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A Cultural Contingency Leadership Model For A Multinational Higher Education Joint Venture

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A CULTURAL CONTINGENCY LEADERSHIP MODEL FOR A MULTINATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION JOINT VENTURE

by

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation addressed the need for empirical research on the leadership of multinational virtual teams (Davis & Bryant, 2003; Early & Gibson, 2002; Ilgen, Lepine, and Hollenbeck, 1997; Prieto & Arias, 1997), particularly in the field of educational leadership (Cheng, 1995). This was accomplished through the development of a model based upon the cultural values discovered through the use of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) Values Survey Module 94 (VSM 94).

As workers will bring values from their own cultures to the multinational workplace (Bochner & Hesketh, 1994), research was conducted to determine the cultural values of economics professors in the United States and Germany in order to formulate a cultural contingent leadership model based on Triandis' (1993) adaptation of Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory. Given a total response from 194 U.S. and German economics professors, it was discovered that faculty in both the United States and Germany had values that differed significantly from those that Hofstede discovered for his IBM employee samples in four out of five dimensions. However, it was found that the values for the U.S. and German faculties were a close replication of Hoppe's (1990) findings which were based on a sample that was similar to the economics faculties in both occupation and education. These findings add a cautionary note to the recommendation by Hofstede and Peterson (2000) that existing cultural values can be used by cultural researchers: Previous cultural value data can be used if the samples are closely matched to the previous samples in both nationality as well as educational and occupational background.

The research thus indicated that differences in national culture, as measured by Hofstede's (1980, 2001) cultural dimensions, still exist. In addition, a direct comparison of the cultural values between the two faculties indicated that the U.S. and German economics faculties differed significantly in two of Hofstede's cultural dimensions, individualism and collectivism and masculinity and femininity. The two samples were not significantly different in the cultural dimensions of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and long term orientation.

Using the Triandis (1993) approach, application of the research results to Fiedler's (1967) LPC model indicated that a relationship oriented leader would be an in-match leader for a group of U.S. and German higher education economics faculty. This result was contingent upon the cultural values discovered for the U.S. and German faculties who would be involved in an endeavor with situational variables similar to that which would be found in an international joint venture to offer online distance economics education to students in a developing country.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS/ABBREVIATIONS

Authority Ranking (AR)

Boseland Education Adjustment Factor (BA)

Chinese Values Survey (CVS)

Community Sharing (CS)

Equality Matching (EM)

General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)

Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE)

Global Virtual Teams (GVTs)

Gross National Income (GNI)

Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

Gross National Product per Capita (GNP/Capita)

Horizontal Collectivism (HI)

Horizontal Individualism (HI)

Individualism and Collectivism (IDV)

Leader Match (LM)

Least Preferred Coworker (LPC)

Long-Term Orientation (LTO)

Management by Objective (MBO)

Market Pricing (MP)

Masculinity and Femininity (MAS)

National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)

Newly Industrialized Economies (NIEs)

Nurturant Task (NT)

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)

Power Distance (PDI)

Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)

Values Survey Model (VSM)

Vertical Collectivism (VC)

Vertical Individualism (VI)

World Trade Organization (WTO)

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Following the globalization trend in business, universities have implemented courses and degree programs in higher education that often use the Internet, allowing these courses and degree programs to be unconstrained by time, distance, or even national boundaries. (Mendler, Simon, & Broome, 2002). When institutions of higher education have ventured into foreign educational markets, they have often sought foreign higher educational institutions as partners (Rubin, Bernath, & Parker, 2004). Educational institutions in the United States are at the forefront of this trend, embracing the prospects of increasing the over $13 billion in export revenue associated with higher education at the turn of the century ("Wandering Scholars," 2005). The World Trade Organization (WTO) has recognized the importance of the trade in educational services and has made it a part of the negotiations on the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), with education being designated as an area where some countries, notably the United States, have committed themselves to having an open market (Farrington, 2001).

A cooperative effort between participants with different values and cultures, whether it is in the field of business or education, will entail some level of intercultural conflict (Barkema & Vermeulen, 1997; Jehn, Northcraft & Neale, 1999; More & Spekman, 1994). Formulating a leadership strategy to deal with the varied cultural backgrounds of faculty who would participate in any such cooperative effort would be a key aspect in its success or failure. Little empirical research exists, however, on international cooperative efforts, especially in the area of the

leadership necessary for small international work units or teams (Davis & Bryant, 2003; Early & Gibson, 2002; Ilgen, Lepine, & Hollenbeck, 1997; Prieto & Arias, 1997).

In the sphere of higher education, a multinational team of faculty representing multiple institutions of higher education teaching online would be well-equipped to offer an online program of courses which would not be constrained by time or location (Mendler, Simon, & Broome, 2002; Rubin, Bernath, & Parker, 2004). Concurrently, developing countries need opportunities in higher education (Gardner, 1998; Sadlak, 1998). An illustration of this need is the statistic that a person in sub-Saharan Africa is 17 times less likely to pursue a higher educational opportunity than a student in a developed country (Sadlak). An attempt must be made to meet the educational needs of these populations if the development of these countries is to materialize (Gardner; Perkins, 1977).

If the higher education needs of students in developing countries is to be partially met through multinational higher education joint ventures, it is important to consider culture as a variable in designing an effective leadership model (Hofstede, 2001; Triandis, 1993) for the faculty who would be involved in a higher education joint venture. One often cited definition of culture is "collective programming of the mind which distinguishes members of one group from another" (Hofstede, 1980, p. 25). Hofstede distinguished an individual's mental program at three levels with *universal* mental programming, namely the "biological operating systems," forming the base of a pyramid-type of relationship. Next is the *collective* influence with the source being the primary group with which the individual associates. It is here that the cultural impact plays the greatest role. Finally, at the apex of his pyramid is the unique *individual*. While individuals from the United States and Germany have certainly experienced different collectives in the process of their maturation, they have culturally much in common (Schmidt, 2000). There are,

however, enough cultural differences to warrant research before any international educational cooperative effort is put into practice (Hofstede, 1980; Kabanoff, 1997; Kuchinke, 1999; Szabo, et al., 2002; Trompenaars, 1994; Verma & Triandis, 1999; Zeitling, 2002).

The research for this dissertation measured the cultural diversity of economics faculties at universities in the United States and Germany. This research capitalized on prior research that made recommendations based upon the calculated values from Hofstede's (1980, 2001) five dimensions of culture. These include individualism and collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity and femininity, and long-versus short-term orientation. From Hofstede's research findings, which include measured and stable cultural values (Barkema & Vermeulen, 1997) for each country, a cultural contingent model of leadership was developed for this specific group of U.S. and German faculty. While the model developed was specific to the leadership of economics faculties from the United States and Germany, the methodology may be useful in developing a culturally contingent leadership model for other combinations of international faculty in other academic subjects and areas. For instance, a multinational team of examiners evaluating a cooperative venture by universities from different countries seeking to offer an international online program of study to students would benefit from having an understanding of the culturally contingent leadership best applicable to participants of the cooperative venture.

International Higher Education Cooperative Venture

Firms, as well as educational institutions, often use cooperative ventures with foreign partners in order to reduce risk (Earley & Gibson, 2002; Inkpen & Currall, 1997; Prieto & Arias, 1997). While combining resources in international cooperative joint ventures has been a method

used by firms to capitalize on comparative advantage and reduce risk, Newman and Nolan (1996) confirmed Earley's (1994) research that work units in multinational firms had higher performance when the management practices were in congruence with the cultural values of the multinational participants. Specifically, the Newman and Nolan study established that when management practices were in harmony with Hofstede's (1980) identified cultural dimensions, economic performance, including return on investment, was enhanced.

Key questions in any international joint venture would thus be the market to be entered, choice of partners, and the mode of entry. The answers to these questions indicate that the US and Germany would be appropriate partners to offer higher education online economics courses to students in developing countries.

Education in Developing Countries

There has been a lack of investment in developing countries with the percentage of students who have pursued higher education in the traditional age ranges of 18–23 in these countries ranging from 32% in middle-income countries to only 6% in low-income countries (The Task Force on Higher Education and Society, 2000) and was as low as 1% in several of the countries with the lowest levels of income (Bloom, Canning, & Chan, 2005). This compares to the 58% of students in this age range who pursued higher education in the United States (Evans & Haase, 2001). James Perkins (1977), former chairman of the International Council for Educational Development and former president of Cornell University, recognized almost three decades ago that societies that do not achieve a gross enrollment ratio for their college-age population of at least 12% will not develop at a rate which keeps pace with the developed

countries and thus will fall further behind. Daniel (1996) forecasted that it would take at least the opening of one large university a week in the developing world to just maintain the gross enrollment rates at the dismally low levels at which they were.

Despite the evidence for increased investment in higher education in developing countries, during the last few years of the 20th century, the World Bank reduced the percentage of its budget used to support higher education, partially in favor of primary and secondary education (Bloom, Canning, & Chan, 2005). Given the diminished support, establishing priorities becomes an essential task facing developing countries with growing populations facing scarce resources. Developing countries and donors must decide at which level, elementary, secondary, or tertiary, educational aid will be most effective. With reduced support for higher education, it is important that the available resources be invested in areas where the return on investment will be greatest such as science, technology, and the social sciences which include the subject of economics (The Task Force on Higher Education and Society, 2000). A social science such as economics was included in this group as a sound grasp of economic literacy would be useful in allowing for the most efficient use of scarce resources and is a prerequisite for the understanding of the alternatives for development that have been followed by the newly industrialized economies (NIEs), including Korea, Singapore, Taiwan, and now China (Prowse, 1993; Rader, 1996; Stern, 2002; Stiglitz, 1998).

To increase economic literacy in developing countries, it is important to tap into the existing institutions of higher education in developed countries (Annan, 2000). A cooperative effort between higher education institutions from the United States and Germany, offering online instruction in the field of economics to students in developing countries, would capitalize on several aspects of the comparative advantages of institutions of higher education from these

countries. The advantages include the US as a leader in the field of distance and online education, the traditional strengths of these educational institutions (Kerr, Gade, & Kawaoka, 1994), the forms of capitalism unique to each country (Szabo, et al., 2002), and English as the world business language and native language of the US (Altbach, 1998a; Baumgratz, 1995).

Choice of Partners in an International Joint Venture: The US and Germany

The US as a Partner in an International Education Joint Venture

U.S. firms have had an advantage in doing business around the world as English has been recognized as the world's principal international business language (Baumgratz, 1995). English is the official language of 8 countries, the administrative language of another 70 countries, and about 80% of global electronic communication is in English (Crystal, 1997). Universities from the United States also have a distinct advantage in having the experience of offering online courses, especially in the subject of business (Evans & Haase, 2001). Many foreign universities in countries whose native language is not English have begun to offer courses in diverse subjects with English as the language of instruction. The expressed intention is to attract students from other countries (Döpp, 2003). Universities from the United States have the experience and capacity to enter such international markets, offering online courses, an educationally sound product as demonstrated through research by Russell (n.d.). Russell's research is well known and cites numerous studies that have shown that there is no significant difference between student outcomes in traditional face-to-face courses and online courses. This also seems to be the case for student satisfaction (Allen, Bourhis, & Mabry, 2002).

Germany as a Partner in an International Joint Venture

The implementation of an online higher education program in economics offered only from the perspective of the version of capitalism practiced in the United States, where the market serves almost exclusively as the resource allocation mechanism for goods and services, may find a certain level of resistance in other countries (Hofstede, 2001). While the principles of economics course serves as the cornerstone for the study of business, as taught in the US, there is scant mention of alternative models for economic systems beyond the extremes of capitalism and socialism. In a review of three widely used textbooks in the US for teaching the principles of macroeconomics, the pages devoted explicitly to the discussion of alternative economic system ranges from several pages to none at all (Baumol & Blinder, 2006; Mankiw, 2001; McConnel & Brue, 1999). This is significant given that of all the students who attended a four-year institution in the US in 1998, 40% completed at least one course in economics with 19% having completed only one course in economics, usually the principles of macroeconomics (Siegfried, 2000). This indicates that most college students in the US are being exposed to only one version of capitalism, one that is consistent with the high level of cultural individualism found in the US (Hofstede). The free-market capitalism practiced in the United States assumes a level of cultural individualism that is missing in most countries of the world. For instance, while financial incentive programs are a standard reward mechanism used in compensation packages in companies in the United States, such individual financial incentive programs, for example, generally have not worked in Russia and other Eastern European nations (Welsh, Summer, & Birch, 1993).

A system that may be more acceptable to countries that do not have as high a level of cultural individualism as the United States is the version of capitalism practiced in Germany. The

German *social market* or Rhenish version of capitalism provides for firms to use the market for decision-making information but ensures a social safety net for individuals who are negatively affected by the market system (Gardner, 1998; Szabo, et al., 2002). This system guarantees relatively generous assistance with adjustment and retraining for workers displaced in the competitive process. This version of capitalism also allows for *codetermination*, or worker participation in firm decision-making. Even today there is debate within Germany as to whether capital has become too dominant over labor with the head of the leading political coalition stating that "The economy (i.e., big business) must realize that it exists to serve people and not the other way round" ("Locust, pocus", 2005, p. 63).

A further argument for choosing a German partner in international higher education cooperation is the historical reputation of German universities for excellence. According to Kerr, Gade, and Kawaoke (1994):

> The modern German research university, beginning with the founding of the University of Berlin in 1809, approached the discovery of truth and knowledge in all fields on the basis of scientific principles, joining the rational and empirical traditions to form the basis of modern scientific research. (p. 176)

The reputation for excellence in research led to the adoption of aspects of the German university model by many former developing countries including the United States and Japan (Altbach, 1998a). As late as 2003, Egypt opened a German university in Cairo, primarily funded and run by German universities (Svensson, 2003). This is an example of the commitment Germany has made to help developing countries. Germany in 2004 contributed approximately 0.28% of its Gross National Income (GNI) in "Official Development Aid (ODA)" (OECD, 2005). While Germany's percentage contribution of GNI falls short of the United Nations' 0.7% goal for each country, it is greater in percentage terms than the 0.16% donated by the United

States. A further demonstration of Germany's development efforts in the field of education is the Institute for Economic Education (*Institut für Ökonomische Bildung und Technische Bildung*, 2005), a program by Germany's Oldenburg University that offers courses in economics to transition economies in Eastern Europe.

Finally, in evaluating Germany as a partner in offering online higher education courses and degrees in developing countries, motivational factors for institutions in involving themselves in such programs should be considered. Facing a general population decline with the prospect of approximately a third fewer students by 2050, Germany's over 350 institutions of higher education face a dearth of home-grown students ("Old Dogs," 2006). This need to expand outside of Germany was recognized and as, according to the Web site for the International Centre for Higher Education Research at the Universität Kassel in Germany,

> More and more countries are exporting study programmes. GATS (the General Agreement on Trade in Services) has made it easier for education providers to be present in countries other than their country of origin. After the UK and Australia started to conquer the world education market, Germany now also intends to offer its study programmes worldwide. ("Export of German Study Programmes," n.d., ¶1)

While it is clear that developing countries would benefit from programs and courses offered by educational institutions in developed countries, the reverse linkages, or benefits to a developed country such as Germany of this arrangement, include the ability to decrease the per student overhead of its institutions through increased numbers of students accessing German institutions both within and outside (through distance learning) of Germany.

Characteristics of U.S. and German Higher Education and Faculty

The market for labor is increasingly becoming internationalized with added impetus coming from efforts of the European Union to recognize qualifications (Altbach, 2000). With

increased mobility, the professoriate will come into contact with colleagues who are different in many ways, including nationality, culture, and the working conditions under which they teach. It seems, however, at least in Western Europe and the United States, that the professoriate has many commonalities independent of nationality:

> Professors have traditionally valued their autonomy—the ability to control not only what happens in the classroom but also to determine the substance of their work. Few occupations have enjoyed the freedom of the professoriate to control the use of their time and the focus and range of productivity. In Europe, particularly, the ideals of professional autonomy combined with academic freedom in the classroom and laboratory have been hallmarks of the professoriate and remain primary values of the profession. (Altbach, p. 13)

There may also be differences with those in other professions, especially on the critical aspect of what they expect in their leadership. Kouzes and Posner (2003) surveyed over 100,000 respondents and asked "what personal values, traits, and characteristics are most important to them in an individual they would willingly follow" (p. 10). They found that only four attributes consistently received at least 50 percent of the votes: honest, forward-looking, competent, and inspiring. In contrast to the Kouzes and Posner study, the top four attributes chosen by a small sample of professors at colleges in the Southeastern US differed at a statistically significant level with the respondents in the Kouzes and Posner study (Albritton, 2005). College professors surveyed had similar responses to those surveyed by Kouzes and Posner's in that honest and competent were important attributes but *differed* with Kouzes and Posner's respondents in not placing forward-looking and inspiring in the top four categories of important attributes of leaders. The faculty members instead emphasized the need for fair-minded leadership and supportive leadership.

There have been efforts to curtail the amount of independence many faculty members have enjoyed, with some success including the abolition of the formal system of tenure in the

United Kingdom (Altbach, 2000). Perhaps the German professoriate, however, best exemplifies the institution of faculty independence as it was the philosophy of Emmanuel Kant, as interpreted by Wilhelm von Humboldt, that led to the establishment of the University of Berlin in the early 1800s, the prototypical modern university. According to Kant,

> To ensure a general learned education there should exist a further faculty that, with respect to its teachings, was independent of the government, a faculty that had no orders to give but that was free to judge everything relevant to the interests of science, i.e., relevant to the truth. (vom Bruch, 1997, p. 9)

Thelin (2004) acknowledges the debt that universities such as the University of Chicago, Johns Hopkins University, and other U.S. universities owe to the Humboldtian model as these institutions adopted the German format for higher education. This included professors as experts in their fields who publishing in refereed journals, emphasis on using small seminars in instruction, the practice of combining teaching with concurrent learning, professors as researchers, an emphasis on doctoral programs where students strove to publish their work, and rigorous standards for matriculation. According to Clark Kerr, first Chancellor of the University of California at Berkeley and former president of the University of California, the University of California was originally "a German university with a land grant emphasis" (Kerr, Gade, & Kawaoka, 1994, p. 240).

