2-item intercorrelation)	*.75*
Decentralized interaction among personnel (4 items)	.71
Emotional support (3 items)	.74
Measure of Team Behavior Dimensions	
Empowering Team Behavior Measure (17 items)	.82
Measure of Team Structure Dimension	
Horizontal Team Structure Measure (3 items)	.71

Control variables. This study controlled for four demographic variables (age, ethnicity, gender, and educational attainment) and four team-situation variables (team size, job role, job tenure, and team tenure) that could affect team member willingness to share in team leadership. Previous research indicated that these variables can influence personal perception and group interaction, and thus, member participation in shared leadership (Cox, Pearce, & Perry, 2003; Lawson, 2000; Pearce & Sims, 2000; Pil & MacDuffie, 1996; Watson, Johnson, & Merritt, 1998; Westing, 1997). Four questions asked respondents to identify their team size, age, job tenure, and team tenure. The team size item offered five responses on a range from 1 (*3 to 4*) to 5 (*greater than 12)*. The age item offered six responses on a range from 1 (*less than 25*) to 6 (*66 or greater*). The job tenure item offered six possibilities on a range from 1 (*less than 1 year*) to 6 (*greater than 30 years*). The team tenure item offered five responses ranging from 1 (*less than 1 year*) to 5 (*greater than 16 years*).

Likewise, four questions were coded 0 and 1 in order to identify significant differences between pastors who classified themselves as Caucasian (0) or non-Caucasian (1), as male (0) or female (1), as attaining baccalaureate (0) or post-baccalaureate (1) education, and serving as associate-level (0) or senior-level (1) pastors within the team.

Procedures

The data collected in this study occurred in two phases. The first phase of this process involved contacting senior pastors of each qualifying church by telephone in order to secure their individual participation as well as to obtain permission to contact the other pastors on the staff of

that church. If individual email addresses were not available for these associate pastors, an email containing a link to the survey was sent to the senior pastor to forward directly to each individual pastor in the church. If individual emails were provided, an email was sent directly to the senior pastor as well as to each individual pastor on the top management team. The email introduced the purpose of the study, provided instructions for participation, and included a web link that redirected the participant to a web-based survey linked to SurveyMonkey.com via the Nebraska Christian College website. The email introducing this study also contained six letters of endorsement by recognized leaders within the Independent Christian Church movement that encouraged participation. The overall survey consisted of 88 questions. It was designed in a manner that prohibited pastors from skipping individual questions.

The second phase of the data collection process involved contacting each church leader 30 days after the first contact and inviting them again to participate in the study. A reminder email was sent to each pastor that qualified for this study; thus, each of the 485 pastors was contacted twice regarding his or her participation in the study. The survey link remained open for 13 weeks to allow each pastor a total of 2 months to respond to the participation request.

Results

The correlations among the study variables are shown in Table 4. Some of the correlations were large enough to indicate multicollinearity, but these correlations were only among the *dimensions* of shared leadership and its overall measure. For example, the dimension of decentralized interdependence had a significantly high correlation with only the overall measure of shared leadership (which might be expected).

Determining whether empowering team behaviors or horizontal team structure positively related to overall shared leadership involved estimating the parameters of regression models predicting shared leadership using the independent variables of empowering team behaviors and horizontal team structure (see Table 5). Table 5 shows that empowering team behaviors positively related with overall shared leadership and supported Hypothesis 1. Table 5 shows that empowering team behaviors also positively related with each dimension of shared leadership (joint completion of tasks, mutual skill development, decentralized interaction among personnel, and emotional support). Conversely, Table 5 shows that horizontal team structure did not relate significantly with overall shared leadership and did not support Hypothesis 2. Table 6 also shows that horizontal team structure related with only the shared leadership dimension of decentralized interaction among personnel. Furthermore, contrary to expectations, the relationship between horizontal team influence and decentralized interaction among team personnel was negative.

Table 5 also indicates that gender influenced the overall practice of shared leadership while Table 6 indicates that gender influenced the specific dimension of emotional support. These regression models indicated that females perceived less shared leadership and emotional support than did their male counterparts.

Discussion

First, the results indicate that the behaviors experienced by members within a team may influence team member willingness to undertake shared leadership. Consistent with expectations, behavior within a team that is empowering in nature is strongly related to overall shared leadership. Contrary to expectations, though, horizontal team structure did not relate significantly

with the occurrence of overall shared leadership. In fact, horizontal team structure related significantly with only one of the four dimensions of shared leadership (e.g., decentralized interaction among personnel), and that relationship was negative in nature. This suggests that flatter team structures do not significantly relate to overall shared leadership occurring among members of teams. This finding appears counterintuitive. For example, one might anticipate that a flatter organizing structure would accentuate the feelings of empowerment and autonomy. It is possible in this study, however, that the behaviors experienced by pastors within their respective teams were more influential than the structure organizing that team. Furthermore, because a negative relationship existed between horizontal team structure and the shared leadership dimension of decentralized interaction, it is possible that a flatter organizing structure created communication problems among teammates. For example, lateral structures within the team might actually decrease the amount of interaction that members desire or need with other colleagues. Structure that is more horizontal in nature may create turf issues that inhibit personal interaction and thus, contributes to conflict among members of the team.

These results suggest that experienced behaviors, as opposed to implemented structure, are more important in determining whether members will share leadership. In other words, whereas structure creates the framework through which team members interact, the experienced behaviors lead people to feel as though they are sharing the responsibilities of leadership. This issue challenges team leaders to frequently evaluate the type of behaviors members experience within their assigned teams. Leaders seeking to promote shared leadership within their teams must discern whether they are relying on structure or behaviors to promote the sharing of leadership responsibilities. Leaders hoping that the implementation of a less centralized structure will automatically create shared leadership within a team are likely to be disappointed. This is especially the case if those leaders exhibit a less empowering style of behavior. Team leaders implementing a flatter organizational structure, but acting in a domineering fashion, will likely inhibit members from practicing shared leadership. Essentially, the structure of a team might be designed to promote shared leadership, but behaviors experienced within the team are what influence members to share leadership.

In addition, the results tended to support the suggestion of Pearce and Sims (2000) that the construct of shared leadership is multi-dimensional. Because the research on shared leadership is developing, this adds further clarification to its theoretical conceptualization. This research identified four distinct dimensions contributing to the overall practice of shared leadership (i.e., joint completion of tasks, mutual skill development, decentralized interaction among personnel, and emotional support). These four dimensions are modestly similar to the characteristics that others identify as pertinent to the practice of shared leadership (see Table 1).

An interesting issue arising from the results of this study is the apparent lack of inclusion women feel in the shared leadership processes occurring within church management teams. In this study, females perceived less shared leadership and social support than their male counterparts. Considering previous research highlighted the lack of social support (McDuff, 2001) and discrimination (Ingersoll, 2003) female pastors encounter in the Christian vocation, it is reasonable to suppose that female pastors participating in this study experienced similar realities. For example, although male pastors may value the contributions of their female teammates when it regards task completion, female pastors may perceive that their male counterparts place little value on their contributions when it involves mutual influence or team leadership.

Table 4
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among the Study Variables (N=200)

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Shared Leadership (Overall Measure)	3.02	.44	---														
2 Shared Leadership—*Joint Completion of Tasks*	3.00	.49	.87**	---													
3. Shared Leadership—*Mutual Skill Development*	2.89	.60	.77**	.59**	---												
4. Shared Leadership—*Decentralized Interaction*	2.85	.61	.78**	.59**	.36**	---											
5. Shared Leadership—*Emotional Support*	3.35	.50	.82**	.66**	.53**	.53**	---										
6. Empowering Behaviors	2.87	.32	.58**	.54**	.39**	.47**	.49**	---									
7. Horizontal Structure	3.08	.58	-.14*	-.07	.01	-.32**	-.06	-.03	---								
8. Number of pastors on staff	5.13	2.22	.06	.04	-.02	.13	.06	.08	-.08	---							
9. Role on Staff	.25	.43	-.10	-.04	-.03	-.12	-.12	-.04	.13	-.06	---						
10. Age	4.50	11.00	-.13	-.09	-.07	-.12	-.14*	.03	.08	-.04	.09	---					
11. Ethnicity	.04	.19	-.07	-.06	-.12	-.05	.01	-.03	.06	.33**	-.07	-.21**	---				
12 Gender	1.14	.34	-.10	-.13	-.04	-.12	-.05	.03	.19**	.07	-.04	.01	.06	---			
13. Educational Level	.32	.47	.18*	.22**	.10	.15*	.12	.11	-.08	.45**	-.11	-.23**	.22**	-.21**	---		
14. Job Tenure	14.94	8.22	.18*	.22**	.10	.16*	.11	.20**	-.07	.47**	.03	-.06	.18*	-.05	.42**	---	
15. Team Tenure	5.67	3.12	-.03	.03	-.03	-.06	-.04	-.15	.03	.17*	.14*	-.07	-.02	-.21**	.17*	.07	---

Note. $*p < .05$. $**p < .01$.