The German professoriate is in a hierarchical system dominated by those at the top who have tenure. The German model of tenure does, however, protect only a minority of the teaching staff with the majority (72%) working on a full-time contract basis (Altbach, 2000). The senior faculty members who work at the approximately 90 research universities in the system (with the total number of higher educational institutions at over 330), will be the chair of an academic department and hold a civil service position within the federal government, a position which

guarantees tenure protected by the federal constitution (Altbach, 1998b). Senior faculty members have usually completed a research doctorate as well as a further qualification known as the *Habilitation*, which is earned after several additional years of research beyond the doctoral degree (Altbach, 1998b). Most of the remaining teaching staff at research universities will hold a doctorate and will have finished the *Habilitation* but most do not remain beyond a few years at a given university as the opportunity to move up to a senior faculty or chair position is limited. This has created significant mobility and instability within the higher education faculty ranks (Enders, 2000).

Senior professors at German research universities teach approximately 8 hours per week (Enders, 2000). In contrast, professors in the 130 *Fachhochschulen*, or universities of applied sciences (*Deutscher Bildungs Server*, n. d.; *Hochschulen in Deutschland*, n. d.) teach 16–18 hours a week. *Fachhochschulen* are higher education teaching institutions similar to institutions in the US listed on the Carnegie classification as *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive). According to the degree data, these institutions award master's degrees in the humanities, social sciences, and STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) fields, and degrees in one or more professional fields (Carnegie Foundation Web site, n. d.). The German institutions in the *Fachhochschule* category have a focus on teaching as contrasted with research universities (Hüfner, 2003). This is also true of U.S. institutions in this Carnegie classification as faculty at these institutions, most of whom do not have doctoral programs in economics, have fewer research responsibilities than would be expected of faculty at the top-tiered research institutions. In Germany, they hold a lesser academic rank than senior faculty at research universities and almost always have a doctoral degree but must not have the

Habilitation. They are required to have a few years of postdoctoral experience outside of academia.

The strength of the tenure system in Germany has led to a certain level of estrangement of senior faculty from their universities with the universities having no administrative power over professors (the state ministries of education are responsible for supervision of professors), and professors, in return, feel that they have little input in university administrative matters (Enders, 2000). Pritchard (2004), in a survey of professors in Germany, found that 88% responded in the affirmative to the question of whether they enjoyed personal professional satisfaction; a majority, 62%, rejected the statement that universities should be run like a business. A large percentage, 41%, disagreed with the sentiment that the university should become less state-centered (34% agreed while 25% were uncertain). Finally, 67% did not think that the evaluation of teaching would lead to any changes and, not surprisingly, given the state of tenure in Germany, 75% felt *free* in their academic work.

While there are initiatives at the European Union to diminish the granting of tenure, given the historical foundations and significance of academic freedom and tenure in Germany, there is little discussion in Germany for change (Enders, 2000). Where change has been discussed is in the area of incentives for performance and increased competition for resources, such as grants, given that most financial support (over 90%) for higher education in Germany comes from the government (Salerno, 2004).

Contrary to the German professoriate, there have been many changes involving the composition of U.S. faculty. Finkelstein, Seal, and Schuster (1998) reported that there were considerable differences between older and new faculty members demographically, with greater diversity in ethnicity and national origin. As with their German counterparts, most research in the

US was conducted at the research universities with faculty at non-research universities having spent approximately 60% (ranging from 53% at doctoral institutions to 65% at liberal arts institutions) of their time teaching while this was around 45% at research institutions (Layzell, 1999).

Compared with Germany, a larger percentage of U.S. higher education faculty have tenure, and the figure has remained relatively constant over the last couple of decades at slightly above 50% (Altbach, 2000). However, recently, more faculty, than was previously the case, were part-time adjunct or in full-time positions without the prospect of tenure (Altbach, 1998b). Even with the more tenuous situation with tenure, as was the case with their German colleagues, three-fourths of U.S. faculty were satisfied with their professional situation. They were also stimulated by working with interesting people, were autonomous, and valued a capacity to finish a task (Dunkin, 2003). Similar to their German colleagues, U.S. faculty felt alienated by the administrative side of their institutions.

Online Education

U.S. Leadership in Online Education

It is important to consider the mode of entry for any multinational joint venture. Should universities in developed countries expand capacity in developing countries by physically adding programs or campuses in developing countries or should technology be leveraged to provide expanded capacity? In considering the comparative advantage of universities in developed countries, the appropriate means of entry may revolve around technology.

As reported by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), the United States is a leader in the area of distance and online education, with distance education defined as the "delivery of instruction over a distance to individuals located in one or more venues," (Lewis, Snow, Ferris, & Levin, 1999). In the 1997–1998 academic year, 61% of institutions of higher education employed asynchronous Internet instruction in stand-alone online courses (Lewis et al., 1999). By 2001, this had grown to 90% (Waits & Lewis, 2003). With the proliferation of online higher education programs that are often international in scope (Evans & Haase, 2001), where the international student is often seen as the target market (Bates, 2001), there is a need for research into the leadership requirements of the institutions and faculty members working in this field. This is especially relevant if the project involves global virtual teams (GVTs) which are more of a challenge to manage, given the differences in culture, distance, and time (Davis & Bryant, 2003).

The Possibility of Online Education in Developing Countries

The task of opening at least one university a week just to maintain the inadequate status quo in developing countries (Daniel, 1996) may prove to be a daunting task for developing countries. Developing countries that cannot afford to invest in brick and mortar infrastructure at the level necessary to maintain current participation rates may have to turn to online learning. Kofi Annan, former Secretary-General of the United Nations, recognized the importance of online learning during a speech in 2000 when he said, "Information technology should be used to tap knowledge from the greatest universities in the world, and bring their learning to all" (Annan,

2000, ¶12). Including the potential of developing countries, it is estimated that the online higher education market could be 160 million students by the year 2025 (Goodfellow, Lea, Gonzalez, & Mason, 2001).

Online learning also has the potential for using the existing private resources of not only citizens but also companies. Given the lack of resources for building traditional brick and mortar campuses in developing countries, this may be a logical and cost-effective alternative (Bates, 2001; Knierziner & Turcsanyi-Szabo, 2002). This includes, for instance, employees using the infrastructure of call centers established in developing countries such as India or even taking advantage of efforts to introduce $100 laptops which incorporate wireless access to the internet and can use hand-cranks for a power-supply ("Cheap Tricks," 2005). As an example of the ability to enable the wireless access for the $100 laptops in remote villages, Inveneo, a company launched in 2004 by Silicon Valley executives, provided solar-powered Internet access to 800 members of a village in the mountains of Western Uganda (Bower, 2006). The total cost of the system was under $2,000, and it has been a factor in rising incomes and health levels. Advancements in technology have also allowed the Royal Halloway, University of London, to offer a geography and development master's degree online program in some of the most connectivity-poor regions of the world (Mendler, Simon, & Broome, 2002).

To reduce the risk associated with entry into international markets, many firms and universities utilize cooperative efforts with partners from different countries (Earley & Gibson, 2002; Inkpen & Currall, 1997; Prieto & Arias, 1997). According to Philip G. Altbach, director of the Center for International Higher Education at Boston College:

> We are at the beginning of the era of transnational higher education, in which academic institutions from one country operate in another, academic programs are jointly offered

> by universities from different countries and higher education is delivered through distance technologies. (2004, p. 7)

One example of such a program is an alliance created in January of 2006. The International Alliance of Research Universities included Australian National University, Peking University, and Yale University; the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology; and the University of California at Berkeley, Cambridge University, Copenhagen University, Oxford University, and University of Tokyo (Jaschik, 2006). A stated goal of the alliance is to establish joint/dual degree programs (Australian National University Web site).

An example of such a program that has already been operating for several years is the University of Maryland's partnership with the German Oldenburg University. This program offers distance learning certificates as well as a master's program in distance education to students in 12 countries (Rubin, Bernath, & Parker, 2004). The faculty involved in this project come from both the United States and Germany.

Offering Online Courses in Economics to Developing Countries

Since the end of the Second World War, several economies in Asia including Japan, Hong Kong, Korea, Taiwan, and China have experienced phenomenal economic success as measured by per capita income, literacy rates, health indicators, etc. (Gardner, 1998). While extensive study has been undertaken to understand this success and even to apply it with mixed results to the former Soviet Bloc countries of Eastern Europe, some economic lessons are clear although there is a considerable amount that remains to be understood (Gardner; Stiglitz, 1998).

There is evidence as to the economic importance of an understanding of markets, especially financial markets (Gardner, 1998; Greenspan, 2001; Stiglitz, 1998). Gary H. Stern in his role as President of the Federal Reserve Bank of Minneapolis, in paraphrasing an interview

with Robert Solow, 1987 winner of the Nobel Prize in Economic Sciences, stressed the importance of economic literacy in a speech at the annual meeting of the Virginia Council on Economic Education in October of 2002:

> Conveying economic ideas clearly is a very difficult thing to do, and yet it is essential that we succeed because too much of what passes for debate on policies is nearly incoherent. Certainly, citizens better steeped in the principles of economics would be able both to understand and to contribute to discussion about policy at a higher level, and consequently we should expect better policies over time as a result. (¶ 5)

As an example of the positive ramifications that increased economic literacy would have in developing countries, Clancy, Grinstein-Weiss, and Schreiner (2001) found in a study of over 2,300 low-income research study participants that with only a few hours of education on finance and financial markets, participants significantly increased levels of financial savings. This is especially relevant for developing economies as it has been theorized that the single most important attribute of Asian economies that has led to their *miraculous* growth is the savings rate of members of these economies (Krugman, 1994).

While there are various methods which can be used to penetrate foreign markets, ranging from a solitary approach to participating in a joint venture with a foreign partner, a significant barrier to entering the foreign market will be the intercultural conflicts that often arise with either the customers or partners chosen (Barkema & Vermeulen, 1997; Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999; More & Spekman, 1994). Given the record of successful application of technology and methodology (Mendler, Simon, & Broome, 2002; Rubin, Bernath, & Parker, 2004; Russell, n.d.), leading and managing online cooperative ventures may prove to be a critically challenging aspect of the implementation of international online higher education courses.

The Cultural Contingency

In the 1960s at a large multinational firm, Hofstede (1980) conducted survey research of over 100,000 IBM employees in 40 countries (later expanded to 70 countries). He identified four unique cultural dimensions or values present in employees of each country he studied. While there are nearly two hundred different definitions of culture (Chanchani & Theivanathamillai, 2002), Hofstede's definition of "collective programming of the mind which distinguishes members of one group from another" (p. 25) stems from this research and is often used to define the concept of national culture.

Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimension indices include power distance (PDI), uncertainty avoidance (UAI), individualism and collectivism (IDV), and masculinity and femininity (MAS). Hofstede and Bond (1988) later added the dimension of long-term versus short-term orientation (LTO). For each dimension, Hofstede calculated an index value for each country and felt that where a country was positioned between the low and high poles for each dimension gave some hint as to how this culture would perform in the context of societal and organizational relationships including schools, business, and government (Table 1).

After nationality, Hofstede (2001) found that occupation and education are key areas illustrating differences in cultural orientation. This finding was confirmed by Kuckinke (1999). Research on higher education faculty would be useful given that this population has both a different occupation and education level than Hofstede's original population of respondents as well as the respondents in most subsequent studies. To avoid the cultural conflict that can accompany multinational cooperative joint ventures (Barkema & Vermeulen, 1997; Jehn,

Northcraft & Neale, 1999; More & Spekman, 1994), Hofstede's (1980, 2001) cultural dimensions can be a useful tool in assembling and preparing a multinational team of faculty from educational institutions to offer distance education courses in developing countries. Hofstede and Peterson (2000) concluded that cultural values remain relatively static and advocate that researchers use previous ratings for countries in their research:

Table 1

Hofstede's (1980, 2001) Cultural Dimensions

		Hofstede's (1980, 2001) High & Low Country Values	
Cultural Dimension	Definition	Low	High
Power Distance	Related to inequality among groups	11 (Austria)	104 (Malaysia)
Uncertainty Avoidance	Stress level faced by a society given an uncertain future	8 (Singapore)	112 (Greece)
Individualism	Integration of individuals into primary groups	6 (Guatemala)	91 (United States)
Masculinity & Femininity	Division of emotional roles between men and women	5 (Sweden)	95 (Japan)
Long Term Orientation	Focus of a society on the present or the future	0 (Pakistan)	96 (Hong Kong)

> Are the country scores for culture dimensions first presented in 1980 from data collected in the late 1960s and early 1970s any longer relevant as the world has changed?...Those who wish to use culture to frame studies of just a few countries can generally make use of the country dimensions. (pp. 412–413)

d'Iribarne (1994) even maintained that business values of today were established as long as over 200 years ago. In preparation for the establishment of joint ventures, including in the field of higher education, it may be possible to incorporate existing measurements of national cultural values such as those identified by Hofstede (1980, 2001).

Leadership and Culture

According to Dorfman (1996), effective leadership does not depend upon a static combination of traits, styles, or behaviors but on a fit between the leader's style and the situation. Fiedler's (1967) contingency model combines these two variables. The relationship between Fiedler's contingency theory and culture was explored by Triandis (1993). According to Triandis, "contingency theories, of course, acknowledge the role of situational moderators, and culture is the greatest of all moderators" (p. 168).

Fiedler's (1967) contingency model attempted to answer the question of why some leaders perform better than others in identical leadership situations. Fiedler's model provides for leadership success contingent upon two major variables, namely the leadership style and the situation. The style of leadership is obtained by asking leaders a set of questions which relate to the most difficult person with whom the leader has ever worked. Rating the coworker on an 18 item Likert-type scale from 1 to 8, an LPC (least preferred coworker) score of 73 or above is *high* and 63 or less *low* (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). An interpretation of a low LPC score is that the

leader has an extreme negative reaction to a coworker who has impeded the completion of a task. A high LPC score can be interpreted to mean that while the least preferred coworker has had a negative influence on the task completion, the person has other redeeming qualities (Fiedler & Garcia). Therefore, leaders with high LPC scores are deemed to be relationship-motivated, and those with low scores are categorized as task-oriented leaders. As early as 1973, Tsheulin found the traits of task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership dimensions prominent in Germany and in many other countries.

The second major factor determining leadership success is deemed to be situational control with predominately three influences: Leader-member relations, the task structure, and the leader's position power (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). The two leadership styles and three situational variables were divided into a high and low level with eight possible classifications or octants developed. In a figure with group performance on the vertical axis and situational control (from high to low) on the horizontal axis, a pretzel-shaped relationship is depicted with low LPC leaders cycling from high performance to low performance back to high performance as situational control varies through the three phases. High LPC leader performance mirrors that of the low LPC performance, cycling from low performance to high performance back to low performance. Fiedler, in response to criticism that the model was overly complicated, was quoted as saying "a pretzel shaped theory was needed to explain a pretzel shaped universe" (Chemers, 1997, p. 32). Triandis (1993) adapted Fiedler's (1967) theory to incorporate Hofstede's (1980, 2001) cultural dimensions to create a cultural contingent leadership model.

The Cultural Contingency Model

Hofstede's (1980) typology of cultural values can be related to Fiedler's (1967) LPC values as Hofstede refered to Fiedler's LPC values as the "original test of values" (2001, p. 167). Building upon the work by Hofstede and Fiedler, Triandis (1993) theorized that Fiedler's contingency model was possibly universal, with the variables of culture forming the basis of a theory where cultures that are high in certain traits, for example, would be likely candidates for certain leadership strategies. Triandis defined culture in the following way:

> Culture is to society what memory is to individuals. It is the institutional memory of what has worked in the past, what was adaptive; these memories are widely shared, and become unstated assumptions about what is right or wrong, and about how people should think, feel and behave. (p. 171)

Triandis (1993) emphatically endorsed Fiedler's contingency model, stating that "the strongest point about Fiedler's contingency model is that it works" (p. 7). He cites several studies including Strube and Garcia's (1981) meta-analysis of over 100 tests of the model which corroborate the validity of the theory. Furthermore, building on Hofstede's cultural dimensions, the most important foundation upon which to build a leadership model are the cultural dimensions of individualism and collectivism and uncertainty avoidance (Triandis) with Fiedler finding that how leaders deal with uncertainty is critical to understanding contingency theory (Fiedler, 1993). For example, Triandis theorized that leaders in the low-task structure cells of the 8-octant model will be more effective in high-uncertainty avoidance (UAI) cultures. According to Hofstede (2001), Germany ranked 29th out of 50 countries on this dimension while the US ranked 43rd, which led Hofstede to summarize that "the two differed considerably on uncertainty avoidance" (p. 168).

As educational leaders offer courses and establish degree programs outside of their cultural environment, they will find themselves in unfamiliar cultural territory. “You will frequently end up in situations that do not match your particular leadership style. When this occurs you have two choices: You can change leadership style—and your personality, which determines your style—or you can modify your leadership situation” (Fiedler & Chemers, 1984, p. 177). As personality has its foundations in values and culture (Hofstede, 2001), it may be easier to change the leadership situation, as defined by Fiedler (1967) as leader-member relations, task structure, and position power, to meet the specific requirements of the cultural environment. Alternatively, finding the right leader to fit the situation instead of changing the personality of the leader or the situation, may be the most realistic and appropriate course of action.

A more recent application of Hofstede’s research was the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) study (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002). Using 150 researchers, the GLOBE study focused on 61 countries and developed nine cultural dimensions, at least seven of which were direct applications of Hofstede’s (2001) five categories. After 17,000 questionnaires to individuals in over 800 organizations and 61 countries, the GLOBE study identified six global leadership behavioral dimensions. These dimensions are related to the cultural region and thus are useful in that they serve as guideposts when leaders are dealing with various cultures. The cultural clusters identified by the GLOBE study included the Germanic Europe and the Anglo clusters. These are clusters whose attributes would be of interest to the leadership of a multinational team of faculty from universities located in these regional clusters.

The GLOBE study divided Hofstede's individualism and collectivism into two distinct categories, concentrating on in and out-groups (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). Triandis (1993) also concentrated research in this area. Triandis identified key group attributes as being determined by the cultural dimension of individualism and collectivism including the definition of success, values, what constitutes the in-groups, and social behaviors. Triandis theorized that the cultural dimensions identify those who demonstrate maintenance and consideration behaviors as the ideal leaders for collectivist cultures. Individualist cultures perform better when the leader allows members individual freedom of action but is supportive when necessary. Triandis (2002) further defined individualism and collectivism by indicating that there are important cultural sub-classifications of collectivism versus individualism with horizontal individualists (HI), vertical individualists (VI), horizontal collectivists (HC) and vertical collectivists (VC). According to Kabanoff (1997), the United States can be categorized as vertical individualists. With vertical individualists, people want to stand out and compete to be the best at something, and inequality is more than tolerated and even seen as a natural consequence of competition (Triandis). As applied to the economic sphere, extreme levels of inequality of income are tolerated and perhaps seen as necessary to promote efficiency. Kabanoff classified Germany to be horizontally collective. Members want to be unique but not better than members of their in-group. Sweden is an extreme example of horizontal individualism, with members of that society illustrating extreme levels of self-reliance and avoidance of long-term relationships with out-group members (Daun, 1991). In a study by Verma and Triandis (1999), it was found that Germany had the most horizontally individualist profile among the groups studied. Table 2 lists the theorists and theories that relate to cultural contingent leadership.

Table 2

Cultural Contingent Leadership Theorists and Theories

Theorist	Theory	Detail
Fiedler, 1967	Least preferred coworker (LPC): Leadership style and situational variables combine to create eight possible octants or classifications which impact leader effectiveness	Leadership Style: Task versus relationship Situational variables: Leader member relations, task structure, position power
Hofstede, 1980, 2001	National culture defined by five cultural dimensions which impact leadership of multinational groups	PDI, UAI, IDV, MAS, & LTO
Triandis, 1993	Emphasized the importance of Hofstede's UAI and IDV dimensions including four dimension of IDV	HI, VI, HC, & VC

Having identified the need for online economics distance education in developing countries and the advantages of a joint venture between universities in the United States and Germany, the focus of the remainder of this research will be on the cultural contingent leadership necessary to provide for the successful provision of this critically needed service.

Proposed Research in Cultural Contingent Leadership

Enough cultural variation between the United States and Germany existed (Hofstede, 1980; Kabanoff, 1997; Kuchinke, 1999; Schmidt, 2000; Szabo, et. al, 2002; Verma & Triandis,

1999; Zeitling, 2002) to justify research which examined the cultural values of higher education faculty who could potentially become involved in an international higher education joint venture to offer online programs to students in developing countries. Areas where the culture could have an especially important impact and thus are of concern for the leadership of such a group include employee selection, job design, employee evaluation and motivation, conflict resolution, training, and organizational commitment.

As a concrete example of how to use Hofstede's measured cultural values in developing a culturally contingent leadership model for a multinational faculty, a study by Hofstede (2001) of 154 managers from different countries discovered that the uncertainty avoidance index (UAI) was negatively correlated with Fiedler's measure of LPC. Hofstede found that in high UAI Germany, "task orientation among managers was an imperative rather than a variable" while "paradoxically, however, flexible working hours…had greater appeal in high-UAI than in low-UAI countries" (p. 168). In the workplace, a German employee expects detailed instruction in how to complete an assignment but wants enough flexibility to determine the hours in the day during which the task will be completed. In low UAI countries such as the US, flexible working hours have less appeal. In determining the leadership needed by a group of faculty members from the United States and Germany who would work in an international cooperative venture in higher education, a corroboration or even contradiction of Hofstede's cultural values by the proposed research would indicate the need for a leadership style that can accommodate the diverse aspects of work scheduling preferred by these two groups.

Statement of the Problem

Given the proliferation of higher education international cooperative ventures and the lack of research on the requirements of leading small multinational teams (Davis & Bryant, 2003; Early & Gibson, 2002; Ilgen, Lepine, & Hollenbeck, 1997; Prieto & Arias, 1997), research is needed to examine the cultural values held by faculties in specific academic disciplines and countries. Knowledge of the cultural values will allow for the development of a cultural contingent leadership model developed with a methodology that may have universal application to higher education international cooperative ventures, allowing the universities involved to find leaders who match the attributes necessary for leadership in the particular cultural environment and with the various situational variables.

Significance of the Study

The research conducted led to the discovery of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) five dimensions of culture for the economics faculties at the Carnegie classification *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive) universities (Carnegie Foundation Web site, n. d.) and the comparable German institutions of higher education, *Fachhochschulen* (*Deutscher Bildungs Server*, n. d.; *Hochschulen in Deutschland*, n. d.). The resultant findings served as an indication of whether Hofstede's original values were appropriate, as maintained by Hofstede and Peterson (2000), to be used as cultural index values in Triandis' (1993) approach of modifying the leadership strategy based upon prior research of how culture affects leadership (Dorfman, 1996; Goezler, 2003; Hofstede, 1980 & 2001; Hofstede, et al., 1998; Kuchinke, 1999; Newman & Nollen, 1996) or whether original research will need to be conducted to discover the appropriate

indices values to be used for each combination of higher education faculty involved in a multinational higher education joint venture. The correlation of the number of years in the economics profession to the index value power distance (PDI) was also examined as Hofstede (2001) maintained that outside of nationality, occupation was the primary influence on culture. Once discovered, the indices values discovered affected the choice of appropriate leadership strategies to be followed.

Research Questions

The following are the research questions that guided this study. An understanding of the relationship between culture and leadership in international higher education joint ventures was fostered through the answering of these questions.

1. To what extent are the cultural values obtained from a sample of professors in the academic field of economics who teach at 86 Carnegie classification *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive) universities similar to the five cultural dimensions that Hofstede (1980, 2001) identified for the United States?

2. To what extent are the cultural values obtained from a sample of professors in the academic field of economics who teach at approximately 90 German *Fachhochschulen* (universities of applied sciences) similar to the five cultural dimensions that Hofstede (1980, 2001) identified for Germany?

3. To what extent are the cultural values obtained from samples of U.S. and German professors who teach in the academic field of economics similar in the index values found in the

five cultural dimensions identified by Hofstede (1980, 2001) for his original sample from the US and Germany?

4. To what extent does the number of years of socialization in the economics profession affect the values for power distance which Hofstede (1980) identified as being related to occupation?

Methodology

Population and Participant Selection

Hofstede's 1994 version of the Values Survey Module, VSM 94 (Hofstede, 1994) instrument (see Appendix A for permission statement) in both English (Appendix B) and German (Appendix C) was utilized in an online questionnaire of economics faculty at higher education institutions in the United States Germany. The results of the questionnaire were compared to Hofstede's cultural values for the United States and Germany. The values found were used to develop cultural contingent leadership strategies based on theories by Fiedler (1967) and Triandis (1993) that could be used with small teams of faculty who are collaborating in an online international higher education joint venture.

Within the classification of *Fachhochschulen* there are approximately 130 institutions (Glossary on the Education System in the Federal Republic of Germany, n. d.; *Hochschulen in Deutschland,* n. d.). In the Carnegie classification (Carnegie Foundation Web site, n. d.), there are a total of 86 U.S. institutions. Hofstede (2001) recommended at least a sample size of between 20 and 50 individual respondents per country. The actual number of respondents in this research was sufficient to meet Hofstede's minimum recommended sample size. The initial

sample was also large enough to generate the recommended number of respondents who answered question number 26 of Hofstede's instrument, "What was your nationality at birth?" with U.S. for the faculty from the U.S. sample and German for the German faculty.

A multiple contact strategy as advocated by Dillman (2000) was followed. Initially, an email was sent to the sample of professors informing them of their selection to be included in a study which attempts to design a model for leadership of higher education international joint ventures in the field of economics. This was followed by an email including additional details and a link to password protected online survey. For those professors who did not initially participate in the survey research, a letter was sent requesting their participation and directing them to the online questionnaire.

Instrumentation

The instrument used in this research was Hofstede's (1994) Values Survey Module, VSM 94, in both English (Appendix B) and German (Appendix C). The VSM 94 was developed by Hofstede as a derivative of his earlier instruments, including that which was used in his original research.

The VSM 94 is a 26-item questionnaire including 20 content questions and six demographic questions. The six demographic questions indicate both the nationality and place of birth of the faculty members as well as gender and age. A question concerning the number of years the faculty members have worked in the field of economics was also included in the questionnaire as Hofstede (2001) indicated that other than nationality, occupation had the strongest correlation with culture.

The 20 content questions are on a Likert-stye scale ranging from "of utmost importance (1)" to "of very little or no importance (5)." Hofstede's instrument has been subjected to numerous tests of reliability and validity with studies consistently illustrating both reliability (Kogut & Singh, 1988; Newman & Nolan, 1996) and validity (Søndergaard, 1994). The test-retest method was used by Hofstede in developing his questionnaire, using only questions showing at least a 0.5 correlation between the initial 116,000 IBM employees and the same employees four years later with 88,000 surveys returned (Hofstede, 2001). On the topic of reliability,

> The reliability of a cross-country test can be tested only across countries…the reliability of an instrument is implicitly tested through its proven validity. An unreliable test cannot produce valid results, so if validity is proven, reliability can be assumed. Validity is shown through significant correlations of test results with outside criteria related to the test scores by some kind of theory or logic. In this way the reliability of the VSM, even for small numbers of countries, can be proven indirectly. (Hofstede, p. 497)

Data Analysis

In evaluating the research, Hofstede (1994) provided a methodology for computing scales for the five cultural dimensions which includes weighing specific item means and adding constants to arrive at figures which can be compared to the original research (Appendix H). The questions are divided into five groups. Four groups included four questions with the long-term orientation using two questions to calculate the LTO index. Each group represented one of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) cultural value dimensions. The mean values found for the answers to the questions are to be entered into a formula developed for each of the cultural dimensions in order to create an index. For instance, for the cultural dimension of individualism and collectivism (IDV), the formula to create the IDV index is: IDV = –50m(01) +30m(02) +20m(04) –25m(08)

+130, with (01) representing the mean value for all the answers to question number 1 (Hofstede, 1994). Thus for the entire German economic professor sample, for example, only one index number was generated for the cultural dimension of individualism and collectivism.

Hofstede (2001) was emphatic in maintaining that the instrument cannot be used to measure culture on an individual basis. "Statements about someone's personality and predictions of a person's functioning based on answers on these questions have such a large error margin as to be worthless, as well as unethical" (p. 65). "As has been shown by many authors…the pattern of correlations at the national (or organizational or group) level is not replicated at the individual level" (Bond, 2002, p. 4). In order to use the more advanced statistical analyses associated with analysis of variance (ANOVA) or multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), a sample taken from individuals across 15 countries or more is recommended. Hofstede's (1980) analysis examined a minimum of 40 countries. This research examined a sample of only two countries. In evaluating over 60 replications of Hofstede's (1980) work, two countries was the number of countries that Søndergaard (1994) found statistically likely to represent the trend of a larger sample. It was unfeasible, however, to use statistical analysis beyond descriptive statistics, correlation matrices, and *t*-tests in order to compare the five indices as this data was generated from only two countries. The instrument was developed for analysis at the country level. As noted earlier, using the instrument to conduct analysis at the individual level is inappropriate.

Thus descriptive statistics, correlation matrices, and single-sample and independent samples *t*-tests were used to determine the differences in matched samples between Hofstede's (1980, 2001) established values for cultural dimensions the US and Germany and those discovered through the proposed research (Table 3). Comparisons were made between the differences in Hofstede's calculated original values for the US and Germany, adjusted for

education levels, and those of the sampled economics faculty from the US and Germany, as well as between the two faculties. The values were to indicate whether there was a difference not only between Hofstede's calculated values and the respective faculties from each country but also between the two faculties who are in the same academic field but from different countries (matched samples). The results, combined with prior research on leadership strategies, indicate the appropriate strategy in many aspects of contingent leadership which should be followed in leading a team of multinational economic faculty in an online higher educational program offered to developing countries or similar joint venture.

Organization of the Study

This dissertation was presented in five chapters. Chapter 1 consists of an introduction to the problem associated with a lack of research on leadership of multinational faculties involved in an online collaboration, especially given the growth and proliferation of international offerings of U.S. universities. Research hypotheses were outlined in this chapter.

Chapter 2 is a literature review of the importance of culture as a contingent factor in leadership. Analysis of the theories establishing the relevance and importance of cultural values were conducted and this was related to the theoretical foundations of contingency theory and how other studies have found culture to be a contingent factor in developing leadership strategies.

Chapter 3 covers methodology. It includes a discussion of the population sampled, the instrument, and the instrument's reliability and validity. The methodology of the collection and analysis of the data is presented.

Chapter 4 is an analysis of the data, examining the results of the study in light of the research questions and hypotheses. Finally, Chapter 5 links the literature review with results of the research, using the findings of the proposed research to develop a body of recommendations of culturally contingent leadership strategies to be followed in leading a multinational team of faculty from the US and Germany who are engaged in an online collaboration to bring a course of study in economics to students in developing countries.

Table 3

Research Questions, Data Sources, and Statistical Treatment to Be Used in Dissertation

Research Questions	Data Source	Statistical Treatment
1. To what extent are the cultural values obtained from a sample of professors in the academic field of economics who teach at 86 Carnegie classification *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive) universities similar to the five cultural dimensions that Hofstede (1980, 2001) identified for the United States?	VSM 94 Online Questionnaire in English, Questions 1-20 (Appendix B)	One-Sample *t* Test
2. To what extent are the cultural values obtained from a sample of professors in the academic field of economics who teach at approximately 90 German *Fachhochschulen* (universities of applied sciences) similar to the five cultural dimensions that Hofstede (1980, 2001) identified for Germany?	VSM 94 Online Questionnaire in German Questions 1-20 (Appendix C)	One-Sample *t* Test
3. To what extent are the cultural values obtained from samples of U.S. and German professors who teach in the academic field of economics similar to the five cultural dimensions identified by Hofstede (1980, 2001) for the US and Germany?	a. VSM 94 Online Questionnaire in English, Questions 1-20 (Appendix B) b. VSM 94 Online Questionnaire in German, Questions 1-20 (Appendix C)	a. Independent-Samples *t* Test b. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient
4. To what extent does the number of years of socialization in the economics profession affect the values for power distance which Hofstede (1980) identified as being related to occupation?	a. VSM 94 Online Questionnaire in English, Questions 1-20, 24 (Appendix B) b. VSM 94 Online Questionnaire in German Questions 1-20, 24 (Appendix C)	Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of how values affect culture and how culture can be a contingent factor in leading a multinational joint venture consisting of individuals drawn predominately from the United States and Germany. The theoretical foundation used to guide this overview was the model of cultural contingency proposed by Triandis (1993) which was based upon the work on leadership contingency theory by Fiedler (1967) and Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions. This model was not premised on applicability to a particular industry. This overview presupposed that the particular industry and nationalities of participants would be additional contingencies that could be factored into the model. Thus, the concept of finding the right person to lead a culturally diverse international joint venture is universally valid whether the problem concerns a joint venture between a German firm and a Japanese firm in the auto industry in an effort to develop an automotive fuel cell in China or a U.S. university and a German university participating in a joint venture to offer online economics education courses in a developing country,

This literature review is divided into four sections. First, the concept of values, the key to the connection between Fielder's (1967) LPC model and Hofstede's (1980, 2001) cultural dimensions, was explored. Next, culture and leadership were defined and the connection between culture and Fiedler's contingent leadership theory was demonstrated. Next, the theoretical and demonstrated relationships in the literature on culture as a contingent leadership factor were

reviewed. The last section dealt with the applications of the cultural contingent leadership theory to an international joint venture of nationals from the United States and Germany.

This chapter attempted to define and illustrate the importance of Triandis' (1993) model of culturally contingent leadership, concentrating on one level of cultural diversity, that of a U.S. and German international joint venture. It was not an attempt to provide the history of the subject of leadership nor did it attempt to qualify cultural contingency to one industry or provide a comprehensive review of studies linking culture to contingency leadership.

The Salience of Values to Culture and Leadership

Values

Triandis (1993) divided the study of leadership into the period before Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory and the period after the introduction of this theory, from the late 1960s to the present (Chemers, 1995). Several contingency theories have been proposed and tested since Fiedler's original contingency theory. Some of these are the Normative Decision Theory, Path Goal Theory, and Situational Leadership. Fiedler's theory differs from other contingency theories in that "The normative model assumes that leaders can quickly and easily change their behavior to fit the demands of the situation, while Fiedler sees leadership style arising out of stable, enduring, well-learned personality attributes which are quite difficult to change" (Chemers, p. 89). After reviewing almost 70 studies involving Fiedler's LPC, Rice (1978) concluded that the LPC was a values orientation and was "a measure of attitudes that reflect basic differences in the values of persons scoring high or low on the scale" (p. 1215).

As did Fiedler (1967), Hofstede (1980, 2001) understood that values played the critical role in his dimensions of culture. Culture, as defined by Hofstede (2001), referred to national culture and is the "collective programming of the mind; it manifests itself not only in values but in more superficial ways: in symbols, heroes, and rituals" (p. 1). By values, Hofstede borrowed from Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) and used a simplified description which described values as "a broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others" (p. 5). This is in line with Rokeach's (1973) definition which also implied that values consisted of enduring beliefs that were established early in life and emphasized preference for some results versus others. Rokeach felt that the number of values that a person had was relatively small and that people everywhere had basically the same values just to different degrees. Values are subjective and thus do not have to be rational although one may feel that one's own values are perfectly rational and those of another are irrational (Hofstede, 2001). Values also have polar opposites, e.g., good versus evil and decent versus indecent.

Thus both Fiedler's (1967) LPC leadership model and Hofstede's (1980, 2001) cultural dimensions were based on the concept of values. Smith (1997) contended that most of the substantial advances in cross-cultural research have come in the area of values and found that many doubt the ability of values to predict so many variations in behavior. However, they consistently can be relied upon to do so. Smith contended that values can be expressed in more abstract terms than attitudes and behaviors, thus making them more comparable across nationalities.