Table 5
Hierarchical Regression Results for Team Behaviors and Team Structure with Overall Shared Leadership (N = 200)

Variables	*B*	*SE B*	β
Step 1: Controls			
Age	.00	.00	-.01
Ethnicity	-.15	.14	-.06
Gender	-.17	.08	-.13*
Educational Level	-.09	.06	-.10
Team Size	-.02	.01	-.08
Job Role	.07	.07	.07
Job Tenure	.00	.00	.05
Team Tenure	.00	.01	.02
R^2	.10		
Step 2: Independent Variables			
Empowering Team Behaviors	.80	.08	.57**
Horizontal Team Structure	-.06	.04	-.08
ΔR^2	.30**		

Note. *$p<.05$. **$p<.01$.

Table 6
Hierarchical Regression Results for Team Behaviors and Team Structure with Shared Leadership Dimensions (N = 200)

Variables	Joint Completion of Tasks	Mutual Skill Development	Decentralized Interaction	Emotional Support
	β	β	β	β
Step 1: Controls				
Age	-.10	-.06	.09	.01
Ethnicity	-.02	-.03	-.06	-.09
Gender	-.07	-.09	-.11	-.14*
Educational Level	-.07	-.14	-.08	-.02
Team Size	-.08	-.03	-.09	-.06
Job Role	.13	.07	.00	.01
Job Tenure	.10	.05	.02	-.01
Team Tenure	.07	.01	-.02	.02
R^2	.10**	.05	.10**	.05
Step 2: Ind. Variables				
Empowering Team Behav.	.52**	.38**	.45**	.50**
Horizontal Team Structure	-.02	.05	-.26**	-.01
ΔR^2	.25**	.14**	.25**	.23**
Total R^2	.35	.19	.35	.28
	(F=10.35**)	(F=4.37**)	(F=10.02**)	(F=7.25**)

*$p< .05$. **$p< .01$.

Implications of this Study

This study adds to the theoretical implications of shared leadership by revealing that behaviors experienced within a team are more significant to determining the practice of shared leadership than the presence of a specific organizing structure. In addition, horizontal team structure appeared to have little to no influence on team members engaging in the practice of shared leadership. Horizontal team structure did exhibit a relationship with the decentralized interaction component of shared leadership, but this relationship was negative in effect. Consequently, although one might anticipate that a flatter team structure will reduce the bureaucracy among team members, it appears that the flatter structure actually inhibits the communication and interaction needed for members to engage in an effective sharing of team leadership. Essentially, it appears that a flatter team structure accentuates structural decentralization but equally inhibits personal interaction.

This finding raises a practical implication for leaders of teams as well. Leaders of top management teams should guard against relying on team structure alone to encourage members to engage in the practice of shared leadership. Simply decreeing to members, "We're going to have more shared leadership within our team" will not induce such a reality. This study suggests that members engaging in shared leadership must perceive they are also empowered to function as the leader within the team's organizing structure. Consequently, team leaders should intentionally introduce roles and situations that allow members to express and experience a greater sense of empowerment within the team.

A second theoretical contribution this study makes to current research is that it affirms previous conceptualization that shared leadership is multi-dimensional in nature. The results of this study indicated that shared leadership exhibited four distinct dimensions (i.e., joint completion of tasks, mutual skill development, decentralized interaction among personnel, and emotional support). Although it is unclear whether these four dimensions are additive to the perception of overall shared leadership, this research provides future researchers with a starting point for ascertaining whether one or more of these dimensions are essential to its practice within top management teams.

Limitations of the Study and Areas for Future Research

A first limitation of this study is the possibility that common method variance explained a significant percentage of the correlation between variables. This type of variance stems from measurement methodology (i.e., common measurement context, common items context, and characteristics of the items) rather than the constructs measured (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Common method variance is "particularly powerful in studies in which the data for both the predictor and criterion variables are obtained from the same person in the same measurement context using the same item context and similar item characteristics" (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 885). Admittedly, such conditions existed in this study. This study used self-reports to determine personal perception of the independent and dependent variables; thus, this methodological approach might have inflated common method variance in the regression models. A corollary limitation to this research was that the cross-sectional design of this study did not allow for strict causal conclusions. Consequently, it is inappropriate to state unequivocally that empowering team behaviors are a causal variable to the practice of shared leadership.

A second limitation of this study involved the use of a non-validated instrument by which

to assess the team structure of the church management team. Although the reliability estimate of this 3-item scale did reach the threshold of .70, it is possible that the lack of relationship between horizontal structure and shared leadership resulted from the instrument inadequately assessing the nature of team structure.

This study also raises issues for further investigation. First, future research should determine if empowering team behaviors exhibit a causal relationship with shared leadership. Future research could use a longitudinal design to help assess the presence and direction of causality between these two variables.

Secondly, qualitative research with focus groups and personal interviews should be used to determine whether members of teams consider empowering behaviors and horizontal structure as equally significant determinants to the practice of shared leadership. This study suggested that the influence of empowering behaviors and horizontal structure on overall shared leadership were significantly different. Future studies could clarify and reinforce the influence of the two (or other variables) upon the occurrence of overall shared leadership. The process of such studies might involve gathering observations and responses from individuals participating in top management teams within churches or other service organizations. In fact, because members of the clergy face unique leadership situations and stresses (Paulsell, 1987), a study designed to investigate the effects of team behaviors and team structure on the occurrence of shared leadership in other vocations is an important step in this stream of research.

A third area of future research involves adequately identifying other determinants that might influence the practice of overall shared leadership. While this study investigated the influence of empowering behaviors and horizontal structure upon the occurrence of shared leadership, the conceptualization of the shared leadership construct is still relatively new in its development. Future studies should determine the most significant variables contributing to team members engaging in the practice of shared leadership.

A fourth issue for future research involves testing for *intra*-team correlation regarding the influence of empowering team behaviors, horizontal team structure, and shared leadership. Such research will help determine if members perceiving greater empowering team behaviors within the same team more readily participate in sharing leadership.

About the Author

Dr. Michael Shane Wood has a Ph.D. in organizational leadership from Regent University and currently serves as chief academic officer of Nebraska Christian College in Norfolk, Nebraska. His research interests focus on the effects of shared leadership on individual and group outcomes, the influence of morality and worldview on organizational ethics, and issues related to organizational culture, organizational change, and the leader's influence on both.

Email: swood@nechristian.edu

References

ANUKAN: Profiles of Christian churches/Churches of Christ. (1999). Joplin, MO: College Press Publishing Company.

Barker, J. R. (1993). Tightening the iron cage: Concertive control in self-managing teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 38*, 408-438.

Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: The Free Press.

Blase, J., & Blase, J. (1999). Implementation of shared governance for instructional improvement: Principals' perspectives. *Journal of Educational Administration, 37*, 476-498.

Caramanica, L., & Rosenbecker, S. (1991). A pilot unit approach to shared governance. *Nursing Management, 22*, 46-49.

Cohen, S. G., Chang, L., & Ledford, G. E. (1997). A hierarchical construct of self-management leadership and its relationship to quality of work life and perceived work group effectiveness. *Personnel Psychology, 50*, 275-309.

Coluccio, M., & Havlick, K. (1998). Shared leadership in a newly merged medical center. *Nursing Administration Quarterly, 22*, 36-40.

Conger, J. A., & Pearce, C. L. (2003). A landscape of opportunities: Future research on shared leadership. In C. L. Pearce & J. A. Conger (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (pp. 285-303). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishing Company.

Cox, J. F., Pearce, C. L., & Perry, M. L. (2003). Toward a model of shared leadership and distributed influence in the innovation process: How shared leadership can enhance new product development team dynamics and effectiveness. In C. L. Pearce & J. A. Conger (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (pp. 48-76). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishing.