Value systems are the collection of values one holds; these may be in harmony or in conflict and according to Schwartz and Bilsky (1987), are cognitive representations of human biological needs, need for social motives, and social institutional demands. Schwartz (1992)

collected information on the values of almost 25,000 teachers and college students and found that values can be broken into 10 clusters. These include power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, and security. Values, according to Schwartz and Sagiv (1995), are "desirable goals, varying in importance, that serve as the guiding principles in people's lives" (p. 93).

Schwartz and Bilsky (1987), using survey research, asked respondents to rank a list of values in order of importance according to their significance as "guiding principles in their life" (p. 555). Hofstede (2001) also accepted values as guiding principles but not predictors of action and warned that "Values should never be equated with deeds, for the simple reason that behavior depends on both the person and the situation" (p. 7). Hofstede instead preferred a method, which he admitted is too seldom used, that requires respondents to describe others. This recognized that our values affect the way we see others. Hofstede cited the work of Fiedler (1967) in his development of the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) questionnaire as an example of this method. In this questionnaire, a respondent is asked to describe a person with whom he or she can work least well. This method realized that most people are probably better at describing others than at describing themselves, especially in a critical situation where they will "easily describe others under crisis circumstances" (Hofstede, p. 9). This methodology was used specifically in the design of Hofstede's questionnaire describing power distance where the respondent is asked about one's boss and colleagues.

Values are the basis for Hofstede's cultural dimensions and Fiedler's contingency model. An understanding of values is thus critical in understanding how culture is a contingent factor in a multicultural leadership environment.

Culture

Raymond Williams was one of Great Britain's eminent cultural historians. In his 1985 book, *Keywords*: *A Vocabulary of Culture and Society*, he wrote that culture "is one of the two or three most complicated words in the English language" (p. 87). To illustrate the complexity of the concept of culture, Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) discovered over 160 definitions of culture. According to Child (1981) anthropologists who were the first to develop the concept, referred to it as being the "complex system which is all embracing of a society's *folkways*" (p. 323). The definition of culture varies depending upon who is defining the concept. Callaway-Thomas (1999) defined culture as the "composite set of patterns of behavior, language, mores, history, philosophy, values, belief structures, and religion that guide the day-to-day relations between inhabitants of a given community" (p. 34). Triandis (1993) defined culture as the "institutional memory of what has worked in the past, what was adaptive; these memories are widely shared, and become unstated assumptions about what is right or wrong, and about how people should think, feel, and behave" (p. 171). Fiske (2002) viewed culture as "a socially transmitted or socially constructed constellation consisting of such things as practices, competencies, ideas, schemas, symbols, values, norms, institutions, goals, constitutive rules, artifacts, and modifications of the physical environment" (p. 85). Hofstede (1995) identified culture as a construct in that it was:

> Not directly accessible to observation but inferable from verbal statements and other behaviors and useful in predicting still other observable and measurable verbal and nonverbal behavior. It should not be reified; it is an auxiliary concept that should be used as long as it proves useful but bypassed where we can predict behavior without it. (p. 265)

In their "Typologies of Culture," Chanchani and Theivanathampillai (2002) cited the works of Hofstede, Triandis, Fiske, and Trompenaars as the modern seminal works on the subject of culture. They rated the cultural treatment by these researchers in terms of simplicity, applicability to multiple research methods, and the ability to use the concepts to understand cultural change. Their definition of simplicity was that "Cultural classifications should synthesize rich, complex constructs into a small number of easily understandable, simple concepts. Simplicity in both substance and form should not however compromise analytic rigour and richness of the schema" (p. 3).

Typology of Culture: Hofstede

Hofstede was credited by Chanchani and Theivanathampillai (2002) as having been the first to have provided a "coherent framework for classifying different cultures" (p. 8). Hofstede's dimensions of individualism and collectivism (IDV), large versus small power distance (PDI), strong versus weak uncertainty avoidance (UAI), masculinity and femininity (MAS), and long-term orientation (LTO) provide useful and very user-friendly constructs which were easy to understand and work with by both the academic and business community. The dimensions are, however, a snapshot of culture at a particular point in time and unwieldy for measuring cultural change over time. The values are not necessarily applicable to different populations as they were calculated using a group of employees at a single company.

Hofstede's (1980) original survey research on employee values was completed between 1967 and 1980 for the multinational firm IBM and included 116,000 respondents from 72 countries. The four dimensions were corroborated through factor analysis and a fifth dimension, long-term versus short-term orientation (LTO), was added in the late 1980s. The initial

instrument was refined over several administrations with only those questions retained for which country ratios remained stable over time. Given the hierarchy at IBM during this time, which limited advancement based upon seniority and to a certain extent gender, once Hofstede controlled for occupation, gender and age varied only marginally.

As defined earlier, the power distance dimension (PDI) to Hofstede (1980) represented the basic fact that the human species belongs to a category where dominant behavior is exhibited and how the dominance is determined in each society is an aspect of culture. Some cultures have formalized systems or have informal systems which emphasize or deemphasize the fact. In the organizational exercise of power, leadership is a complement to *subordinateship.* The way the relationship plays itself out within an organization is related to both the national and organizational culture of the leader-subordinate relationship. Hofstede found that higher PDI values were associated with lower levels of education, authoritarian values, conformity, tradition, older leaders, and negative associations with power and wealth. Countries that were low in PDI also had a more participative leadership style.

Triandis (1993) cited Hofstede's (1980) own research on the large negative correlation coefficient (r = -.68) between the Individualism Index and the Power Distance Index to discount power distance as a separate dimension. Triandis maintained that cultures that are high in individualism will have low power distance and countries that are high in collectivism will have high power distance. Hofstede (2001) countered with the observation that controlling for national wealth (GNP/capita) reduces the correlation coefficient to an "only marginally significant r = .32" (p. 216).

The uncertainty avoidance dimension (UAI), according to Hofstede (1980), dealt with the methods, institutions, traditions, and rituals that cultures have developed to come to terms with

an indeterminate future. Hofstede did not feel that uncertainty avoidance and risk avoidance were similar concepts as his dimension of uncertainty avoidance related to an anxiety that was not related to a specific risk while risk avoidance deals with a specific threat. Uncertainty is relative to the individual. One individual may face the same set of circumstances but look to the future with optimism while another may face the same set of circumstances and feel anxiety. Hofstede found that countries with high UAI depended more on rules and regulations, felt more stress on the job, felt restlessness and the accompanying need to feel productive, were more expressive of emotions, need clarity and structure, respected and feared older people, had less subjective well-being, and depended more on experts.

Hofstede (1980) called his third dimension individualism and collectivism (IDV). To Hofstede, this dimension was about the level of *gregariousness* of a society. It describes the individual's relationship to family as well as to educational, religious, and political institutions. The concept is very much related to societal norms or the value systems of major groups in the population and as such often carries strong moral connotations. In societies that value collectivism, individual interests are often seen as selfish pursuits; with individualistic groups the tyranny of the majority is seen as a negative. Hofstede takes a controversial stand (Bond, 2002; Triandis, 1993) on the issue of whether individualism and collectivism are opposite ends of a spectrum with "…at the societal level, individualism and collectivism should be treated as opposite poles of one dimension…" (Bond, p. 216). Hofstede (1980) saw that values associated with high IDV were associated with the importance of personal time, enjoyment in life, low-context communication, individual financial security, and hedonism. There was also a strong correlation with the level of country wealth, with higher levels of individualism being associated with higher levels of country Gross Domestic Product.

Maculinity versus femininity (MAS), the last of Hofstede's (1980) original four dimensions, deals with the roles that men and women will fulfill in society. Women have the physiological capacity to bear children, and this gives them a defining role in society as the dominant nurturing source. Outside of this function, how the distribution of labor is determined is a function of culture (Hofstede) with the male generally fulfilling the functions that are related to the need to assert, whether it be over nature, other societies, etc. Hofstede found that countries high in MAS value the roles of women and men very differently, find work to be very central to a person's definition of self, value independence, and have a greater need for achievement.

While there have been many validations of Hofstede's (1980) original dimensions (Søndergaard, 1994), in the most ambitious replication of Hofstede's (1980) IBM study, Hoppe (1990) used 1,600 respondents from 19 countries in a dissertation and found that the values of his respondents correlated significantly with that of Hofstede's original dimensions (Table 4).

Table 4

Comparison of Hofstede's (2001) and Hoppe's (1990) Cultural Dimension Index Values

Dimension	Hofstede's Original IBM Index values			Hoppe's Replication of Elites Index Values		
	US	Germany	Difference	US	Germany	Difference
Power Distance (PDI)	40 (8)	35(10)	5	3(14)	8(10)	-5
Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)	46(14)	65 (9)	-19	16(15)	37 (7)	-19
Individualism (IDV)	91 (1)	67(12)	24	90 (2)	62(14)	38
Masculinity & Femininity (MAS)	62 (7)	66 (5)	4	42 (1)	-2(12)	44
Long Term Orientation (LTO)	29	31	-2			

Note. Long Term Orientation (LTO) was not in use when Hoppe's (1990) study was published.

The relative differences seen between corresponding dimensions also remained constant. This is the important point of comparison as the two samples were very different as far as demographics were concerned. While Hoppe's *elites* were leaders from academia, business, and government, the IBM cohort was generally drawn from the middle class of the corresponding countries. That the relative difference between cultural dimensions of respondents varied with nationality added to the construct validity of Hofstede's dimensions, or that they are truly a means of measuring cultural differences. Hofstede (2001) found Hoppe's study "The most professional replication so far" (p. 66). Table 4 illustrates a ranked comparison of the countries in Hofstede's and Hoppe's studies, with the rankings very similar in all but power distance for the US (8^{th} and 14^{th}, respectively) and masculinity versus femininity for both the US and Germany (7^{th} versus 1^{st} for the US and 5^{th} versus 12^{th} for Germany).

Hofstede (2001) cited five common criticisms to the four original dimensions of culture that he postulated. These included the mode of his research (questionnaire surveys), measurement of culture at the national level, use of the employees of the subsidiaries of only one company to try to measure national culture, age of the data set, and that four (or even five) dimensions of culture are insufficient to measure the diversity that exists in culture. Hofstede cites the overwhelming support of his findings through numerous studies including analysis by Søndergaard (1994) of 62 replications of Hofstede's work which found, "By and large, Hofstede's findings were confirmed in the reviewed replication studies once some modifications with respect to the perception of environment at the time of the research and known characteristics had been made" (p. 452).

The greatest criticism of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) work has been focused on the recently developed long-term orientation dimension. Bond designed the Chinese Value Survey (CVS) in

response to discussions with Hofstede. The CVS was used in research on 100 students from each of 23 countries. The object of the survey was to attempt to capture a dimension that was particularly emphasized in Asia but would also be recognized in the West. The dimension that was discovered dealt with the individual's expected social behavior with respect to elders, the family, and the group which may be summarized by the word *tradition*. The other aspect of this dimension was *thrift*. Hofstede's (2001) definition of the long-term orientation is as follows:

> Long-Term Orientation stands for the fostering of virtues oriented towards future rewards, in particular, perseverance and thrift. Its opposite pole, Short-Term Orientation stands for the fostering of virtues related to the past and present, in particular, respect for tradition, preservation of 'face' and fulfilling social obligations. (p. 359)

Hofstede and Bond (1988) found the correlation between the IBM studies and Bond's Chinese Value Survey were "remarkable" given that different questionnaires were used and the countries were only partially the same (p. 16). This last dimension has been found to also correlate with economic growth in all of the twenty-two countries used in the study between the years of 1965 to 1985.

Fang (2003) commented that the long term orientation dimension (LTO) "does not seem to have been received enthusiastically by the cross cultural research community since it was launched in 1991" (p. 350). He found that the dimension did not have the same relationship to the other dimension as it was generated using students. It also has a philosophical flaw namely that tradition and thrift are not opposite ends of a spectrum but, especially for the Chinese, are closely interrelated.

Typology of Culture: Triandis

Triandis (1993) divided culture into *syndromes* that apply to all cultures. A syndrome reflects "attitudes, beliefs, norms, roles, self-definitions, and values that contrast two types of

cultures" (p. 170). The syndromes include cultural complexity which relates to the number of distinctions people make among objects in their environment. The history of a society as well the number of occupations are two of the determinates of a syndrome. Triandis also differentiated between tight and loose cultures. Tight cultures have clear norms which carry social sanctions should they be violated. Cultural heterogeneity is a major determinant with a great deal of diversity leading to looser cultures. Finally, there is the syndrome of individualism and collectivism in which the relationship to in-groups is the major factor. Outside of the family, individualists may be cordial but not intimate with a wide-range of people. Collectivists have in-groups outside of the family and are concerned about how their actions affect members of the in-group. When the goals of the individual and the group are compatible, this is an indication of collectivism (Schwartz, 1990; Triandis, 1995)

Triandis (1993, 1998) placed particular emphasis on the importance of the individualism and collectivism dimension (along with uncertainty avoidance). "The major worry of the collectivist is that they might be ostracized (by the in-group). The major worry of the individualist is that they might become dependent upon others" (Triandis, 1993, p. 173). He proposed that individualism and collectivism were more than just the bookends of a spectrum but rather *polythetic constructs*. "As in zoology, in which, for instance, a 'bird' is defined by two attributes (e.g., feathers and wings) and hundreds of species of birds are defined by other attributes, individualism and collectivism may be defined by four attributes and different species of these constructs (e.g., Korean and Japanese collectivism) can be defined by additional attributes" (p. 118).

According to Triandis (1995), the attributes of individualism and collectivism produce four classifications including horizontal individualism (HI), vertical individualism (VI),

horizontal collectivism (HC), and vertical collectivism (VC). In cultures typified by HI, people are inclined to be individualistic but are reluctant to want to stand out or have high status. In VI, people are very competitive and strive to be in the lead, to acquire status, to win. In HC, people see themselves as very integrated with their in-group but are reluctant to submit completely to authority. This can be seen as similar to the relationship of the individual to a Native American Indian tribe where the elders make recommendations that are generally followed by other members of the tribe given the perceived wisdom of the elders. In VC, people emphasize the importance of the in-group, are willing to make sacrifices for the in-group, and are competitive only with entities outside of the in-group.

The primary advantage of expanding the individualist versus collectivist construct is that it allows more specific and consistent definitions (Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, & Gelfand, 1995). Triandis and Bhawuk (1997) contended that the HI construct applied to Sweden and Australia. According to Daun (1991), although the Swedes are seen as being very socialistic and dependent upon the collective as a whole (nation), they are very reluctant to be dependent on other individuals. The socialist aspect of the Swedish culture led to their being recognized as collectivist. The collectivist dimension alone does not, however, recognize the individualistic aspect of the Swedes, thus the HI construct. Triandis (1995) further used the example of an Israeli Kibbutz to illustrate the HC construct and China as well as India to typify the VC dimension. Finally, Triandis used France and corporate relationships in the US to help define the VI construct.

Typology of Culture: Fiske

Triandis (1998) felt that his four-way typology also had much in common with Fiske's (1992) examination of cultural patterns. Fiske, using five different cultures, 19 experiments, and multiple methodologies, hypothesized that all cultures use just four mental models including communal sharing (CS), authority ranking (AR), equality matching (EM) and market pricing (MP). According to Triandis and Bhawuk (1997), in CS, relationships are long-term and members take what they need from the group without an effort to keep track of the exchange. The consensus model is used in decision making. Using the mental model of AR, resources are divided according to rank. With MP, individuals are rewarded based upon effort and are defined by occupation. Finally, with EM, the emphasis in the culture is on reciprocity and fairness. Triandis compared collectivism to communal sharing with vertical aspects (authority ranking) and horizontal relationships (equality matching) and individualism (market pricing). In a concrete effort to relate individualism and collectivism to Fiske's typology, Triandis equated horizontal individualism (HI) to a combination of market pricing and equality matching; horizontal collectivism (HC) is made up of communal sharing and equality matching; vertical collectivism (VC) consists of communal sharing (CS) and authority ranking (AR); and finally, vertical individualism (VI) consisted of market pricing (MP) and authority ranking (AR).

Chanchani and Theivanathampillai (2002) classification viewed the Triandis syndrome construct as rather undefined and vague while viewing Fiske's work as low on simplicity and lacking an instrument to measure the construct. Fiske's constructs are high on the scale of being useful for adapting to cultural change and the ability to transcend various levels of analysis. Unlike Hofstede's index values, both the Triandis and Fiske typologies lack a formal means of measurement of the constructs. Chanchani and Theivanathampillai felt that should a

measurement system for the Triandis syndromes be developed, they could possibly be used as a rich measure of comparative culture. Of the four typologies, they do recommend the Triandis approach, "Specifically, should a researcher wish to study the culture of a group with particular reference to historical development and interpretation, Triandis' syndromes are likely to provide a deeper perspective" (p. 15).

Typology of Culture: Trompenaars

The final typology discussed in Chanchani and Theivanathampillai (2002) is that of Trompenaars. Trompenaars surveyed 15,000 executives in numerous countries, asking respondents, for instance, questions such as what they would do if asked by a friend to lie to authorities in order for the friend to escape punishment for a traffic violation. Overall, his methodology was based on a view that culture determines how groups will solve problems in the areas of relationships with others, time, and the environment. Trompenaars' developed seven dimensions of culture, five of which are the same as the *pattern variables* of Parsons and Shils (1951). Parson and Shils define pattern variables as those that are a dichotomy, one of which must be selected before meaning can be given to a situation. The five that are incorporated into Trompenaars' dimensions are affectivity versus affective neutrality or whether members of a culture show emotions or do not; self-orientation versus collective-orientation which is similar to the individualism and collectivism of Hofstede (1980) including Hofstede's interpretation that a society is either collective or individualistic with none of Triandis' qualifications of horizontal versus vertical; universalism versus particularism where members of a culture either interpret rules strictly or make it dependent upon the situation and who is involved; ascription versus achievement where status is based on age or class, for instance, versus actual achievement; and

specificity versus diffuseness which compares communication that is explicit to communication that requires information about the context. To these, Trompenaars adds attitude to time, also mentioned by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), dealing with the concept of whether time was felt to be either linear or flexible, intermixing past, present, and the future; and attitude to the environment and whether man can control the environment or is part of it.

Chanchani & Theivanathampillai (2002) faulted Trompenaars' dimensions in its attempt to address both organizational and national culture, often confusing the two. Some aspects of the dimensions such as environment and time are easy to apply, but originality is lacking given the borrowing from Parsons and Shils (1951) and Kluckhohn and Strodteck (1961). His dimensions also do not have the measurement adaptability of Hofstede's dimensions.

The Chanchani & Theivanathampillai (2002) analysis of the typologies of culture provide an effective way of comparing and contrasting the works of the most prominent cultural researchers. As three out of the four aforementioned researchers make reference to the effect of occupation on culture (Hofstede's power distance, Triandis' syndromes, and Fisk's market pricing). A further discussion of the relationship of occupation to culture is warranted.

The Role of Occupational Culture

Hofstede (1980) discovered that other than culture, no variable accounted for more variance among his cultural dimensions than occupation. Prieto (1997) attributed survival in ancient times to the ability of people to work together. He believed that occupation has played one of the most important roles in determining culture. Occupation, however, has not shown itself to be a predictor of specific cultural values because "occupational culture consists of common practices, commonly understood symbols, and learned rituals, rather than shared

values" (p. 436). Hofstede, however, found that the Power Distance Index (PDI) varied the same way across occupations as it did across countries. Hofstede (2001) interpreted this to mean that one could use the type of occupation to gauge the level of power distance among its practitioners. This is not surprising given Holland's (1997) theory that occupational choice is an expression of personality. Wenger (1998) in *Communities of Practice* found that practitioners of a profession are like the mountain and the river in that "They shape each other, but they have their own shape" (p. 71).

Hofstede (2001) singled out the accounting profession for particular emphasis given that it is "the language of business and it is the handling of *symbols* that have meaning to the initiated in business only…Accounting systems in organizations can also be considered uncertainty-reducing *rituals*, fulfilling a cultural need for certainty, simplicity, and truth in a confusing world" (p. 382). Baker (1976) found, using Rokeach's (1973) Survey of Values, that students who were majoring in accounting illustrated statistically significant differences from other students in certain values. Positive correlations were found with the values of "comfortable life" and "responsible" and negative correlations with "a world of beauty" and "imaginative." In large power distance societies, accounting will be used as a tool to maintain power over those not initiated into the symbology and ritual of accounting. In countries that rank high in uncertainty avoidance, there will be less room for interpretation. In countries with a high masculinity index, there will be more emphasis on achieving purely financial objectives versus the role that business could play in achieving the goals of society (Hofstede).

As Hofstede (2001) did with the accounting profession, the economics profession can be singled out for either attracting particular personalities to the profession or shaping those who practice the profession:

> People trained in economics think in a certain way. They analyze everything critically; they compare the costs and the benefits of every issue and make decisions based on those costs and benefits…Economic reasoning, once learned is infectious. If you're susceptible, being exposed to it will change your life. (Colander, 2004, pp. 5-6)

Thus Hofstede's (1980) discovery that occupation was related to the cultural index PDI received, in effect, strong endorsement from Colander for those among the economics faculty in higher education.

Leadership

Values have been demonstrated to be an integral part of culture. Values also play a critical role in leadership (Rice, 1978). According to Bass (1990) "There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (p. 11). *Bass and Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership* (1990) applied the following definition:

> Leadership is an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perception and expectations of the members. Leaders are agents of change—persons whose acts affect other people more than other people's acts affect them. Leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivation or competencies of others in the group. (pp. 19-20).

The difficulty of defining leadership across cultures was illustrated when the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) study brought 54 researchers from 38 countries together in an attempt to define the narrow leadership category of organizational leadership (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002). After experiencing significant difficulties at arriving at a mutually acceptable definition, the definition finally arrived at was, "the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members" (p. 5).

Leadership in a global economy requires many of the same skills of managing at home, but developing the theory of global leadership has been a "nascent field of endeavor and has received much less attention than domestic leadership" (Morrison, 2000, p. 117). In some industries, the dearth of research in the field of comparative leadership has been especially noteworthy, including fields such as educational leadership where Cheng (1995) felt that "the cultural element is not only necessary but essential in the study of educational leadership" (p. 99). Hofstede (1995) generated significant controversy with his hypothesis that many leadership theories may or may not be valid outside of the United States including those based upon the works of Vroom, MacGregor, Likert, Blake and Mouton, among others.

Viewing the historical development of leadership theory, Chemers (1995) felt that leadership theory before Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory can be qualified as either trait theory or behavior theory. Researchers attempted to discover the best combination of traits and style that would apply to all situations. They were searching for universal or *etic* facets of leadership which could be applied to all situations as compared to *emic* or contingent leadership facets (Dickson, 2003). Stogdill (1948), in reviewing the evidence from over 100 research experiments, found no overwhelming evidence that there were a limited number of traits that leaders possessed. While in 15 or more of the reviewed studies he found that traits such as intelligence and responsibility were important attributes and in 10 or more of the studies he found initiative and persistence important, he concluded that "A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers" (p. 64). Perhaps this view is best summarized by another definition of leadership, that by James MacGregor Burns (1995):

> I define leadership as leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations—the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations—of both leaders and followers. And the genius of leadership lies in the manner in which leaders see and act on their own and their followers' values and motivations. (p. 100)

The period immediately preceding Fiedler's contingency theory was termed by Chemers (2000) as a period where leadership research was "Lost in the Wilderness" (p. 27). The development of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) at Ohio State led to factor analysis of responses by leaders in industry and the military which identified that two variables accounted for most of the variance in performance. These two variables were *Consideration* and *Initiation of Structure.* While the variables were very successful in predicting the ratings of leaders in many situations, it was not successful in the critical area of predicting leadership effectiveness (Chemers).

Even with Stogdill's comprehensive review of the research and conclusion that trait theory probably could not be used to find the factors responsible for effective leadership, it appears, at least initially, that Fiedler, in his early research, had not quite given up the search (Chemers, 1997). He found that therapists who were "psychologically distant" from their patients were less effective than those who were more "accepting," Fiedler subsequently conducted field trials using leaders ranging from symphony conductors to football coaches and developed from this research his Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) instrument (Chemers, p. 28). Fiedler's LPC asks the respondent to describe the individual that the person had the most difficulty with in getting a job done. The rating consists of 16 questions done on an eight-point bipolar scale, examples of which are inefficient or efficient and unfriendly or friendly. While a score of 73 and above is considered high (relationship oriented) and 63 and lower (task oriented), Shiflett (1981)

found the distinction between high and low LPC to be more of a normative concept rather than one dependent upon the absolute scores.

Fiedler found that leaders who did not become emotionally involved with their followers were more successful (Chemers, 1997). This correlated with his findings regarding psychologically distant therapists. After surmising, however, that distant leaders were more successful, other results began to indicate that the opposite was true. This led Fiedler to conclude that group performance must be based upon other variables outside of leadership and he amended his theory with the conclusion that the favorableness of the environment, or situational variables, including leader member relations, task structure, and position power, when combined with leadership, were the variables that needed to be considered in every leadership situation (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). These three factors combine to form situational control which ranges from high to low. For instance, in a case where the relations with subordinates are good, the task is highly structured, and the leader has high position power, situational control is high. Leadership performance will be highest in this case for a leader who has a low LPC score (task-oriented). On the other hand, the high LPC leader (relationship-motivated leader), in the same or similar situation, may "become bored or distracted...the things that he or she is interested in, such as being liked by others are already attained, and the skills that are well developed, such as participative problem solving, are not really necessary" (Chemers, 1997, p. 37). In contrast to the foregoing case, when the situational control is somewhat nebulous, the task-motivated leader may try to improve structure without seeking group input, perhaps limiting creativity and reducing the likelihood of an optimal solution (Chemers).

The variables associated with the leadership styles and situational control combined to form a model with eight possible octants. According to Fiedler and Garcia (1987), low LPC

leaders perform better than their counterpart high LPC in high and low control situations (octants 1, 2, 3, & 8), and high LPC perform best in moderate control situations (octants 4, 5, & 6). It is noteworthy that the LPC value for a leader did not vary with many other values that would seem to be important, such as occupation (Fiedler & Chemers, 1984).

Notwithstanding the criticism that Fiedler's LPC was a blackbox and data in search of a hypothesis (Graen, Alvares, Orris, & Martella, 1970), overwhelming empirical support for the model was confirmed in meta-analyses by Strube & Garcia (1981) and Peters, Hartke, and Pohlmann (1985). Rice (1978) found the extremely negative comments of some reviewers "do not seem warranted" (p. 1202). In the Peters et al. analysis, they included effect size which was deemed necessary given the small sample sizes of many of the studies supporting Fiedler's model. The result of the research indicated that even accounting for effect size, the "results are impressive," corroborating seven out of the eight octants (p. 282). Furthermore, "They reflect a consistency of findings regarding a set of complex predictions based on research conducted over a two-decade period" (p. 282). In defense of the LPC, Fiedler and Garcia (1987) illustrated that the stability of the LPC was as good as the best personality tests and concluded that "it is difficult to see what is so controversial about the score at this time. There are very few social-psychological measures with higher internal consistency and test-retest reliability, and few for which there are more validity data available" (p. 79).

According to Fiedler & Chemers (1984), effective leadership required that one match the situation to the leader's particular leadership style. This can be translated to mean that if one is a particular type of leader (task or relationship oriented), the situation variables can be changed to create a Leader Match (LM) situation. The situation termed high control is one where the low LPC leader will flourish. A high control situation is one where there is a combination of

favorable variables such as one with a highly structured task and good leader member relations. Moderate control is one where the high LPC leader will perform best and the situation may consist of one where the task is unstructured, although the leader has good leader member relations or the task is structured but the leader member relations is poor. Finally, a low control situation may be one where the situation is unstructured, leader member relations are poor, and the leader may not have formal position power.

The most important situational variable, according to Fiedler and Chemers (1984) is leader member relations. Good relations with the group will create high or at worst a condition of moderate control. This variable consists of the support a leader gets from the group and the relations among group members. Indicators of leader member relations are whether the group strives to make the leader successful and whether they include the leader in their *in-group*. Fiedler and Chemers warn that "in cases of intra-group conflict, whether caused by personality clashes or by differences in values, background, or language, leader member relations are difficult to handle" (p. 60). By mentioning values and background, Fiedler and Chemers are predominately referring to culture.

The second variable in the situation is the task structure. If the task structure can be distilled into step-by-step procedures, if there is only a certain way to do the job, and if it is easy to ascertain whether the job was completed correctly, the task structure lends itself to a situation of high control. If the leader is in a situation of leading members in a research effort or in creating a multinational joint venture to provide online learning to students in a developing country, the situation is probably one leading to low situation control. Leader experience is also a variable that affects task structure as a more experienced leader can reduce the uncertainty associated with accomplishing the task, making the task look like one that is more controllable.

Bryman, Bresnen, Ford, Beardsworth, and Keil (1987) discovered that the duration of the task affected the success of the type of leader. Correlating the type of leader to the duration of 39 construction projects, it was found that task oriented leaders were more successful with projects that had a relatively short duration and relationship oriented leaders were more successful with long term projects (longer than 2 years).

Finally, the last variable to be considered in situational control is that of position power. To a large extent, position power is a function of whether the leader is in a position that has been assigned a title which includes certain rights, privileges, and obligations (Fiedler & Chemers, 1984). The more defined the position is in this respect, the higher the situation control will be. Naturally, even with well-defined authority, it will be within the prerogative of the followers as to whether they will fully follow the direction of the leader, either going *beyond the call of duty*, just fulfilling the requirements of the job, or even sabotaging the efforts of the leader. Military rank grant leaders evident position power. Being the chair of a department in an institution of higher education is a situation of relative stability but one of low control as "faculty members typically do not sit quietly awaiting your next directive, nor do they usually respond quickly to suggestions for changing their teaching goals or research priorities" (Gmelch & Miskin, 2004, p. 106). It is interesting to note that Rice (1978) found that environments in which rapid change is experienced, the test-retest validity of the LPC measure dramatically loses stability but that "Stability data collected from respondents not experiencing dramatic changes in their life generally show acceptable test-retest reliability" (p. 1200). This is further indication that the LPC could be a reliable measure in a higher education setting.

Fiedler & Chemers (1984) contended that changing the situation would be easier than the leader changing his personality and values. This is the Leader Match (Fiedler & Mahar, 1979)

concept. Alternately, given a known leadership situation with distinct variables in the area of leader member relations, task structure, and position power, it may be advisable instead to create an *in-match* situation by finding a leader whose personality and leadership style fit the given situation (Kabanoff, 1981). This includes situations where the primary variable leading to certain levels of situation control is national culture.

There is controversy surrounding the Leader Match concept as opposed to a situation where a leader is found who is a match for the situation, especially in the cultural context, or an in-match situation. Kabanoff (1981) found the conclusion of Fiedler and Maher (1979) that Leader Match was a promising method for improving leadership unjustified in that,

> this conclusion is unwarranted on at least two grounds: first, Leader Match is not a valid extension of the contingency model; second, empirical research using Leader Match, far from demonstrating the application of contingency model principles in many cases seems to contradict those very principles. (p. 749)

Jago and Regan (1986) found, using computer simulations, that there was a mismatch at least 25 percent of the time between the results of Leader Match theory and Fiedler's original contingency model. This led them to conclude that the Leader Match concept was not grounded upon the same foundation as Fiedler's original contingency theory.

Given the demonstrated weak relationship between Leader Match and Fiedler's contingency theory (Jago & Regan, 1986; Kabanoff, 1981), and that it may be difficult to change the personality of the leader (Fiedler & Chemers,1984), finding the right leader for the cultural contingent leadership situation may be appropriate. This constitutes in-match cultural leadership.

In-Match Cultural Leadership

Leaders who conform to the leadership attributes that followers expect and can identify with, including national culture and group values, are more likely to be accepted as leaders by

followers (Chemers, 2000; Meindl, 1990). In terms of Fiedler's (1967) LPC leadership model, national culture can affect the three situational variables leading to situations which are either low, moderate, or high in levels of control. Fiedler and Garcia (1987) identified the perceived stress level as a by-product of a person's aptitude for a leadership situation, or whether the situation control variables and the leader were in-match. In-match was defined as a match between the leader's leadership orientation (task or relationship) and the situation (as defined by the factors of leader-member relations, task structure, and position power). Not in-match was defined by Chemers, Hays, Rhodewalt, and Wysocki (1985) as when low LPC leaders are in moderate control situations and high LPC leaders are in low or high control conditions.

Kabanoff (1981) thus felt that it would clearly be beneficial in terms of leader effectiveness if the contingency model were used to first determine situational favorableness and then to appoint leaders who match the situation. This was confirmed in a study by Chemers, Hays, Rhodewalt, and Wysocki (1985) which measured the LPC of 51 university administrators as well as their situation and demonstrated that leaders who were in-match demonstrated "significantly less job stress, fewer health problems and fewer days missed from work than administrators who were out of match" (p. 633). In-match is thus theorized to reduce stress and increase job-satisfaction. This finding was corroborated in a study of 335 elementary and high school principals and assistant principals when it was found that stress and situational control were negatively correlated (Wysocki, Chemers, & Rhodewalt, 1987). While the relationship between employee satisfaction and higher organizational performance has been theorized by many researchers, the evidence is not strong (Dorfman, et al., 1997). Ostroff (1992), however, did undertake research which led to the finding of positive significance between the relationship of employee satisfaction and 12 separate indicators of organizational effectiveness.

Finding leaders who are in-match with the situational variables of a leadership situation may be useful given that the development of leadership theory has not kept pace with the demands of globalization (Kabanoff, 1997; Morrison, 2000). This is especially true in some fields such as educational leadership, where the recognition of the impact of culture is an imperative (Cheng, 1995). Stogdill (1948), while recognizing that some traits were more common among leaders, felt that effective leadership resulted from the interaction of both the leader and the followers. It was left to Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory to identify the situational variables, including leader member relations, task structure, and position power, which affected the effectiveness of the leader. Fiedler & Chemers (1984) recognized that it would probably be easier to change the situational variables that a leader faced versus the leader changing his personality (Leader Match theory) which is based on values (Rice, 1978). Kabanoff (1981) found the Leader Match theory to be inconsistent with the constructs of Fiedler's contingency theory. Kabanoff theorized that once the situational variables were known, it would be more effective to find a leader who was *in-match* with the situation Wysocki, Chemers, & Rhodewalt, 1987), including the most contingent of situational variables, culture, thus requiring the development of a cultural contingent leadership model (Triandis, 1993).

In-Match Leadership for a U.S. and German International Joint Venture

Fiedler and Chemers (1984) advocated changing the situation (task structure, leader member relations, or position power) if it did not match the leader orientation (task or relationship). Jago and Regan (1986) felt that Fiedler & Mahar's (1979) Leader Match model of changing the situational variables was not an extension of Fiedler's (1967) LPC model in that it was not supported by the same theoretical constructs nor the data. Kabanoff (1981) advocated

finding leaders who matched the situation with the situation impacted by national culture when multinational groups are considered (Fiedler; Triandis, 1993).

If the rate of change associated with globalization is making it difficult for the knowledge employees of companies in the developed world to keep pace (Earley, 2002; Morrison, 2000), the challenges that are faced by students and workers in the developing world can be characterized as dire given that a person in sub-Saharan Africa is far less likely to have access to higher education than a student in a developed country (Sadlak, 1998), with the least developed countries having only 1% of the college age population participate in higher education (Bloom, Canning, & Chan, 2005). Part of this divide between the developed and developing countries is due to the lack of infrastructure (Daniels, 1996). Given the former United Nation's Secretary General's call to address this problem through the use of technology by the developed countries and their institutions of higher education (Annan, 2000), it would be prudent for these universities to combine resources to minimize the risk associated with entering a foreign market just as businesses do when contemplating a new venture in a foreign environment (Altbach, 2004; Early & Gibson, 2002; Inkpen & Currall, 1997; Prieto & Arias, 1997). Given the benefits of multinational joint ventures, however, the dangers that have been discovered include the cultural dissonance that often results (Barkema & Vermeulen, 1997; Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999; More & Spekman, 1994). The problems associated with cultural conflict in multinational joint ventures can be mitigated as it has been shown that the level of cultural distance between partners is indirectly correlated with the success of the venture (Barkema & Vermuelen, 1997).