Cox, J. F., Pearce, C. L., & Sims, H. P. (2003). Developing shared leadership, as well as directive and empowering leader behaviors, to extend the transactional-transformational leader behavior paradigm: Toward a deeper and broader agenda for leadership development. In S. Murphy & R. Riggio (Eds.), *The future of leadership development* (pp. 161-180). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum.

Fielding, R. T. (1999). Shared leadership in the Apache Project. *Communications of ACM, 42*, 42-45.

Finkelstein, S., & Hambrick, D. C. (1996). *Strategic leadership: Top executives and their effects on organizations*. St. Paul, MN: West Publishing Company.

Graham, J. R., & Barter, K. (1999). Collaboration: A social work practice method. *Families in Society: The Journal of Contemporary Human Services, 80*, 6-14.

Hackman, J. R. (1992). Group influences on individuals in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational* p*sychology* (2nd ed., Vol. 3, pp. 199-267). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.

Halal, W. E. (1994). From hierarchy to enterprise: Internal markets are the new foundation of management. *The Academy of Management Executive, 8*, 69-84.

Harmon, H. H. (1967). *Modern factor analysis* (2nd ed.). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Harrison, S. (1996). Practicing dietetics without a traditional dietetics department: Shared governance. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 96*, 447.

Hatch, M. J. (1997). *Organization theory: Modern, symbolic, and postmodern perspectives.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hiller, N. J. (2002). *Understanding and measuring shared leadership in work teams.* Unpublished manuscript, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania.

Houghton, J. D., Neck, C. P., & Manz, C. C. (2003). Self-leadership and superleadership. In C. L. Pearce & J. A. Conger (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (pp. 123-140). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishing.

Ingersoll, J. (2003). *Evangelical Christian women: War stories in the gender battles*. New York: New York University Press.

Kennerly, S. M. (1996). Effects of shared governance on perceptions of work and work environment. *Nursing Economics, 14*, 111-117.

Kirkman, B., & Rosen, B. (1999). Beyond self-management: Antecedents and consequences of team empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal, 42,* 58-74.

Klenke, K. (1997). Leadership dispersion as a function of performance in information systems teams. *The Journal of High Technology Management Research, 8*, 149-169.

Laschinger, H. K. S., & Wong, C. (1999). Staff nurse empowerment and collective accountability: Effect on perceived productivity and self-rated work effectiveness. *Nursing Economics, 17*, 308-324.

Lawson, K. E. (2000). *How to thrive in associate ministry*. The Alban Institute.

McDuff, E. M. (2001). The gender paradox in work satisfaction and the protestant clergy. *Sociology of Religion, 62,* 1-22.

Noll, J. (2004). *Directory of the ministry*. Springfield, IL: Specialized Christian Services.

Northouse, P. G. (2001). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishing, Inc.

O'May, F., & Buchan, J. (1999). Shared governance: A literature review. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 36*, 281-300.

Paulsell, W. O. (1987). Stress in the ministry. *Lexington Theological Quarterly, 22*, 16-25.

Pearce, C. L. (1997). *The determinants of change management team (CMT) effectiveness: A longitudinal investigation.* Unpublished dissertation, University of Maryland at College Park, College Park, Maryland.

Pearce, C. L., & Conger, J. A. (Eds.). (2003a). All those years ago: The historical underpinnings of shared leadership. In C. L. Pearce & J. A. Conger (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (pp. 2-18). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishing.

Pearce, C. L., & Conger, J. A. (Eds.). (2003b). *Preface*. In C. L. Pearce & J. A. Conger (Eds.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (pp. xi-xiii). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishing.

Pearce, C. L., Perry, M. L., & Sims, H. P. (2001). Shared leadership: Relationship management to improve nonprofit organization effectiveness. In T. D. Conners (Ed.), *The nonprofit handbook: Management* (pp. 624-641). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Pearce, C. L., & Sims, H. P. (2000). Shared leadership: Toward a multi-level theory of leadership. In M. M. Beyerlein, D. A. Johnson, & S. T. Beyerlein (Eds.), *Advances in interdisciplinary studies of work teams* (Vol. 7, pp. 115-139). Amsterdam: JAI.

Pearce, C. L., & Sims, H. P. (2002). Vertical versus shared leadership as predictors of the effectiveness of change management teams: An examination of aversive, directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering leader behaviors. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 6*, 172-197.

Perry, M. L., Pearce, C. L., & Sims, H. P. (1999). Empowered selling teams: How shared leadership can contribute to selling team outcomes. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 19*, 35-52.

Pil, F. & MacDuffie, J. P. (1996). The adoption of high involvement work practices. *Industrial Relations, 35*, 423-455.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88,* 879-903.

Porter-O'Grady, T., & Wilson, C. K. (1995). *The leadership revolution in health care: Altering systems, changing behaviors.* Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers, Inc.

Porter-O'Grady, T., Hawkins, M. A., & Parker, M. L. (1997). *Whole-systems shared governance*. Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers, Inc.

Seibert, S. E., Silver, S. R., & Randolph, W. A. (2004). Taking empowerment to the next level: A multiple-level model of empowerment, performance, and satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal, 47,* 332-349.

Short, P. M. (1994). School empowerment through self-managing teams: Leader behavior in developing self-managing work groups in schools. *Education, 114*, 493-503.

Spooner, S. H., Keenan, R., & Card, M. (1997). Determining if shared leadership is being practiced: Evaluation methodology. *Nursing Administration Quarterly, 22*, 47-57.

Spreitzer, G. (1996). Social structure characteristics of psychological empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal, 39*, 483-505.

Watson, W. E., Johnson, L., & Merritt, D. (1998). Team orientation, self-orientation, and diversity in task groups: Their connection to team performance over time. *Group & Organization Management, 23*, 161-189.

Westing, H. J. (1997). *Multiple church staff handbook* (2nd ed.). Grand Rapids, MI: Kregel Publications.

Yeatts, D. E., Hyten, C., & Barnes, D. (1998). What are the key factors for self-managed team success? *The Journal for Quality and Participation, 19*, 68-80.

Yukl, G. (2001). *Leadership in organizations* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Zaccaro, S. J., Ritman, A. L., & Marks, M. A. (2001). Team leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 12*, 451-483.

Appendix A

Shared Leadership Perception Survey

	Definitely Not True	Generally Not True	Generally True	Definitely True
The opinion of each member counts when they share their perceptions regarding a situation facing the team.	1	2	3	4
There is a "pecking order" within this leadership team. (r)	1	2	3	4
Team members collaborate with one another in making decisions that affect this organization.	1	2	3	4
A good slogan for this leadership team would be "Every man/woman for himself/herself." (r)	1	2	3	4
Each team member helps to frame the vision for this organization.	1	2	3	4
A relational and vocational connection exists among members of this leadership team.	1	2	3	4
Despite the job "titles" used within this organization, each member is considered an "equal" to the others on this team.	1	2	3	4
There is one individual on this team that decides what other members will do. (r)	1	2	3	4
Each member shares information with others on the team so that *all members* can work more effectively.	1	2	3	4
Each member chips in (even if it's outside an area of personal responsibility) to insure the team fulfills its obligations.	1	2	3	4
Each member is evaluated by, and is accountable to, all other members of this leadership team.	1	2	3	4
Each team member of the leadership team shares in establishing the goals for this organization.	1	2	3	4
Each member has a say in deciding how resources are allocated in regard to the team's priorities.	1	2	3	4
Each member shares in deciding on the best course of action when a problem faces the team.	1	2	3	4
Each member helps to identify, diagnose, and resolve the problems that face this leadership team.	1	2	3	4

Team members encourage one other during challenging times at work.	1	2	3	4
Members display patience with others on the team.	1	2	3	4
Members commonly learn important job skills from the others on the team.	1	2	3	4
Members help one another develop their job skills	1	2	3	4

Appendix B
Leadership Behavior Questionnaire

	Definitely Not True	Generally Not True	Generally True	Definitely True
Assigning Goals				
Another member within the leadership team establishes my performance goals.	1	2	3	4
Another member sets the goals for my performance.	1	2	3	4
Another member within the leadership team establishes the goals for my work.	1	2	3	4
Instruction and Command				
When it comes to my work, another member of the leadership team gives me instructions on how to carry it out.	1	2	3	4
Another member on the leadership team gives me instructions about how to do my work.	1	2	3	4
Another member on the leadership team gives me commands regarding my work.	1	2	3	4
Encourages Teamwork				
I receive encouragement to work with other individuals who are part of the team.	1	2	3	4
I am urged to work as a team with other members who are part of the team.	1	2	3	4
I am advised to coordinate my efforts with other members who are part of the team.	1	2	3	4
Participative Goal-Setting				
I work together with other members to decide what will be my performance goals.	1	2	3	4
Other members and I sit down together and reach agreement on my performance goals.	1	2	3	4
Other members work with me to develop my performance goals.	1	2	3	4
Encourage Independent Action				