Two ideal partners for offering online distance learning opportunities to students in developing countries would be the United States and Germany. The US and Germany have cultures that are similar in many dimensions (Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Schmidt, 2000). They also

have university systems that have been recognized for leadership, including in the sphere of online distance education for the United States (Waits & Lewis, 2003), and Germany in providing a university model for developing countries (Altbach, 1998a; Kerr, Gade, & Kawaoka, 1994; Svensson, 2003) as well as demonstrated leadership in economic development assistance (OECD, 2005).

In deciding which programs to offer to students in developing countries, the sciences, technology, and the social sciences, including the subject of economics, have been shown to be critical for developing countries (The Task Force on Higher Education and Society, 2000). As Economic literacy has been shown to raise savings rates among indigenous populations (Clancy, Grinstein-Weiss, and Schreiner (2001), a key component for growth in developing countries (Krugman, 1994), it would be advantageous to offer courses in economics to students in developing countries.

Having identified the market, partners, and mode of entry, what remains in order to successfully prepare for an international joint venture would be to assemble the team. The identification of a leader would be a significant step in establishing a foundation for success. Applying the suggestion that leaders be in-match with the cultural background of those they are to lead (Fiedler, 1967; Kabanoff, 1981; Thomas, 1999; Triandis, 1993), in a situation where the leadership is that of an international joint venture and the task is one that is new, it may be critical to establish good leader member relations. This combination is one which would be diagnosed as demonstrating moderate control in Fiedler's LPC leadership model. The best leader for this type of situation is a high LPC leader, a leader who is relationship oriented (Fiedler, 1967). An international joint venture between institutions of higher education from the United States and Germany attempting to offer online higher educational courses to students in a

developing country would also be a situation of low task structure with a leader (department chair) in a low position power situation. Here it would also be critical to create a situation of good leader member relations by finding a leader whose cultural outlook and values are in line with those of the faculty they would be trying to lead, or an *in-match* situation.

The next step in developing a cultural contingent leadership model is to combine Fiedler's (1967) contingency model with Hofstede's (1980, 2001) cultural dimensions. Triandis (1993) provided the theory to develop a cultural contingent leadership model.

A Cultural Contingent Leadership Model

Geert Hofstede began the 2001 second edition of his original 1980 *Culture's Consequences* with a translated quotation from Blaise Pascal (1623–62): "There are truths on this side of the Pyrenees that are falsehoods on the other." The Pyrenees are the mountains that divide France and Spain, two countries that have seen their share of conflict, possibly based upon their culturally affected interpretation on various points of contention.

Each partner in any relationship will see a situation from their own perspective. This perspective is colored by culture. Understanding the perspective and importance of culture in spheres of business, education, government, etc., cannot be overemphasized (Earley, 2002; Hofstede, 2001; Morrison, 2000):

> The two most significant changes in the work environment—the globalization of the market and the restructuring of companies—have a tremendous impact on employees' self-concept and self-identity, on work motivation and commitment to the workplace, and on organizational behavior and its consequent performance outcomes. The scope of the work environment and of the work-related influences has increased dramatically. It involves confrontation with cultural differences in customers' needs, partners' norms of behavior and work values, in human resource management practices, and in decision-making processes. (Earley, p. 15)

A model for adapting Fiedler's contingency theory dependent upon the cultural dimensions identified by Hofstede was proposed by Triandis (1993). Fiedler (1967) was early in recognizing the need to see culture as a moderator: "Differences in language and culture between the leader and his members were, therefore, expected to affect to a substantial degree the ability of the leader to influence his group, hence the favorableness of the situation with which he had to deal" (p. 156). Triandis cited the preponderance of research supporting Fiedler's LPC model and found that this justified starting with the assumption that the contingency model is universally valid, and all that was needed was to identify specific cultural variables to modify its applicability, "The contingency model is valid cross-culturally, but predictions from the model will require taking into account whether the culture is collectivist, high in uncertainty avoidance, or high in power distance" (p. 184). Furthermore, the importance of Fiedler's contingency model is difficult to overemphasize as, according to Erez and Earley (1993), it is "one of the few Western theories of leadership that merges aspects of the individual with those of the group, and it has received empirical support in both individualistic and collectivistic cultures" (p. 89). Thus, in terms of the emic/etic terminology, Fiedler's LPC leadership model is an etic concept which applies to all cultures. Dorfman, et al. (1997) also followed this approach in his study of leader behavior patterns in various countries, "Our approach in this study employed both the emic and etic perspectives—emic culture-based predictions were developed regarding the incidence and impact of etic dimensions of leaders' behavior within a theoretically sound contingency model of leadership" (p. 234).

Triandis (1993) considered the task of the cross-cultural researcher to be the identification of the facets of leadership that are emic, or unique to a culture. Triandis advocated

first that the development of a solution to a problem based upon cultural differences begin with a well-defined problem and then to proceed to the conduct of empirical research. He found this approach preferable in comparison to much cultural research which studies a unique difference in a small population without a methodology that applies to other populations. Brett, Tinsley, Janssens, Barsness, and Lytle (1997) concurred with Triandis when he maintained that this methodology makes cross-cultural research more flexible. The overall theory for the model or the primary research question must be etic, or generalize across cultures:

> If for example, the researcher wishes to study the effects of leadership, then the exogenous leadership construct should be etic across cultures. The effects constructs, in contrast, can be either etic, emic or mixed. In fact, it is because an effects construct is emic across cultures that the leadership construct must be etic. (Brett, et al., p. 103)

Reviewing Triandis' (1993) proposed model that relates Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory to Hofstede's (1980, 2001) cultural dimensions, task structure is related to uncertainty avoidance. Using Hofstede's methodology, cultures high in uncertainty avoidance would benefit from a leader establishing an environment high in task structure. Leader member relations are closely allied with the concept of collectivism. A key determinant in collectivist cultures is whether the leader is a member of the followers' in-group. If the leader is a member of the in-group with a major determinant membership being culture, there will be greater acceptance of the leader (Thomas, 1999; van Vianen & De Dreu, 2001). If this is the case, a relationship oriented (high LPC) leader would be an in-match for the followers. However, if the leader is not a member of the in-group (out-of-match), Fiedler's Octant 8 is the appropriate classification and only a leader with a very-low (task-oriented) LPC would be appropriate. In addition, Triandis maintained that a nurturant leader would be more successful in collectivist societies, as a leader first must be accepted as a member of the in-group before the task can be accomplished. Sinha

(1995) developed a theory of nurturant task (NT) based on Fiedler's (1967) contingency model in that it was contingent on the nature of the task as well as the willingness of the followers to submit to leadership. Before the leader leads, he must meet the needs and expectations of his followers. Nurturing is a quality that Hofstede (2001) associated with low MAS. Finally, the model's leader position power dimension relates to power distance. Cultures with a high PDI are amenable to leaders who are distant versus relationship oriented thus low LPC leaders will tend to have greater success. According to Bar-Tal (1991), the characteristics of followers are also important. Bar-Tal found that if follower motivation is substituted for situational variables, the same relationship to the leader's LPC is discovered.

When it comes to the relative importance of the three elements of situational favorableness, leader member relations has the greatest relative importance with task structure more important than position power (Beach & Beach, 1978). This is significant as it is with the variable of leader member relations that culture can play the greatest role (Feider, 1967; Kabanoff, 1981; Thomas, 1999; Triandis, 1993). However, Beach and Beach found that the relative importance of these variables was affected by the unique situation.

Application of Cultural Contingent Leadership

Erez and Earley (1993) argued that culture must be considered whenever one tries to understand whether a leadership behavior will be productive. Hofstede (2001) referred to this when he wrote that "Management in individualistic societies is management of individuals…Management in collectivist societies is management of groups" (pp. 240–241). Where has research been conducted that will give clues that will indicate an in-match scenario

between leaders and followers in order to attain effective leadership? Knowing what will lead to an in-match situation, even given differing cultural backgrounds, can lead to the creation of a hybrid or blended third-culture in multicultural organizations, but it will require leaders who can go beyond their childhood *acculturation* and build partnerships (Graen & Hui, 1999; Kiely, 2001).

Bennis (1995) found having a *vision* was the top attribute that a leader possessed; while to Kotter (1995), implementing a vision entailed negotiating change. If implementing a vision requires negotiating change, then an appropriate example of the application of culturally contingent leadership was illustrated by Hostede (2001) in his evaluation of the four principles involved in the Fisher & Ury (1981) negotiation model in coming to a mutually acceptable agreement. These include:

1. Separate the people from the problem.
2. Focus on interests, not positions.
3. Invent options for mutual gain.
4. Insist on using objective criteria.

Using the Triandis (1993) application of the contingency model which postulates that "if a culture is high in value X, theory Y works as expected; if a culture is low in X, theory Y must be modified as follows" (p. 169), Hofstede (2001) noted that Fisher and Ury's (1981) theory may work for the U.S. culture which is high in IDV, medium in PDI, and low in UAI. However, a culture low in IDV and more collectivist, "where relationships prevail, separating the people from the problem is an impossible demand…people are the first problem" (p. 436). Furthermore, in high PDI countries, positions are the basis of power and cannot be separated from the person, thus focusing on the interests versus positions would also entail difficulties. Finally, inventing

new options requires innovation, an attribute which high UAI cultures are less willing or able to attempt (Hofstede, van Muizen, & Koopman, 1994).

Culture and the Role of the Economic System

Understanding a culture in order to develop cultural contingent leadership also includes an understanding of its historical economic background as Trompenaars (1994) theorized that the economic system had much to do with how leaders behaved. In addition, there is much to be learned about values and decision-making in general from what Trompenaars called the *seven versions of capitalism*, or versions of capitalism practiced in the countries of the United States, the United Kingdom, Sweden, France, Japan, the Netherlands, and Germany. The cultural values maintained in these countries affect everything from the meaning found in work by the people in these countries to the attitude toward stakeholders (owners, workers, taxpayers, citizens, and those who are affected by the byproducts of the economic system, namely pollution, etc) in the economic system. As an example, d'Iribarne (1994) compared technologically identical aluminum smelters in three advanced countries and was able to relate the leadership philosophies exhibited in these organizations to the historical cultural traditions in these countries dating back to the 17th century. As an example, he referenced the stratification of French society, or high power distance, as a precursor of the ability of a French manager to act unilaterally and "more high-handedly in a crisis situation" (p. 94).

In the United States and United Kingdom, in the tradition of Adam Smith (1776/1986), it is the individual pursuing his own interests who benefits society. The French, Germans, and Japanese, for example, "stand Smith on his head" and adhere to the philosophy that "if the needs

of the group are considered first, then the invisible hand will reach down and automatically take care of the desires of the individual" (Trompenaars, 1994, p. 197). Fiske (2002) also felt that a way to study culture was by comparing economic institutions and systems and that "specific institutions and practices that permeate certain cultures undoubtedly have profound psychological effects" (p. 86). Both Fiske and Trompenaars built upon Tönnies' (1887/1957) concept of *Gemeinschaft* (community) versus *Gesellschaft* (individualism) which found that commercialization and technology played a role in the transition from a society more dependent upon the group to one more independent of the group.

In an effort to investigate Tönnies' (1887/1957) theory that commercialization can lead to a break with the cultural past, Smith (1997) reviewed two large-scale surveys of managers, that of Hofstede (1980) and Trompenaars (1994), particularly concentrating on results from Europe. The study attempted to discern whether there was a *Euromanager* who transcended the historical and cultural backgrounds of the numerous European states. The comparison found that the major difference was between East and West, where the *footprint* of history, namely the occupation by the Soviet Union of Eastern Europe, had had a major impact, as well as between North and South Europe. The commonalities found among managers from the various European countries were in the area of event management, which can be defined as how leaders handle various situations (Smith & Peterson, 1988). While 11 of 17 nations reported reliance upon a manager's own experience and training as among the top two endorsed ways of handling events, this was true in only one of 18 of the remaining non-European nations. In comparing North with South European managers, the managers from the North relied upon a greater involvement with subordinates while in southern European countries, decision making was more in the hands of superiors. The conclusion in Smith's study was that there continued to be considerable differences in the

management preferences of European managers and these differences were persistent and nonrandom.

Cultural Contingent Leadership and Hofstede's Dimensions

Leaders depend upon their experience, rules, others, etc., when confronted with a situation in which a decision must be made (Smith & Peterson, 1988). Culture also seems to play a role in how leaders handle events as indicated in a survey of leaders from 14 countries. It was demonstrated that leaders from individualist, low power distance countries depended more on their own experiences when making decisions than did leaders from collectivist, high power countries, with PDI and "my own experience and training" correlated at $r = -.78$ (Smith, Peterson, Akande, Callan, Cho, Jesuino, et al. 1994). Peterson, Smith, Bond, and Misumi (1990) found that work teams in Japan, Britain, and the US did indeed handle events differently. The teams in the respective countries that were deemed most effective by supervisors were those more dependent on fellow team members in Japan, more reliant on superiors in the US, and demonstrated greater independence in Great Britain.

In a study of computer programmers from 28 countries who worked at an Australian bank, conformance to Hofstede's dimensions were found which leads to the conclusion that workers will bring values from their culture to the multinational workplace (Bochner & Hesketh, 1994). Employees from cultures with high power distance were less open with their supervisors while managers were more likely to view employees using McGregor's (1960) Theory X prism which takes a rather negative view of the work habits and motivation of employees. Employees

from countries categorized by Hofstede as collectivist were more likely to work in teams and participated in more informal contact with other employees.

Van Muijen and Koopman (1994) discovered a link between Hofstede's (1980) cultural values and the level of innovation demonstrated by certain countries. They refer to Hofstede's (1991) *pyramid* versus *village-market* model. In countries with high power distance and uncertainty avoidance, the pyramid model with its formal hierarchy for problem solving is preferred. In contrast, the village-market model with less formal organizational structure and more innovative problem solving is more common in low PDI countries.

A key question concerning the relationship between leaders and followers is the method leaders use to influence followers. Schmidt and Yeh (1992) described research on almost 3,000 managers from five countries which had managers describe the tactics they used to influence followers. From a list of 33 tactics, the top two tactics listed by Australian managers were friendly reasoning and bargaining; managers from the US listed bargaining and reasoning; managers from Japan listed assertive reasoning and invoked higher authority; and in Taiwan, managers were more likely to have invoked sanctions and assertive reasoning. In moving from Australia to Taiwan, the measures seemed to become more authoritarian. It is interesting to note that among the countries in this sample, Australia had the lowest PDI value, with the PDI value increasing from Australia to Taiwan. Hofstede (2001) invoked this study to illustrate that the common U.S. management technique of management by objectives (MBO) may not be appropriate for all cultures. MBO leads to a series of negotiations between superiors and subordinates where objectives are agreed to and the employee is subsequently measured against the objectives. In cultures where there is little bargaining but management by sanction, as is the case in high PDI countries, "MBO is not a feasible technique" (p. 105).

When it comes to influencing workers through compensation, group orientation in the form of collectivism seems to be predisposed to equality of compensation versus equity, which puts compensation in relationship to contribution (Erez, 1994). Erez felt that there was little theory in industrial/organizational psychology relating culture to work behavior because the emphasis has been on theories developed in the US for an individualist stream in psychology.

Finally, the GLOBE study (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, Gupta, 2004) which was based on questionnaire responses from 17,000 managers in over 62 countries led to the discovery of six global or etic leadership behaviors. These include value-based leadership (ability to inspire and motivate), team oriented leadership (team building and common purpose), participative leadership (involving others to make and implement decisions), humane-oriented leadership (supportive and considerate leadership), autonomous leadership (based upon a leader's unique attributes), and self-protective leadership (securing and maintaining leadership through status enhancement). The GLOBE study was also able to confirm the existence of Hofstede's dimensions, albeit with variations on the terminology and emphasis, of uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, power distance, future orientation, and gender egalitarianism while adding the additional dimensions of humane orientation, assertiveness (also related to Hofstede's masculinity and femininity dimension), and performance orientation. Furthermore, the GLOBE study identified 10 clusters of countries, clustered according to their common application of the cultural dimensions and leadership behaviors. These clusters include one for the Anglo cluster (including the United States) and a Germanic cluster (including Germany). The GLOBE study reinforces the proposition that culture affects leadership and is predictive of the "leader attributes and behaviors, and organizational practices, that are most frequently perceived as acceptable, and are most frequently enacted and most effective" (House, et al., 2002, p. 9).

The preceding review of selected literature on cultural contingent leadership can be collated according to Trianidis' application of the contingency model (Table 6). Table 7 is a more comprehensive list of the work-related attitudes Hofstede (2001) found correlated with culture. The real test of the power of cultural contingent leadership comes when members of different cultures attempt an international joint venture as cultural conflict is inevitable (Barkema & Vermeulen, 1997; Jehn, Northcraft & Neale, 1999; More, & Spekman, 1994).