I receive encouragement to search for solutions to my problems without supervision.	1	2	3	4
I receive encouragement to solve problems when they pop up without always getting a stamp of approval from another member on the team.	1	2	3	4
Encourage Opportunity Thinking				
I receive advice to look for the opportunities contained in the problems I face.	1	2	3	4
I receive encouragement to view unsuccessful performance as a chance to learn.	1	2	3	4
I am urged to think of problems as opportunities rather than obstacles.	1	2	3	4

Appendix C
Team Structure Survey

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The senior pastor is clearly the "one in charge" when it comes to directing to the pastoral staff. (r)	1	2	3	4
The senior pastor sets the agenda for leading the congregation. (r)	1	2	3	4
There is a chain of command through which authority is delegated among pastors on staff. (r)	1	2	3	4

IJLS
INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF LEADERSHIP STUDIES

The Effects of Supervisors' Trust of Subordinates and their Organization on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

KRISTIN L. STRAITER

This study investigated the effects of supervisors' trust of their subordinates and their organization on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Using survey data collected from 117 district sales managers in one large pharmaceutical company, the study found a significant relationship between supervisors' trust of their subordinates and supervisors' job satisfaction. Further, supervisors' trust of the organization was found to have a greater effect on job satisfaction than that of supervisors' trust of their subordinates.

Previous studies (Blau, 1964; Butler & Cantrell, 1984; Deutsch, 1958; C. L. Scott, 1980) examined the trust relationship between supervisors and subordinates from the standpoint of the subordinate. These studies failed to investigate trust from the perspective of the supervisor. The purpose of this study was to investigate how supervisors' trust of their subordinates and their organization affect job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. The study examined this question in a sample of 117 district sales managers within a pharmaceutical company.

Background

In order to increase trust within today's organizations, it is critical to understand the dual nature of trust that includes personal and systems trust. In other words, interpersonal and systems trust do not stand alone, but act in concert with one another. Personal and systems trust was first introduced by Luhmann (1979) who posited, "Trust occurs within a framework of interaction which is influenced by both personality and social system, and cannot be exclusively associated with either" (p. 6). Luhmann (1979) argued that personal trust and systems trust rest on different bases. Personal trust involves an emotional bond between individuals, and the emotional pain that each would experience in the event of betrayal serves as the protective base of trust, even where other types of short-term gains could be realized by breaking the trust. This emotional content is largely absent in systems trust. Systems trust rests on what Luhmann (as cited in Lewis

International Journal of Leadership Studies, Vol. 1 Iss. 1, 2005, pp. 86-101

ISSN 1554-3145

& Weigert, 1985) called a "presentational" base (p. 974). That is, systems trust is activated by the appearance that "everything seems in proper order" (Lewis & Weigert, 1985, p. 974).

Within organizations, interpersonal trust between supervisors and subordinates has been shown to significantly influence perceptions of accurate performance appraisals (Fulk, Brief, & Barr, 1985); performance and productivity (Argyris, 1964; Earley, 1986; Moore, Shaffer, Pollak, & Taylor-Lemcke, 1987; Savage, 1982); and organizational commitment, morale, turnover, absenteeism, and cost in untapped potential (Diffie-Couch, 1984). In addition, interpersonal trust between supervisors and subordinates improves the quality of communication (Muchinsky, 1977; Roberts & O'Reilly, 1974; Yeager, 1978), citizenship behavior (McAllister, 1995), and problem solving and decision making (Barnes, 1981; Boss, 1978; Hollon & Gemmill, 1977; Hurst, 1984; Ouchi, 1981; K. D. Scott, 1983; Zand, 1972). Trust among top managers may also be necessary for delegation of decision making to take place (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993).

Systems trust is a "collective attribute" based upon the relationships between people that exist in a social system (i.e., organization) (Luhmann, 1979, p. 968). Systems or organizational trust's primary effect is the reduction of social complexity and the increased tolerability of uncertainty in external relationships. Within organizations, trust contributes to more effective implementation of strategy, greater managerial coordination (McAllister, 1995), and more effective work teams (Doney, Cannon, & Mullen, 1998; Lawler, 1992).

Theoretical Development and Hypotheses

First, a supervisor's trust of his or her subordinates may reflect the supervisor's knowledge that these subordinates are competent, reliable, and responsible in carrying out their assignments (Butler, 1991; Gabarro, 1987; McGregor, 1967). Prior research supported this argument. Specifically, Ouchi (1981) affirmed that trust between individuals involves expectations of consistent or reliable behavior. Rotter (1971) defined trust as an "expectancy held by an individual or group that the work, promise, or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon" (p. 444). Golembiewski and McConkie (1975) have expanded on the topic of trust and confidence by writing that it "implies reliance on, or confidence in, some event, process, or person" (p. 133). Gabarro (1987) defined trust in terms of consistency of behavior and posited that "judgments about trust in working relationships become specific based on accumulation of interactions, specific incidents, problems, and events" (p. 104). Griffin (1967) defined trust as "the reliance upon the characteristics of an object, or the occurrence of an event, or the behavior of a person in order to achieve a desired but uncertain objective in a risky situation" (p. 105). Rempel, Holmes, and Zanna (1985) found that trust develops from interpersonal relationships between supervisors and subordinates based on the mutual degree of reliability, confidence, and security.

Similarly, McAllister (1995) suggested that the complexity and uncertainty inherent in managerial work often require trust in order to achieve coordinated action. Schindler and Thomas (1993) found that trust is based on evaluations of integrity, competence, commitment to one another, consistency, and openness regardless of whether the relationship is between oneself and a supervisor, a subordinate, or a peer. Thus, trust is based on perceptions of prior performance or reputation.

Subsequently, subordinates who are more competent, reliable, and responsible will most likely work together to increase performance of the work unit. This leads to a greater probability that the supervisor's work unit will perform better and be more effective (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt,

& Camerer, 1998). Having trusted subordinates may lead to better performance reviews and rewards for the supervisors (Gambetta, 1988; Pennings & Woiceshyn, 1987; Seabright, Leventhal, & Fichman, 1992). Better performance and rewards are linked to higher levels of job satisfaction of the supervisor (Barnes, 1981; Friedlander, 1970; Gabarro, 1987; Leana, 1986).

Moreover, supervisors who trust their subordinates and have a good relationship with them are able to spend more time on their own development rather than having to directly oversee their subordinates on a continuous basis (Bradach & Eccles, 1989; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Crockett, Gaetner, and Dufur (as cited in Gomez & Rosen, 2001) concurred by adding that trust is the basis for effective delegation, two-level communication, giving and receiving feedback, and a sense of team spirit. The delegation and relinquishing of various responsibilities to subordinates improves the quality of the supervisor's job because it enables the supervisor to have higher job visibility which leads to promotional opportunities. Further, the subordinates' ability to be effective, reliable, and consistent leads to a high performance work team that helps the supervisor achieve his or her goals. This ultimately leads to higher overall job satisfaction.

Additionally, if a supervisor trusts subordinates more and believes that his or her subordinates treat the supervisor fairly (Bromiley & Cummings, 1993; McGregor, 1967), the supervisor has a more positive affect on his or her subordinates. In fact, researchers defined trust as the expectation that an exchange partner will not engage in opportunistic behavior despite short-term incentives and uncertainty about long-term rewards (Bradach & Eccles, 1989). However, greater trust in another party, in terms of concern, goes beyond believing that the party will not be opportunistic. For example, Carnevale and Wechsler (1992) found that trust "involves faith or confidence in the intentions or actions of a person or a group, the expectation of ethical, fair, and non-threatening behavior, and concerns for the rights of others" (p. 473). Further, Barber (1983) and Ouchi (1981) posited that one party will refrain from taking unfair advantage of another party and will be concerned about the party's interests or the interests of the whole.

Finally, in addition to being treated fairly, supervisors who feel this sense of affect of their subordinates ultimately feel more positive about their personal relationships at work and have a greater overall job satisfaction for supervisors.

Hypothesis 1. Interpersonal trust of subordinates is positively related to a supervisor's job satisfaction.

Supervisors' Organizational Trust and Affective Organizational Commitment

A series of factors helped build an argument for the positive relationship between supervisors' trust of the organization and supervisors' affective organizational commitment. A supervisor's level of trust of the organization may reflect his or her understanding of what the organization practices and represents. Then, if the supervisor believes that the organization will do the right thing for its employees, the supervisor will have a greater sense of belonging and membership within the organization (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Supporting this argument, Luhmann (1979) contended that trust allows organizational members to reduce the complexity of organizational life in productive ways. Further, Kallenberg and Berg (1987), Oliver (1990), and Steers (1977) asserted that the affective dimension of organizational commitment reflects the nature and quality of the linkage between an employee and an

organization. Ultimately, the supervisor will gain an increased level of affective commitment of the organization.

In addition, if a supervisor trusts the organization, then he or she has a feeling of job importance, that is, the job is critical to organizational success. If the supervisor is treated like an asset, then he or she will have less anxiety, a greater sense of belonging, and a positive affect on the organization. This bond leads to greater affective organizational commitment (Martin & Bennett, 1996). For instance, Buchanan (1974) argued that if individuals' positions are seen as being crucial to the functioning of an organization, the position will heighten their self-esteem and image of the organization, positively influencing affective organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2. Trust of the organization is positively related to a supervisor's affective organizational commitment.

Method

Sample

The sample consisted of 117 district sales managers at one New Jersey-based pharmaceutical company. These district managers, located across the United States and having identical job descriptions, were chosen from this single, large pharmaceutical company in order to provide homogeneity and limit variances. The district managers each supervise 6-14 sales representatives. The representatives sell their pharmaceutical drugs to physicians and hospitals within their geographical territories. The district manager's job is to make sure the representatives are well prepared to sell the products to the customer. Each district manager is measured by the same criteria and paid quarterly bonuses based on his or her final divisional ranking.

Procedure

The surveys were sent to approximately 200 district sales managers in the field with a 59% response rate (117 responses). A reminder e-mail was not sent due to the initial high response rate and the intervention of the company's human resources department that resulted in a cease of all activity. This was done after 48 hours of the survey being launched. At this point in time, all 117 responses had already been received. This did not impact the data-collection process or the validity of the data since the data was collected in the survey database to secure anonymity.

A key informant from the company's human resource office noted that about 50% of the district managers have held this position for approximately 5 years and that about 40% of district managers have been in their positions for greater than 5 years. In the study sample, 18% of district managers have been with the company for 7 to 10 years, and 30% of district managers have been with the company for more than 11 years. In addition, 44% of district managers in the sample have been with the company for 4 to 6 years. These data suggest that the sample does not differ significantly from those in the sampling frame. Table 1 provides the sampling frame in terms of supervisors' tenure at the company and the number of subordinates the supervisors manage.

Table 1
Supervisors' Tenure at Company and Number of Subordinates they Manage

Demographics	Number	Percent
Supervisors' Tenure (in years)		
1-3	10	8
4-6	51	44
7-10	21	18
11+	35	30
Number of Subordinates they Manage		
6	1	1
7	5	4
8	4	3
9	5	4
10	46	39
11	18	15
12	31	26
13	5	4
14	1	1
75	1	1

Measures

To date, a limited number of instruments have been used to study the psychometric properties of trust. Rotter (1967) developed a personal trust scale (ITS) based on the definition of trust as the "expectancy held by an individual or group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon" (p. 651). These definitions are limited in scope, failing to address the relationship of trust with risk-taking and failing to allow for the varying perceptions of trust based on structural relationships within the organization.

Bromiley and Cummings (1993) developed a short and long version of their Organizational Trust Inventory (OTI) that measures the level of trust between units in organizations or between organizations. Although the authors' instrument was shown to be reliable and properly validated, it measures the overall feeling of trust of a group within an organization only. Consequently, the overall feeling of trust of a group of people could be skewed if one person within that group has an overwhelming positive or negative impact on the respondent.

Cook and Wall (1980) developed a 12-item classification scale to be applied in a work setting to differentiate trust as two dimensional: (a) faith in the intentions of peers and management and (b) confidence in their respective actions. However, the results of the factor

analysis in their study showed that trust is not differentiated by the constructs of faith or confidence, but that "the principal distinction within the trust scale between peers and management is functionally important; indeed they may be considered as separate measures" (Cook & Wall, 1980, p. 47). Other instruments reviewed by the authors failed to report sufficient psychometric property and validity testing data (Hart, Capps, Cangemi, & Caillouet, 1986; Larzelere & Huston, 1980). Therefore, this study further tested the OTI by reciprocating the subordinate-supervisor relationship by analyzing the effects of supervisor's trust of their subordinates and the organization.

The study employed measures of interpersonal (trust of subordinates) and organizational trust developed by Nyhan and Marlowe (1997). In their study, Nyhan and Marlowe obtained Cronbach's alpha (reliability estimate) for their OTI of .96 (for both types of trust). As stated previously, Nyhan and Marlowe (1997) originally developed their scale to measure trust of supervisors and trust of the organization. In this study, a modified version of their instrument was used to measure trust of a supervisor's subordinates. In this study, the reliability of trust of subordinates was measured to be .92 and trust of organization was .79. In addition, Cronbach's alpha for the overall OTI scale measured to be .89 for both types of trust.

Global job satisfaction. This study employed a scale for Global Job Satisfaction developed by Warr, Cook, and Wall (as cited in Fields, 2002). This scale uses 15 items with a 7-point scale to describe overall job satisfaction. The measure has two subscales assessing satisfaction with extrinsic (8 items) and intrinsic (7 items) aspects of a job (Cordery, Sevastos, Mueller, & Parker, 1993, and Wright & Cordery, 1999, as cited in Fields, 2002). In prior studies, coefficient alpha values for the composite measure of overall job satisfaction ranged from .80 to .91 (Fields, 2002). In this study, the reliability of the Global Job Satisfaction scale was .92.

Affective organizational commitment. Affective Organizational Commitment, developed by Meyer and Allen (1997), was used in this study. In prior studies, internal consistency estimates ranged from .77 to .88 (Allen & Meyer, 1990). In the sample for this study, Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .82. The variable was measured with a 7-point scale.

Since personality affectivity (a person's tendency to view things positively or negatively) may affect levels of job satisfaction, positive affectivity and negative affectivity were controlled in the analysis. Since tenure might affect levels of a supervisor's organizational commitment independent of trust, it also was controlled. Positive and negative affects were measured using the positive and negative affectivity scale (PANAS) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Tenure was measured as years of service as a district manager.

Reliability analyses of the two dependent measures (job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment), the independent measures (trust of subordinates and trust of organization both use a 7-point scale), and the control measure (personality – positive affect and negative affect use 5-point scales) are shown in Table 2.

Results

Means, standard deviations, and medians for the two dependent measures (job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment), the independent measures (trust of subordinates and trust of organization), and the control measures (positive affect, negative affect, and tenure) are presented in Table 3. Table 4 provides correlations among these variables.

Table 2
Reliability Results for Measures of the Dependent, Independent, and Control Variables

Measure of Variables	α, Cronbach's Alpha
Job Satisfaction	.92
Affective Organizational Commitment	.82
Trust of Subordinates	.92
Trust of Organization	.79
Trust Scale	.89
Personality	.88

Table 3
Means, Standard Deviations, and Medians for Variables

Variables	*M*	*SD*	*Mdn*
Dependent Variables			
Job Satisfaction	4.81	.93	5.00
Affective Organizational Commitment	5.10	.90	5.00
Independent Variables			
Trust of Subordinates	5.28	.68	5.13
Trust of Organization	5.01	.95	5.00
Control Variables			
Personality (Positive Affect)	3.81	.68	3.90
Personality (Negative Affect)	2.36	1.05	2.10

Table 4
Correlations among the Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Job Satisfaction	-						
2. Organizational Commitment (affective)	.39*	-					
3. Trust of Subordinates	.22**	.25*	-				
4. Trust of Organization	.66*	.62*	.47*	-			
5. Positive Affect (PA)	.50*	.31*	.27*	.48*	-		
6. Negative Affect (NA)	-.10	-.42*	-.07	-.20**	-.19**	-	
7. Tenure	-.19**	-.03	-.09	-.26*	.12	.18**	-

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

As expected, there was a significant positive correlation between the two dependent variables: job satisfaction and affective organization commitment ($r = .39$, $p < .01$). As expected, negative affectivity is negatively correlated with trust of organization ($r = -.20$, $p < .05$) and with positive affectivity ($r = -.19$, $p < .05$).