Table 5

Sample of Research Demonstrating the Triandis Cultural Contingency Model

Leadership Contingency/Cultural Dimension	Subject	Author
Leader Member Relations/	Contact with supervisors	Bochner & Hesketh 1994
Individualism & Masculinity	Compensation	Erez, 1994
	Nurturing relationship	Sinha 1995
	Event management	Smith, 1997
Task Structure/Uncertainty	Negotiation	Hofstede, 2001
Avoidance	Innovation	Van Muijen & Koopman, 1994
Position Power/Power Distance	Handling crisis	d'Iribarne, 1994
	Influencing followers	Schmidt & Yeh, 1992

Cultural Contingent Leadership and Joint Ventures

It is not just individuals who are faced with the issue of culture but also institutions, as is the case when educational institutions pursue cross border initiatives. Lichtenberger and Naulleau (1993) found that "In the face of newly opening markets, intensified competition and the need for increasing scale, many companies have put the formation of international joint

Table 6

Hofstede's (2001) Cultural Dimensions and Work-Related Attitudes

Dimension	High	Low
Power Distance (PDI)	Large proportion of supervisory personnel Managers rely on formal rules Privileges and status symbols for managers are expected	Subordinates expect to be consulted Consultative leadership leads to satisfaction, performance and productivity
Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)	Loyalty to employer, long average duration of employment Preference for technological solutions Innovations resisted but if accepted, applied consistently	Belief in generalists versus specialists Superiors believe in the ambition and leadership capabilities of subordinates
Individualism and Collectivism (IDV)	Employees expected to act as "economic men" Hiring and promotion based on skills and rules Employee-employer relationships are a business deal in a "labor market"	Employee-employer relationship is moral and like a family relationship Employees and managers report teamwork, personal contracts and discrimination at work
Masculinity and Femininity (MAS)	Live in order to work Managers are cultural heroes Preference for more pay	Managers are employees like others Preference for fewer hours worked More sickness absence
Long Term Orientation (LTO)	In business, emphasis placed on building of relationships and market position	Economic and social life to be ordered by abilities

ventures on their agendas in the 1990s" (p. 43). This same quotation may become valid for higher education institutions in the early 21st century.

Lichtenberger and Naulleau (1993) reviewed the literature in the fields of international management, business law, political science, and accounting and found no common or precise definition of what an international joint venture was. Knight (2005) describes a typology of six different crossborder higher education providers including recognized higher education institutions, either public or private, and nonrecognized higher educational institutions which are not recognized by an evaluation body in the country of origin or foreign market. Companies that are independent of any home market and are often publicly traded companies are also included in this typology as are institutions primarily established for the employees of large companies. The final two of this typology are those institutions which are a combination of public and private recognized institutions, often brought together by the prospect of increased revenues and expanding student numbers. Often this type of venture is motivated by profit even when one or both of the home institutions are not-for-profit entities. The final member of this typology is the virtual institution which provides most of its instruction, whether in foreign markets or at home, through online means.

As far as the success rate of joint ventures, Kogut and Singh (1988) combined Hofstede's cultural dimensions into an aggregate score and found that greater cultural distance was associated with lower chances of the joint venture being successful. Smith (2002) found the frequency of significant results yielded by the Kogut & Singh's index "remarkable" especially "given the crudity of the procedure involved, which required the assumption that all four dimensions are equally important" (p. 132). Its validity was corroborated by Barkema and Vermuelen (1997) when they examined the over 800 foreign market joint ventures of 25 Dutch

firms. They found that the dimensions of uncertainty avoidance and long-term orientation played particularly important roles, with firms from different countries experiencing greater success and longevity if these dimensions for the firms were similar. Barkema and Pennings (1996) found that if the two partners had a history of previous experience with each other, this boded well for success.

If joint ventures involve virtual teams which may be separated by time as well as distance, one problem area that virtual teams must overcome is the loss of creativity which results from the informal interaction which occurs in teams that are operating in a face-to-face environment (Kiely, 2001). A further issue that Kiely felt was important in the development of effective teams was the trust that was needed in effective group efforts. Watson (1993) discovered that culturally homogeneous and culturally diverse groups (members from two or more nationalities and three or more ethnic backgrounds) of undergraduate students performed at different levels. The student groups were observed for 17 weeks in the areas of process and performance. Initially, the homogeneous groups of students outperformed the culturally heterogeneous groups in all areas. The importance of homogeneity to group performance was also confirmed by van Vianen and De Dreu (2001) as well as Thomas (1999). In the Watson study, by week 17, however, there was little difference in most areas between the groups except in the area of range of perspectives and alternatives generated, where the heterogeneous groups outscored the homogeneous groups.

Lichtenberger and Naulleau (1993) found that in international joint ventures between French and German firms it was interpersonal relationships rather than technical questions which led to problems. While their French colleagues found the Germans to be very systematic in their planning for all aspects of the joint venture, the Germans found the French managers to be rigid

in their argumentation, pragmatic, and consensus seeking. The difficulties associated with interpersonal relationships were also confirmed by Thomas (1999) who found that the relative degree of distance between the group members on the dimension of collectivism played a role in the receptivity of established group members to new members.

Gibson (1999) building upon Earley's (1994) research in this area, discovered that groups who were high in the cultural attribute of collectivism have a higher group efficacy (a group's belief in its ability to perform effectively) and this leads to higher group performance. It was found that collectivism actually leads to groups putting a higher value on the ideas and values that the group holds in common. This allows the group to more effectively collate, weigh, and integrate information and reinforces their beliefs that the group can achieve, and subsequently achievement was higher. Research indicated that individualists do not follow this approach as consistently, and subsequently information upon which decisions are made is of lower quality.

Culturally Contingent Leadership: Research on the US and Germany

It is well recognized that for leaders to work effectively in multicultural environments, they should receive extensive training on the cultural characteristics of the member of groups they are to lead (Suutari, 1996). If, however, leadership is based upon values that cannot change, then either the situation must be changed to suit the leader (Leader Match) or a leader must be found which matches the situation (in-match). A key question would be which specific areas does it appear that there would be an in-match scenario between U.S. and German leaders and followers involved in an international joint venture?

The U.S. Economic System, Leadership, and Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

In Child's (1981) *Culture, Contingency and Capitalism in the Cross-National Study of Organizations*, it is argued that the variance seen in organizations that has been attributed to nationality has to this point been called simply "cultural." Child argued that it is possible that the form of economic system may also play a role in organizational variance, with the move from mass production to automated manufacturing fundamentally altering social relations and attitudes toward work:

> References to national differences in traditions of managerial recruitment, in participation, in attitudes toward authority and other respects discussed shortly, all suggest that there is a degree of cultural modification in the operation of economic systems which becomes significant at the level of individual organizations. (p. 323)

Tönnies (1887/1957) agreed that modernization played a major role in the transition of a society from a social context (*Gemeinshaft*) to a more individualist society (*Gesellschaft*). As the world's largest and most advanced economy, Gardner (1998) confirmed that *rugged individualism* and a disdain for higher authority are indeed key attributes of the U.S. labor force. Citing a 1991 poll by the Times Mirror organization, only 23% of U.S. respondents felt that the government should be concerned with redistributing wealth while 50% of Germans, 62% of the French, and 66% of the British felt the government had a key role in ensuring equality. Kabanoff (1997) described U.S. organizations, given low PDI and high IDV (Table 4**)**, as *meritocratic*. He compared this to Germany with its low PDI and low IDV as *collegial* organizations.

Gardner's perception of the fundamentals underlying the U.S. economy are corroborated by Hofstede's (1980) findings. Hofstede identified the U.S. as the country with the highest IDV score among all of the countries in which he surveyed IBM employees. It was also high in MAS and low in UAI, corroborating the notion of an entrepreneurial spirit in the United

States. Hofstede (1995) contended that there were three distinct elements of leadership theory that distinguished the U.S.: stress on the individual, market processes, and reliance upon leaders and managers versus workers.

The German Economic System, Leadership, and Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

In comparison to the US, Germany has an economic system that while relying on the market for the overall distribution of economic goods, has the government playing a prominent role in ensuring economic security. An understanding for the development of this model can be found in looking at the history of the German economy as well as its cultural background.

Germany was a country that experienced rapid industrialization from a nominal level of economic activity in the early 1800s to the point where the share of Germany's world exports of manufactured goods rose from 20% in 1880 to almost 27% in 1913. During the same period, Great Britain's share fell from 41% to 30% while that of France from 22% to only 12% (Pierenkemper & Tilly, 2004). Higher education seemed to play an important role in the success of German industry. In a sample of 248 German industrialists taken during the second half of the 19th century, it was found that 82 percent had some higher education and 71 percent had some form of diploma; this was much higher than the comparable cohort in Great Britain (Pierenkemper and Tilly). Furthermore, Germany owes much of its success in industrializing to the chemical and electrical industries, industries which depended on knowledge and experimentation (Stolper, Haeuser and Borchardt, 1967).

Dahrendorf (1965) related the German attitudes of tight control, collectivism, and subordination to authority to its phenomenon of relative late and rapid industrialization. Child

(1981) does not dispute the importance of national culture when it comes to explaining differences in organizations located in different cultures; he believed, however, that it should be treated as another contingency.

In viewing the leadership and management practices of European firms, the power and influence of the most successful European economy since World War II must be acknowledged, as "who can doubt that it is the German model that appeals most to the new Europe rather than American or Japanese models" (Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 1993, p. 197). If the individualism and collectivism dimension is the most well-researched, encompassing, and prominent cultural dimension that distinguishes nationalities (Earley, 1994; Thomas, 1999, Triandis, 1993, 1998; Trompenaars 1994), Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars' finding that there is a significant difference between the United States and Germany in this dimension takes on added importance:

> where the US is individualistic, Germany is communitarian. The combination of strong universalistic, integrative, and communitarian values that Germans bring to their process of wealth creation is manifested in a highly codified economic system in which the state and private enterprise cooperate in developing and regulating business activity to an extent unthinkable in the more individualistic cultures…While Germans with the Dutch managers were strivers for consensus, British and Americans preferred to force a vote and win. (p. 198)

There is additional evidence that Germany has a national culture that is more collectivist than is the case in the United States. Verma and Triandis (1999) in a study attempting to measure the variations in individualism and collectivism, namely the horizontal and vertical qualifiers, concluded that students from India were to a greater extent vertical collectivists (VC) while U.S. students were horizontal individualists (HI). The finding that the U.S. students were horizontal individualists contradicts research by Kabanoff (1997) which identified the US as VI as well as the interpretation by Triandis and Gelfand (1998) of Fiske's findings. These students classified

the US also as VI. Comparative data cited in the Verma and Triandis study indicated that Germany scored highest on the HI dimension. The contradiction in the classification may be related to the student sample used by Verma and Triandis and that Triandis (1995) specifically referenced corporate relations in the US when he ascribed the VI dimension to the US. Peppard & Fitzgerald (1997) comparatively referenced corporate relations in Germany as collective-oriented.

Germany's collectivist tendencies may be a reflection of its high uncertainty avoidance as measured by Hofstede (1980). To reduce the perceived uncertainty, Germany has a highly structured economic system which can be typified by its highly codifed system of accounting. In Germany, the accounting system has a scientific status as compared to the U.S. accounting system which has the foundation in the *Generally Accepted Accounting Principles* (GAAP). In reports to shareholders, the German accounting system reports the same valuation for assets that is reported to the tax authorities. In the U.S., British, and Dutch systems (national cultures with low uncertainty avoidance), these reports can be unrelated (Hofstede, 2001).

Germany, which has a low PDI ranking in Hofstede's original IBM data, has developed a highly formalized system of participatory leadership called codetermination. Companies that are above a certain size must have a works council which has a right to veto any personnel policy that changes existing working conditions. In addition, large companies must have labor participation on the board of directors. Pay scales are often negotiated industry-wide. The unilateral implementation of pay-for-performance schemes are almost unheard of in Germany. Gooderham (1999) has correlated the relative large size of German human resource departments to the formalized system of codetermination.

In Germany, the avoidance of differential pay schemes is evident in the higher education setor as there is a country-wide pay scale for university professors (Böhm, 2000). In the US, the pay difference for professors varies from state to state and institution to institution, with the annual difference being as great as 50,000 dollars (Thornton, 2006). Böhm felt that a performance based pay system would not work well for the German higher education system. The relative level of compensation may be less important in Germany given that much more emphasis is placed on the title and position power one holds in Germany in comparison to the United States (Triandis, 1995).

Szabo (2002), using research generated from the GLOBE study, discovered that the German consensus model of capitalism (social market or Rhenish model) affected the way that Germans viewed the ideal business leader. The ideal business leader was participative and built consensus. Relating the GLOBE's cultural dimensions to Hofstede's (2001) dimensions, Szabo found the consensus model was conducive to the German uncertainty avoidance dimension and a low tolerance for uncertainty. In support of the finding that Germany was high in uncertainty avoidance and has collectivist tendencies, Trompenaars (1994) cited research which indicated that only 14% of German managers were in agreement with the statement that decisions should be based *only* upon individual considerations versus the group while 40% of U.S. managers agreed. These factors combine to almost ensure that by the time a decision is implemented, there is greater certainty that it will be accepted as all parties have been a part to its generation. While it appears the high UAI level in Germany leads to relative rigidity in its ability to have flexibility in its accounting and decision making systems, the Barkema and Vermuelen (1997) study which examined joint ventures of Dutch firms found that this dimension played a particularly important role in ensuring greater success and longevity of joint ventures. Given that Germany was a

country with a high UAI and Holland a low UAI (Hofstede, 1980, 2001), Barkema and Vermuelen contended that it was not the level of UAI but a similar score that aided in the success of joint ventures.

Alexander (2003) examined Hofstede's dimensions as contingencies in the practices of managers as it was related to accomplishment of their objectives as well as to organizational climate and employee satisfaction. Using a global technology company which operated in 32 countries, 25,000 employees were involved in a study that found power distance, individualism, and uncertainty avoidance played a significant role in the variation in management practices. If the masculinity, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance dimensions were simultaneously considered, a relationship to employee satisfaction and organizational climate was established. These relationships were more prominent in Germany than in the United States. The US ranked in the bottom quartile when the strength of the relationship between national culture and the combination of management practices and organizational culture were factored in.

Suutari (1996) sought to compare German leadership characteristics with those of Finnish leaders, using Hofstede's (2001) methodology of comparing relative differences in dimension scores to indicate expected leader characteristics. In the areas of consideration which relates to Hofstede's masculinity dimension and uncertainty avoidance which has been related to innovation, research confirmed the inverse relationship of consideration and innovation to the higher German scores in both of these dimensions. As was expected, the higher scores of Germans in these cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980) were confirmed by the German leaders being both less innovative and considerate compared to their Finnish counterparts. In the area of individualism, the country scores were very similar as the results of the research did not indicate a difference between German and Finnish leaders.

In a study of over 1,800 managers and professionals attending evening MBA programs in universities in 15 countries, several archetypal business leader roles were discovered which correlated with Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Hofstede, Van Deusen, Mueller, & Charles, 2002). The US was associated with a cluster that valued as the top two goals "this year's profits and "personal wealth." Germany belonged to a cluster which emphasized "continuity of the business" and "growth of the business." The identified roles of leaders in this study were correlated significantly with three of Hofstede's dimensions, including the Power Distance Index, the Uncertainty Avoidance Index, and long term orientation. The importance placed on power among some countries was positively correlated with a high level of power distance. High levels of uncertainty avoidance were positively correlated with a relative distrust for business people. Countries that indicated an emphasis on profit, be it short or long term profits, were also correlated with a high long-term orientation. Schyns, Paul, Mohr, and Blank (2005) also found that higher levels of long-term orientation were associated with respect for tradition and for the traditional methods of performing a task.

In a study by Bedeian (1975), the Schein-Ott Legitimacy of Organizational Influence Questionnaire measured among U.S. and German managers the organizational influence on 55 behaviors and attitudes ranging from those that are highly work related to those that are highly personal. The study included approximately 50 German mid-level managers and 80 U.S. managers. There was a significant correlation between the U.S. and German managers in total, but the study also revealed some areas of major disagreement, including the importance placed on "getting along with other people (very important with U.S. managers)" and "willingness to play politics to get ahead (again much more important to U.S. managers)" (Bedeian, p. 901).

Comparative U.S. and German Leadership Attributes

Brodbeck et al. (2000) used the GLOBE study (House & Aditya, 1997) cluster of European countries which include the Germanic (Austria, Switzerland, and Germany) and the Anglo clusters (including Ireland, the United Kingdom, and the US) and compared leadership attributes. Facets facilitating outstanding leadership that were found between the two clusters were the attributes of performance, integrity, team integrator, and visionary. While relatively more important in the Anglo cluster, the Germanic cluster also included attributes such as diplomatic, collaborative, and modesty. Contrary to the Germanic cluster, autonomous was found to be significant in the Anglo cluster. House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta (2004) found that there was much similarity in the GLOBE study between the Anglo and Germanic clusters. The study found both the Anglo cluster and the Germanic cluster valued charismatic, participative, and autonomous leadership. Both were equally rated in the medium range in team-oriented leadership and low in self-protective leadership. There was divergence in the area of humane oriented leadership (Anglo cluster ranked higher).

Gerstner (1994) compared how graduate students from 8 countries, including Germany and the United States, ranked 59 attributes along the lines of how the students felt the attributes fit the prototype of a business leader. The findings were "consistent with the proposition that observers match someone against an abstract cognitive prototype…The better the fit between a perceived individual and a prototype stored in memory, the more likely that he or she will be seen as a leader" (p. 123). This relates to whether the leader will be perceived as a member of the in-group, a factor much more important in collectivist societies. The German graduate students ranked intelligent, determined, decisive, dedicated, and goal-orientated as the top five attributes

of the prototypical business leader, while U.S. students listed determined, goal-oriented, verbal skills, industrious, and persistent in the five attributes. The overall findings from this study were that the prototypical business leader perceived attributes varied according to the cultural background of the students.

Wever (1995) found in a comparison of several chemical companies, some U.S. owned and others owned by German firms, that there were differences in the amount of responsibility lower-level managers were allowed. In U.S. firms, the lower-level managers were given much more responsibility than their German counterparts. The German managers were conditioned to look to higher levels of authority for decision-making. When faced with a problem, the German managers and employees sought a technical solution while their U.S. counterparts sought solutions generated though new management techniques or organizational structure. According to Tscheulin (1973), German managers were also more willing to blame the individual for a problem than were US managers. Schyns, Paul, Mohr, and Blank (2005) related this to Hofstede's (1980) finding that Germany had a high UAI. Leaders tended to trust a select group of employees while building deep relationships with these employees and trusting these employees with the most delicate tasks. Countries that scored high in MAS, as did Germany, also tend to assign responsibility for failure versus simply searching for solutions (Hofstede, 2001).

Table 8 is a sample list of Triandis' (1993) model applied to U.S. and German multinationals. These are a limited sample of areas where the leadership practices have been affected by the contingency of culture. Any international venture should apply similar lessons based upon the mix of cultures to be involved.