Surprisingly, a supervisors' tenure at the company was positively correlated with negative affectivity ($r = .18$, $p < .05$). Also, supervisors' tenure was negatively correlated with job satisfaction ($r = -.19$, $p < .05$) and with trust of the organization ($r = -.26$, $p < .01$). Because tenure was correlated with negative affectivity and was negatively correlated with job satisfaction, this may indicate that many employees not only have negative attitudes, but choose to stay with the organization out of obligation or for reasons other than trust, job satisfaction, and/or affective organizational commitment. They may choose to be miserable in the workplace, but might also perceive this same organization as offering them a more stable and secure place of employment rather than venturing out into what they perceive as a more unreliable environment.

Test of Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. Interpersonal trust of subordinates is positively related to a supervisor's job satisfaction.

A hierarchical multiple linear regression was used to test this hypothesis, controlling for the possible effects of supervisors' personality (positive and negative affectivity) and the supervisors' tenure at the company. Table 5 presents the results. In the first step of this regression, the R^2 due to the entry of trust of subordinates was .05 ($p < .05$) and was statistically significant, lending support for this hypothesis. However, when trust of organization was entered, the coefficient of trust of subordinates ceased to be significant. The coefficient of trust of subordinates remained insignificant after the addition of the control variables to the regression in the third model. The addition of trust of the organization to the regression had a significant effect ($\Delta R^2 = .40$, $p < .01$) on the regression model. Similarly, the addition of the control variables in the third model had a significant effect ($\Delta R^2 = .05$, $p < .05$) on the fit of the regression model. The coefficient of positive affectivity was significant in the third model.

Table 5
Regression Model Predicting Job Satisfaction (N = 117)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β
Step 1			
Trust of Subordinates	0.30	.13	.22*
Step 2			
Trust of Subordinates	-0.17	.11	-.12
Trust of Organization	0.70	.08	.71**
Step 3			
Trust of Subordinates	-0.19	.11	-.14
Trust of Organization	0.60	.09	.60**
Positive Affect	0.35	.11	.26**
Negative Affect	0.06	.06	.06
Tenure	-0.03	.07	-.03

Note. $R^2 = .05$ for Step 1 ($p < .05$); $\Delta R^2 = .40$ for Step 2 ($ps < .01$); $\Delta R^2 = .05$ for Step 3 ($ps < .05$). *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Hypothesis 2. The trust of the organization is positively related to a supervisor's affective commitment.

A hierarchical multiple linear regression was used to test this hypothesis, controlling for the possible effects of supervisors' personality (positive and negative affectivity) and the supervisors' tenure at the company. Table 6 presents the results. In the first step of this regression, the R^2, due to the entry of trust of organization, was .39 ($p < .01$) and was statistically significant, lending support for this hypothesis. When trust of subordinates was entered, the coefficient of trust of organization remained significant ($\beta = .65$, $p < .01$), while trust of subordinates was not ($\beta = -.05$, $p = .53$). In the third model, the addition of the control variables caused a significant change in the model fit ($\Delta R^2 = .12$, $p < .01$) but did not substantially alter the regression coefficient for trust of organization ($\beta = .64$, $p < .01$). The coefficients of negative affectivity and tenure were significant in the third model.

Table 6
Regression Model Predicting Organizational Commitment (N = 117)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β
Step 1			
Trust of Organization	0.82	.10	.06**
Step 2			
Trust of Organization	0.85	.11	.65**
Trust of Subordinates	-0.10	.15	-.05
Step 3			
Trust of Organization	0.84	.11	.64**
Trust of Subordinates	-0.09	.14	-.05
Positive Affect	-0.04	.14	-.02
Negative Affect	-0.40	.08	-.34**
Tenure	0.24	.09	.19**

Note. $R^2 = .39$ for Step 1 ($p < .01$); $\Delta R^2 = .00$ for Step 2 ($ps > .05$); $\Delta R^2 = .12$ for Step 3 ($ps < .001$).
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Discussion

The results of the study supported the hypothesized relationship between supervisors' trust of their subordinates and their job satisfaction. Because there are few studies detailing supervisors' trust of their subordinates and how it affects their job satisfaction, this study adds to our understanding of supervisor-subordinate relationships. Previous studies have found that job satisfaction of supervisors suffered when reciprocal trust was lower between a supervisor and selected subordinates. This study investigated the supervisor's trust based on judgments about all of the supervisor's subordinates. This finding suggests that if a supervisor can depend on his or her subordinates as being reliable and competent, the supervisor's time is freed up, and he or she is able to do his or her own job well. Since most of the district managers in this study have 10 or more subordinates, trust of subordinates to work independently may lead to higher supervisory job satisfaction.

In testing Hypothesis 1, the effect of adding trust of the organization to the regression, predicting job satisfaction was significant and diminished the relationship between trust of subordinates and job satisfaction. Prior research (Driscoll, 1978; Liou, 1995) found that both interpersonal trust (subordinates' trust of their supervisors) and organizational trust led to job satisfaction. In this study, the organization being studied was unique due to the fact that it was part of a much larger corporation that is known for taking care of its employees. The larger company has staying power due to the fact that it has been in business for over 100 years and combines over 200 health care companies. This decentralized corporation provides its employees unlimited opportunities so employees are able to transition from position to position based on their developmental needs and the needs of the various companies within the larger corporation. This sense of stability and growth may help develop trust if the organization is a more important determinant of supervisors' job satisfaction than trust of subordinates.

Positive affectivity was also significantly related to job satisfaction. This is similar to results in other samples (Simmons, Nelson, & Neal, 2001; Witt, Andrews, & Kacmar, 2000). Although negatively correlated in Table 4, tenure did not have a significant relationship with job satisfaction in the multivariate analysis, possibly because tenure and negative affectivity were significantly related. In other words, because tenure and negative affectivity shared a correlation in the regression, the effect of tenure may have been minimized.

The results of the study supported the hypothesized relationship between supervisors' trust of their organization and their affective organizational commitment. Entry of trust of subordinates did not affect this relationship. This indicates that the relationship between trust of the organization and affective organizational commitment is stronger than that of trust of the subordinates and affective organizational commitment.

In the third model, the addition of the control variables caused a significant change in the model fit but did not substantially alter the regression coefficient for trust of organization. The coefficients of negative affectivity and tenure were significantly related to affective organizational commitment in the third model. The significant relationship of negative affectivity, which is comprised of descriptors such as distress, upset, hostile, afraid, and irritable, may indicate that these supervisors are under a lot of pressure to get their jobs done. In addition, the positive relationship found in this study between tenure and affective organizational commitment is consistent with research (Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). This finding may indicate that it is easier for the district managers to trust their organization versus their subordinates which will lead to greater affective organizational commitment because they want to stay with this organization longer due to the amount of stability, security, and growth opportunities it offers its employees.

Strengths and Limitations of Study

This study revealed several strengths worth mentioning. First, this study confined itself to a district sales manager's group from one pharmaceutical company based in New Jersey. This ensured that there was no variance in job description and organizational culture. Second, the study used a web-based survey. Using a web-based survey not only ensured accuracy (subjects had to fill in bubbles in each section to advance the page), but also expedited the collection process and ensured anonymity. Due to the fact that the company president himself emailed the respondents the letter that contained the web-based survey via an internal company distribution list, it was highly unlikely that the responses were returned from anyone other than the

employees on the distribution list. This ensured authenticity of results. Also, because the surveys were returned so quickly and the timeframe was not held open for the usual period of time (i.e., 10 days to 2 weeks) this ensured accuracy of results (respondents unlikely responding more than once). In addition, because the surveys were requested by the company president, this was another reason for the respondents to comply. There were also limitations to the study. This research may have limited external validity because all survey participants were in the sales division of one pharmaceutical company. In addition, although the response rate was sufficient (59%), the initial sample size was not exceptionally large. Thus, this potentially limited the results of the research.

Implications for Organizational Leaders

This study is significant for organizational leaders who are working toward building a competitive and successful company. Cook and Wall (1980) asserted that trust between individuals and groups within an organization is a highly important element in the long-term stability of the organization and the well-being of its members. Thus, understanding the relationship between supervisor's trust of subordinates and supervisors' trust of the organization will help organizations understand what motivates their supervisors to work hard, achieve goals, and be loyal to the organization.

In order to increase organizational trust within today's organizations, it is critical to understand what trust means for supervisors, human resources professionals, organizational development professionals, and employees in general. Therefore, organizations need to monitor trust levels, especially during times of rapid change. The OTI (Nyhan & Marlow, 1997) has proven to be a psychometrically-sound instrument to provide measurement.

This study focused on supervisors' trust of their subordinates and of the organization and how this affects their job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. Results showed that supervisors' trust of their subordinates and the organization proved to be important in both supervisors' job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. However, supervisors' trust of the organization had a stronger relationship to job satisfaction and organizational commitment than that of trust of subordinates, thus, the implications for leaders in sales organizations is that they should focus in this area.

This study found interesting results for organizational leaders relating to the effects of organizational trust versus interpersonal trust on job satisfaction in a competitive sales environment. The study revealed negative effects of trust of subordinates when trust of the organization was entered in the regression. This may be due to the competitive nature of the sales setting where the sales representatives may be competing not only for their own positions but for their supervisors' positions. District managers may put more trust in their organization than in their subordinates because they feel they cannot fully trust their subordinates who are competing with them. Sales organizations should implement leadership development programs to specifically address this competitive dynamic.

Also, in this study, there was an unusual negative relationship of tenure with organizational trust and job satisfaction. This may indicate that although employees decide to stay with the organization, they have a more difficult time trusting the organization because they work remotely in the home office and, therefore, are distanced from interactions with other employees and upper management. Due to this distance, they may have a more difficult time finding additional job opportunities within the larger organization, which would increase their

level of uncertainty in job security and limit their ability to achieve job satisfaction. Further, negative affectivity was found to be significant in relation to affective organizational commitment. This relationship may indicate that district managers are under a lot of pressure while they are doing their jobs, yet they still are committed to the organization because they believe in it. Organizational leaders need to determine if employees are achieving job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment and are truly adding value to the organization. Organizations need to examine why people stay at organizations when they are not happy and are not achieving optimal job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. If the situation is not optimal, then organizational leaders must relocate, help, or, in some cases, dismiss employees to optimize their development and level of contentment which will add to the company's profitability.

Suggestions for Future Research

Future research should explore interpersonal and organizational trust and job satisfaction and organizational commitment in other divisions of other organizations in alternate industries to confirm that these findings are generalizable across all areas of business.

Second, researchers should study normative commitment to determine if it relates as strongly to supervisors' trust of their subordinates and to their organization as does affective commitment. It would be worthwhile to study (a) top management and their subordinates and (b) the same subordinates and their direct reports to determine if correlations exist between the two groups. Finally, another important area to study involves expanding our understanding of the dynamics of trust among peers and the organization as a whole. This is another under-examined group in organizations.

About the Author

Dr. Kristin L. Straiter earned her Ph.D. in organizational leadership from Regent University. She holds a B.S. in biology with a concentration in biotechnology from Fairleigh Dickinson University and holds an M.S. in biotechnology management from University of Maryland University College. Dr. Straiter currently works in the biopharmaceutical industry and her research interests include organizational trust, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction.

Email: kstraiter@comcast.net

References

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63*, 1-18.

Argyris, C. (1964). *Integrating the individual and the organization*. New York: John Wiley.

Barber, B. (1983). *The logic and limits of trust*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.

Barnes, L. B. (1981). Managing the paradox of trust. *Harvard Business Review, 59*, 107- 116.

Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: John Wiley.

Boss, R. W. (1978). Trust and managerial problem solving revisited. *Group and Organizational Studies, 3,* 330-341.

Bradach, J. L., & Eccles, R. G. (1989). Price, authority, and trust: From ideal types to plural forms. *Annual Review of Sociology, 15*, 97-118.

Bromiley, P., & Cummings, L. L. (1993). Organizations with trust: Theory and measurement. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota. Paper presented at the 53rd annual meeting of the Academy of Management, Atlanta, GA.

Buchanan, B. (1974). Building organizational commitment: The socialization of managers in work organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 19*, 533-546.

Butler, J. K., Jr. (1991). Toward understanding and measuring conditions of trust: Evolution of a conditions of trust inventory. *Journal of Management, 17*(3), 643-663.

Butler, J. K., Jr., & Cantrell, S. R. (1984). A behavioral decision theory approach to modeling dyadic trust in superiors and subordinates. *Psychological Reports, 55*, 19-28.

Carnevale, D. G., & Wechsler, B. (1992). Trust in the public sector. *Administration and Society, 12*, 471-494.

Cook, J., & Wall, T. (1980). New work attitude measures of trust, organizational commitment and personal need non-fulfillment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 53*, 39-52.

Deutsch, M. (1958). Trust and suspicion. *Journal of Conflict Resolution, 2*, 265-279.

Diffie-Couch, P. (1984). Building a feeling of trust in the company. *Supervisory Management, 29*, 31-36.

Doney, P. M., Cannon, J. P., & Mullen, M. R. (1998). Understanding the influence of national culture on the development of trust. *Academy of Management Review, 23*(3), 601-621.

Driscoll, J. W. (1978). Trust and participation in organizational decision making as predictors of satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal, 21*, 44-56.

Dunham, R. B., Grube, J. A., & Castaneda, M. B. (1994). Organizational Commitment: The utility of an integrative definition. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*(3), 370-380.

Early, P. C. (1986). Trust, perceived importance of praise and criticism, and work performance: An examination of feedback in the United States and England. *Journal of Management, 12*, 457-473.

Fields, D. (2002). *Taking the measure of work.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Friedlander, F. (1970). The primacy of trust as a facilitator of further group accomplishment. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 6*, 387-401.

Fulk, J., Brief, A. P., & Barr, S. H. (1985). Trust-in-supervisor and perceived fairness and accuracy of performance evaluations. *Journal of Business Research, 13*, 301-313.

Gabarro, J. (1987). *The dynamics of taking charge*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Gambetta, D. (1988). Can we trust trust? In D. Gambetta (Ed.), *Trust: Making and breaking*

cooperative relations (pp. 213-237). Oxford, UK: Basil Blackwell.
Golembiewski, R., & McConkie, M. (1975). The centrality of trust in group processes. In C. L. Cooper (Ed.), *Theories of group processes* (pp. 131-185). New York: John Wiley.
Gomez, C., & Rosen, B. (2001). The leader-member exchange as a link between managerial trust and employee empowerment. *Group & Organization Management, 26*(1), 53-69.
Griffin, K. (1967). The contribution of studies of source credibility to a theory of interpersonal trust in the communication process. *Psychological Bulletin, 68*, 104-120.
Hart, K. M., Capps, H. R., Cangemi, J., & Caillouet, L. M. (1986). Exploring organizational trust and its multiple dimensions: A case study at General Motors.
Hollon, C. J., & Gemmill, G. R. (1977). Interpersonal trust and personal effectiveness in the work environment. *Psychological Reports, 40*, 454.
Hurst, D. K. (1984). Of boxes, bubbles, and effective management. *Harvard Business Review, 62*, 78-88.
Kallenberg, A., & Berg, I. (1987). *Work and industry: Structures, markets and processes*. New York: Academic Press.
Katzenbach, J. R., & Smith, D. K. (1993). *The wisdom of teams: Creating the high-performance organization*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
Larzelere, R. J., & Huston, T. L. (1980). The dyadic trust scale: Toward understanding interpersonal trust in close relationships. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 42*, 595-604.
Lawler, E. (1992). *The ultimate advantage: Creating the high-involvement organization*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
Leana, C. R. (1986). Predictors and consequences of delegation. *Academy of Management Journal, 29*, 754-774.
Lewis, D. J., & Weigert, A. (1985). Trust as a social reality. *Social Forces, 64*, 967-985.
Liou, K. (1995). Understanding employee commitment in the public organization: A study of the juvenile detention center. *International Journal of Public Administration, 18*(8), 1269-1295.
Luhmann, N. (1979). *Trust and power*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
Martin, C. L., & Bennett, N. (1996). The role of justice judgments in explaining the relationship between job satisfaction and organization commitment. *Group & Organizational Management, 2*(1), 84-105.
Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A review of the meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. Psychological Bulletin, 108*(2), 171-194.*
Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. Academy of Management Review, 20*, 709-734.*
McAllister, D. J. (1995). Affect- and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal cooperation in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*, 24-59.
McGregor, D. (1967). *The professional manager*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
Moore, S. F., Shaffer, L. S., Pollak, E. L., & Taylor-Lemcke, P. (1987). The effects of interpersonal trust and prior commons problem experience on commons management. *Journal of Social Psychology, 127*, 19-29.

Muchinsky, P. M. (1977). An intraorganizational analysis of the Roberts and O'Reilly organizational communication questionnaire. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 62*, 184-188.

Nyhan, R. C., & Marlowe, H. A., Jr. (1997). Development and psychometric properties of the organizational trust inventory. *Evaluation Review, 21*(5), 614-635.

Oliver, N. (1990). Rewards, investments, alternatives and organizational commitment: Empirical evidence and theoretical development. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *63,* 19-31.

Ouchi, W. G. (1981). *Theory Z: How American business can meet the Japanese challenge*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Pennings, J. M., & Woiceshyn, J. (1987). A typology of organizational control and its metaphors. In S. B. Bacharach & S. M. Mitchell (Eds.), *Research in the sociology of organizations* (pp. 75-104). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, P. V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians*. Journal of Applied Psychology, 55*, 63-69.

Rempel, J. K., Holmes, J. G., & Zanna, M. P. (1985). Trust in close relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 49*, 95-112.

Roberts, K. H., & O'Reilly, C. A., III. (1974). Failures in upward communication in organizations: Three possible culprits. *Academy of Management Journal, 17*(2), 205-215.

Rotter, J. B. (1967). A new scale for the measurement of interpersonal trust. *Journal of Personality, 35*(4), 651-665.

Rotter, J. B. (1971). Generalized expectancies for interpersonal trust. *American Psychologist, 35*, 1-7.

Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review, 23*(3), 393-404.

Savage, D. (1982). Trust as a productivity management tool. *Training and Development Journal, 36*(2), 54-57.

Schindler, P. L., & Thomas, C. (1993). The structure of interpersonal trust in the workplace. *Psychological Reports, 73*(2), 563-574.

Scott, C. L. (1980). Interpersonal trust: A comparison of attitudinal and situational factors. *Human Relations, 33*, 805-812.

Scott, K. D. (1983). Trust differences between men and women in superior-subordinate relationships. *Group & Organization Studies, 8*(3), 319-336.

Seabright, M. A., Leventhal, D. A., & Fichman, M. (1992). Role of individual attachments in the dissolution of interorganizational relationships. *Academy of Management Journal, 35*, 122-160.

Simmons, B. L., Nelson, D. L., & Neal, J. (2001). A comparison of the positive and negative work attitudes of home health care and hospital nurses. *Health Care Management Review, 26*(3), 63-74.

Steers, R. M. (1977). Antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 22*, 46-56.

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measure of positive and negative affect the PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*(6), 1063-1070.

Witt, L. A., Andrews, M. C., & Kacmar, K. M. (2000). The role of participation in decision-making in the organizational politics-job satisfaction relationship. *Human Relations, 53*(3), 341-353.

Yeager, S. J. (1978). Measurement of independent variables which affect communication: A replication of Roberts and O'Reilly. *Psychological Reports, 43*, 1319-1324.

Zand, D. (1972). Trust and managerial problem solving. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 17*, 229-239.

IJLS
INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF LEADERSHIP STUDIES

Research Review: Work-Family/Family-Work Conflict

JACQUE L. KING
Regent University

Balancing the demands of work and the responsibilities of the family is an ongoing concern in organizational leadership. Today we are busier than ever. Gone are the days of the 40-hour work week, the two-hour lunch, leaving the office on time, and forgetting about office demands until the next business day. With today's advanced technology, such as cell phones with paging and instant messaging, wireless Internet access, and the mobile office following us wherever we go, it is easier to take the office on the road when we travel, even when the road leads home. Once at home, office responsibilities easily impose on family time with a quick call here and an email reply there limiting the amount of quality time available for the family. This incompatibility between the pressures of work and family concerns generates role conflict and stress on the follower.

Researchers define the incompatibility between the domain of work and the domain of family as work-family conflict. Conflict between these domains occurs when participation in one role is more difficult due to participation in the other role. Today, work-family conflict (work interfering with family) is more prevalent than family-work conflict (family interfering with work) though both can occur. However, regardless of the direction of causation, when one domain is discordant with another domain, the result is conflict and increased stress on the individual. Current research focuses on the causes of work-family conflict, balance of time, involvement and satisfaction, quality of life, and the outcomes between the two domains.

Attribution theory states that there are internal and external explanations for work-family and family-work conflict. An internal explanation is the desire to be successful in multiple roles such as mother or father, brother or sister, leader or follower, and peer or subordinate. Internally, work-family conflict occurs when what needs to be accomplished at work interferes with personal values. Personal values may include spending daily quality time with family or simply rejuvenating after a hard day of work. Internally-generated conflict can also occur when family responsibilities such as attending a school function or taking care of a sick child spills over into the responsibilities of work and increases the time spent away from the job. External causes of work-family conflict may occur when your work assignment takes more time to complete than what you have to give or when your spouse is unwilling to support your endeavors both at home and at work. Conflict between these domains also occurs when the amount of control followers have over their job is limited and flexibility is minimal.

International Journal of Leadership Studies, Vol. 1 Iss. 1, 2005, pp. 102-105

ISSN 1554-3145

Compensation theory suggests that people add more to one domain than the other in order to balance what lacks in either. In other words, life balance is a direct result of the amount of time and psychological resources an individual decides to commit to both domains. If the individual commits more time or psychological resources to work, then work-family conflict may increase. If an individual decides to commit more resources to family than work, but work requirements increase, then family-work conflict also increases.

While the conflict between work and family may be inevitable, researchers such as Friedman and Greenhaus (2000) suggest alternative methods for reducing the stress. For example, more autonomy in the workplace and networking with peers can increase the quality of work life. Their studies show that individuals who work for organizations that allow individuals to spend more time at home, work in virtual employment, and make flexible time arrangements, tend to perform better as a parent than those who do not have these opportunities. Maintaining satisfaction on both fronts is important for reducing the feelings of conflict.

Friedman and Greenhaus (2000) also suggest that individuals should clarify what is important in life and continually experiment with achieving goals. They say that self-identity is the combination of family, work, leisure, and community service. While some individuals are more aware of what they value than others, self-awareness is critical to managing the conflict between the two domains. The decision making process and managing the allotted time between domains is handled best when the individual is aware of their surroundings. Self-awareness reduces the incompatibility between the work domain and the family domain.

Further, these researchers suggest that a more holistic approach to life enhances the quality of life and reduces the conflict between the two domains. Participation in different roles can enrich an individual's life through building strong relationships with individuals in various roles such as a superior, peer or subordinate, a spouse, and/or a community leader.

Experimentation with goals requires the individual to examine goals often and develop new strategies to achieve those goals. More importantly, the individual must be open to change and be willing to ask the hard question of what is truly important in their life. Once they answer the hard question, the individual can then decide what needs to be done to achieve their goals.

Studies have found no differences between men and women in work-family conflict. However, women tend to experience more family-work conflict when there is a child at home less than three years of age. Women also experience more family–work conflict when their spouse does not help with child rearing. Women may also be more likely to take time off from work to care for a sick child than their working spouse.

Work-family and family-work conflict are two phenomena affecting organizational leadership today. An understanding of what causes the conflict between the domains is the first step to resolving their incompatibility. Researchers have identified the causes of these conflicting domains and have provided explanations for these phenomena. Resolution starts with the individual and a self-assessment that focuses on what the individual feels is important in life. Lasting resolution to the conflict between these domains comes through building and sustaining good relationships with others who operate within the conflicting domains of an individual's life.

About the Author

Dr. Jacque King received his Ph.D. in organizational leadership from Regent University and currently serves as assistant professor and director of Regent's Doctor of Strategic Leadership program. His research interests include: perfectionism, self-esteem and self-efficacy in leadership, power in the organizational setting, and organizational development and transformation from a biblical perspective.

Email: jacqki1@regent.edu

References

Friedman, S. D., & Greenhaus, J. H. (2000). *Work and family: Allies or enemies? What happens when business professionals confront life choices*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.