Summary and Shortcomings of Existing Literature

The literature review demonstrated that values play a critical role (Hofstede, 2001; Rice 1978) in both Fiedler's (1967) contingency leadership theory and Hofstede's (1980, 2001) study of cultural dimensions. That values are salient in both of these theories set the foundation for

Table 7

Cultural Contingency Leadership: Triandis' (1993) Model Applied to US and Germany

Leadership Contingency/Cultural Dimension	Subject	Author
Leader Member Relations/ IDV & MAS	Leader attribution	Gerstner, 1994
	Consideration	Suutari, 1996
Task Structure/UAI	Trust of Leaders	Hofstede, Van Deusen, Mueller, & Charles, 2002; Schyns, Paul, Mohr, and Blank, 2005
Position Power/PDI	Codetermination	Böhm, 2000; Gooderham, 1999
	Authority	Wever, 1995

Triandis (1993) to propose a cultural contingent leadership model that capitalizes on Hofstede's (1980, 2001) cultural dimensions and Fiedler's situational variables.

The economic system plays a prominent role in the development of national culture d'Iribarne, 1994; Hofstede, 2001; Trompenaars, 1994) with industrialization having accelerated the shift towards greater individualism (Tönnies,1887/1957) in the most prominent of the cultural dimension, individualism and collectivism (Earley, 1994; Thomas, 1999, Triandis, 1993, 1998; Trompenaars, 1994). But even with the economic integration that has occurred within the economies of Europe, there still is not evidence of a *Euromanager* (Smith,1997).

The research is rich in the area viewing culture as a contingent or emic factor but has not kept pace in developing an etic model of cultural contingent leadership to match the rapid change associated with the globalization phenomenon in business (Earley, 2002; Morrison, 2000) or other specialized leadership fields such as educational leadership (Cheng, 1995). This literature review has discovered a model of cultural contingent leadership (Triandis, 1993) which can be used to fill the needs for developing solutions to individual, emic, or cultural contingent leadership situations while aiding in the development of a leadership model that can be used across cultures (etic).

There exists a need for research into the cultural values of groups matched in all areas other than nationality. The results of this research should be used to create a leadership model based on Triandis' (1993) cultural contingent leadership theory. This use of the emic cultural values would lead to an etic model if multiple cultures were included in the research with subsequent leadership effectiveness demonstrated. The next two chapters took the first step in this process through discovering the cultural values of a matched sample and using these values to devise a cultural contingent leadership model. Beyond the scope of this research would be the evaluation of such a model under the conditions of leadership requirements of an online joint venture by U.S. and German economics faculty to provide courses to students in developing countries.

Appendix J lists the major theorists and theories used in this literature review.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

Study Design

The purpose of this chapter was to describe the methodology and procedures used to discover the cultural values for the economics faculties at the comparable German *Fachhochschulen* (Glossary on the Education System in the Federal Republic of Germany, n. d.; *Hochschulen in Deutschland*, n. d.) and Carnegie classification *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive) universities (Carnegie Foundation Web site, n. d.). Once the values for Hofstede's (2001) five dimensions of culture were discovered for the faculties, Triandis' (1993) model of modifying leadership practices based upon prior research into cultural contingent situational factors that affect leadership in, for instance, an international higher education joint venture, guided the choice of appropriate leadership strategies that were followed.

The study was initiated in the 2006 Summer Semester at the University of Central Florida. The analysis of final data, conclusions and recommendations were presented in the 2007 Spring Semester.

This chapter is divided into five sections. The first section describes the study population. The second section deals with the data collection methods used, while the third section discusses the data collection instrument. The fourth section outlines the research questions, and the fifth and final section reviews the statistical treatment of the data. Chapter 3 concludes with a

summary of the five sections as well as recommendations for a cultural contingent leadership model for a multinational higher education joint venture.

Study Population

Two populations in this survey research were used to compare the cultural values of higher education economics faculty in the United States and Germany. An attempt was made to match the two populations in the areas of academic discipline and type of institution in order to come as close as possible to matched samples, an important consideration in using Hofstede's (1994) instrument (Appendix B), the Values Survey Module 94 (VSM 94).

The German sample of professors was drawn from the list of professors on the Web sites of each of 130 *Fachhochschulen*, or universities of applied sciences (Glossary on the Education System in the Federal Republic of Germany, n. d.; *Hochschulen in Deutschland*, n. d.). *Fachhochschulen* are higher education teaching institutions similar to institutions listed on the Carnegie classification as *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive) in that the institutions are not doctoral granting institutions and the faculty primarily teach versus conduct research. Economics professors from *Fachhochschulen* were excluded from the sample if they did not belong to a department that was dedicated to teaching business, economics, or both. *Fachhochschulen* were also excluded from the sample if there were no professors at the institution who taught economics. There was no distinction made between *Fachhochschulen* in the former West Germany versus East Germany as reunification of the two took place over 15 years ago. Dettenborn, Boehnke, and Horstmann (1994) in a study comparing values of teachers and students from the western and eastern parts of Germany found that the values of teachers in

the eastern and western parts of Germany were less pronounced than those between teachers and students in general. Brodbeck et al. (2000) reported that the differences in leadership concepts between East and West German leaders was small and relatively insignificant in the context of leadership concepts practiced throughout the rest of Europe.

This narrowed the list of 130 *Fachhochschulen* in Germany to approximately 90 institutions. The number of valid email addresses for economics faculty at *Fachhochschulen* in Germany was finalized with 221 names. Of the responses received, only those respondents who indicated on question numbers 25 and 26 of Hofstede's instrument (Appendix C) that their current nationality and nationality at birth were both German were included in the study.

The sample of U.S. economics faculty was limited to those faculty members who taught at 86 Carnegie classification *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive) colleges and universities located throughout the United States. According to the degree data, these institutions award master's degrees in the humanities, social sciences, and STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) fields, and degrees in one or more professional fields (Carnegie Foundation Web site, n. d.). The Web sites for these universities were used to generate a list of names and emails for 423 professors of economics. Of the responses received, only those respondents who indicated on question numbers 25 and 26 (Appendix B) that their current nationality and nationality at birth were from the United States were included in the study.

Data Collection Methods

Couper and De Leeuw (2003) report that there were significant differences in survey response rates across countries with Germany consistently having lower response return rates

than most countries listed in their survey. In most countries, the survey-taking climate was rated as moderate or worsening. Germany is a country in which the survey climate is characterized as worsening.

Data from the German sample of economics professors from over 90 *Fachhochschulen* (universities of applied sciences) was collected using the VSM 94 during the summer of 2006 and the fall of 2006. During the summer of 2006, Dillman's (2000) multiple contact strategy was utilized to initially send a short notification email (Appendix E) making the professors aware that they would be asked within the subsequent two weeks to respond per the Internet to a survey questionnaire on the cultural values of economics professors at *Fachhochschulen* in Germany. After two weeks, a subsequent email was sent requesting the faculty access an online questionnaire.

Given that the initial emails were sent during the last month of the German academic year (July), a subsequent letter was mailed to a sample of the remaining faculty during the beginning of the German academic year in October of 2006. The German professors who had indicated that they had participated in the survey or who did not want to participate were excluded from the mailing.

The same procedure was used to contact the U.S. professors as was used for the German sample, using an email (Appendix D) to notify the professors that they would be subsequently receiving an email (Appendix F) asking them to participate in a survey measuring the cultural values of U.S. economics professors. The initial contact took place in mid-September, 2006, with final contact occurring in mid-October.

Data Collection Instrument

The Value Survey Module (VSM) 94 was developed from earlier survey instruments that Hofstede (2001) had used for IBM in the 1960s and early 1970s which were developed for internal IBM use. Between 1968 and 1972, there were two major administrations of the survey, with the first including 116,000 IBM respondents and the second over 88,000 IBM respondents. Only questions that had Spearman rank correlations of rho = .50 were retained with rho = .94 being the largest correlation coefficient. The original VSM was designed to test the mean scores of matched samples across two or more countries, regions, or ethnic groups. To make the instrument applicable to groups other than the original IBM set, subsequent versions (VSM 81, 82 and 94) were developed. See Appendices B and C for the questionnaires used, both in English and German (developed through translation and back translation to ensure accuracy).

The VSM 94 owes much to the work of Hoppe (1990) in his study of country elites. In this study the original dimensions that Hofstede identified were confirmed. This is an indication of the validity of the instrument. This was also the case with the Chinese Value Survey developed by Bond (1988) independently of Hofstede's instrument. Nonetheless, it confirmed Hofstede's four original dimensions as well as a fifth dimension, long-term orientation. Hofstede's instrument has also been subjected to numerous tests of reliability (Kogut & Singh, 1988) proving its dependability and stability. However, Hofstede (2001) warned that tests of reliability of Cronbach's alpha cannot be used when just a few countries are being used in the study as the instrument is a cross-country test. Use of Cronbach's alpha "requires data from a sufficient number of countries—say, 10 or more—without which the

reliability of the instrument can simply not be tested in the textbook way and has to be taken for granted based on the literature" (p. 463).

The VSM 94 has 26 questions, including 20 content questions and 6 demographic questions. The six demographic questions indicate age, gender, education level, and current nationality and nationality at birth. A question concerning the number of years the faculty members have worked in the field of economics was also included in the questionnaire as Hofstede (2001) indicated that other than nationality, occupation had the strongest correlation with culture. The 20 content questions were on a Likert-stye scale ranging from "of utmost importance (1)" to "of very little or no importance (5)."

Power Distance

Hofstede (2001) designed the power distance questions around question number 14 (Appendix B), "How frequently, in your experience, are subordinates afraid to express disagreement with their superiors?" (p. 85). Hofstede attempted to use a method where the respondent would not be responding as themselves and thus would not necessarily be coloring their perceptions with their own values. The additional three questions related to the employees' relationship to the superior, level of consultation, and whether the subordinate thought it was a good idea to report to two or more bosses. In the IBM data, it is interesting to note that in countries where the respondents answered that there was fear to disagree with superiors, there was a positive correlation with the question concerning lack of consultation in decision-making, with the preferred type of boss being autocratic. Low power distance was associated with

employees who observed few instances where there was fear to disagree with superiors and is thus positively correlated with the preference for consultative leadership style.

The original IBM survey led to power distance scores (Appendix B & H) for 50 countries and three regions which ranged between 104 for Malaysia to 11 for Austria (Hofstede, 1980). The mean was 57 and the standard deviation was 22. As Hofstede (2001) discovered that occupation accounted for the greatest variability among cultures outside of nationality, he found that the questions among 38 different occupations were highly correlated. "However, the correlations among the three questions across individuals are virtually zero…The lack of individual correlations should remind us that power distance as measured here can be used only as a characteristic of *social systems* not of *individuals*" (p. 88).

Uncertainty Avoidance

The questions that relate to uncertainty avoidance on the VSM 94 dealt with the respondents' views on ambiguity in areas such as rules orientation, decision making, stress, and employee competition (Appendices B and H). Hofstede's (1980) IBM values ranged from 112 for Greece to 8 for Singapore. The mean of the 50 countries and 3 regions was 65 with a standard deviation of 24. Unlike in the case of PDI, there was no correlation between UAI and occupation however there was a negative correlation between rule orientation and educational level.

Individualism and Collectivism

The questions dealing with individualism on the VSM 94 (Appendices B & G) were ones that asked "How important is it to you to…" in the areas of having personal time, use of skills,

working conditions, and having adventure. Hofstede (2001) felt that "the distinction between challenge and use of skills may appear trivial to a Western-educated reader...And yet this distinction discriminates sharply between national cultures." (p. 214).

Hofstede's (1980) results ranged from the 91 for the United States to 6 for Guatemala. The mean score was 53, with a standard deviation of 53.

Masculinity and Femininity

The VSM 94 measured masculinity and femininity by using questions that included topics such as cooperation, advancement, trust, and attribution of responsibility for failure (Appendices B and H). The cooperation question attempted to gauge the level of interpersonal relationships in departments while the ego-directed questions such as advancement and responsibility for failure are attributes associated with masculinity. Hofstede (1980) found that Japan scored at the top of the masculinity index with German-speaking countries also scoring at high levels. The mean score was 49 with a standard deviation of 18.

Long Term Orientation

In measuring long-term orientation (LTO), the VSM 94 used two questions (Appendices B & H) instead of the four questions used in measuring the other dimensions with two of the original questions lacking stability (Hofstede, 2001). The two questions remaining dealt with the respondents' identification with thrift and tradition. The country with the largest LTO from Bond's (1988) original 22 countries was China at 118; the country with the lowest score was Pakistan with a score of 0.

Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated based on a review of the literature:

1. To what extent are the cultural values obtained from a sample of professors in the academic field of economics who teach at 86 Carnegie classification *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive) universities similar to the five cultural dimensions that Hofstede (1980, 2001) identified for the United States?

2. To what extent are the cultural values obtained from a sample of professors in the academic field of economics who teach at approximately 90 German *Fachhochschulen* (universities of applied sciences) similar to the five cultural dimensions that Hofstede (1980, 2001) identified for Germany?

3. To what extent are the cultural values obtained from samples of U.S. and German professors who teach in the academic field of economics similar to the five cultural dimensions identified by Hofstede (1980, 2001) for the US and Germany?

4. To what extent does the number of years of socialization in the economics profession affect the values for power distance which Hofstede (1980) identified as being related to occupation?

Statistical Treatment and Data Analysis

There was a temptation to attempt to equate findings using the Hofstede (1980, 2001) model concerning culture at the national level with those of an individual in that nation. Hofstede (2001) refers to this type of analysis as stereotyping which is a "fixed notion about persons in a certain category with no distinctions made about individuals" (p. 14) and "unethical" (p. 65).

Equating the results found using an instrument meant for a macro or country level analysis for those of an individual, or micro analysis, is an example of using between-system correlations to make within-system correlations, or an *ecological fallacy* (Hofstede, 2001). Hofstede (2001) maintains that researchers who attempt this will not find correlations at the individual level and researchers attempting to do so are "hammering on an open door" (p. 172). It is appropriate for instance, to use the data found employing Hofstede's Value Surveys Module (VSM) to calculate index values for two countries whose respondents are matched in as many categories as possible, especially in occupation and education, and then to compare the change in the index values between those two countries with the difference found between those same two countries (namely whether there has been a relative change between the countries) using Hofstede's (1980) original IBM values (p. 66).

According to Hofstede (1980, 2001), it would not be useful nor appropriate to compare the individual responses used to calculate an index with the responses given by those individuals, for instance, to their demographic information. In order to test Hofstede's (1980) contention of an ecological fallacy between the macro and micro levels of data, Hoppe (1990) used his extensive replication of Hofstede's (1980) multiple country study to test whether the data at the individual level would lead to a factor analysis result at the individual level similar to the dimensions proposed by Hofstede. The results of the research illustrated that while the country level constructs were significantly correlated with Hofstede's (1980) original values, "… the individual-level factors, as expected, generated conceptually different constructs than those for the country level" (Hoppe, p. 185). Attempts to use the index values from two countries to run a regression analysis, for instance, of power distance relating to the number of years in an occupation would be attempting to run a regression analysis on two observations.

Hofstede (2001) cited work in a master's thesis by Bosland which corrected the index values for formal education levels. When comparing the researched economic faculty values versus Hofstede's (1980) original dimension index values that were based on responses from a cross-section of IBM employees, the economic faculty values will be adjusted with Bosland's (Appendix H) education adjustment values. As both the U.S. and German economic faculty samples have equivalent levels of education, Bosland's adjustment factors are not necessary when comparing the U.S. and German economic faculties.

Data Analysis

The researcher completed all analyses of the collected data using SPSS™ 13.0 Student Version for Windows. Descriptive statistics from both the U.S. professor and German professor samples were calculated and compared.

Data Analysis for Research Question 1

A one-sample *t* test was used to test whether the means of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) five dimensions of culture for a sample of economic professors from U.S. universities and colleges were significantly different from a test value, or those calculated by Hofstede for his original IBM sample of respondents from the United States. Hofstede (1994) provided the formula for calculating each of the index values for his five dimensions (Appendix H).

After the determination of whether there was a significant difference between Hofstede's original values and those collected from the U.S. economic professors, the effect size was calculated. "The effect size evaluates the degree that the mean scores on the test variable differ from the test value in standard deviation units…values of .2, .5, and .8, regardless of sign, are by

convention interpreted as small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively" (Green & Salkind, 2005, p. 157).

Data Analysis for Research Question 2

A one-sample *t* test was used to test whether the means of Hofstede's (1989, 2001) five dimensions of culture for a sample of economic professors from German *Fachhochschulen* were significantly different from a test value, or those calculated by Hofstede (1980) for his original IBM sample of respondents from Germany. Hofstede (1994) provided the formula for calculating each of the index values for his five dimensions (Appendix H).

Data Analysis for Research Question 3

An independent-samples *t* test was used to test whether there was a significant difference between the U.S. and German samples of higher education economics professors on all five of Hofstede's (2001) dimensions of culture. The effect sizes were calculated with "values of .2, .5, and .8, regardless of sign, are by convention interpreted as small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively" (Green & Salkind, 2005, p. 169).

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (*r*) was calculated to assess the level of correlation between the two dimensions of individualism and power distance as these cultural dimensions were found to be highly correlated when not corrected for country wealth.

Data Analysis for Research Question 4

Hofstede (2001) found that power distance and occupation were correlated. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (*r*) was calculated to assess the level of correlation

between the Power Distance Index and the number of years that a faculty member has worked in the economics profession.

Summary

This chapter discussed the research design of this study which attempted to discern the comparative values of the cultural dimensions identified by Hofstede (1980, 2001) for German economics faculty teaching at *Fachhochschulen* and economics faculty teaching at Carnegie classification *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive) universities (Carnegie Foundation Web site, n. d.). The data collection instrument was discussed and the research questions and the statistical treatment of the data were outlined.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

Descriptive Analysis of the Sample

The purpose of this research was to determine the cultural values of economics professors in the US and Germany in order to develop a cultural contingent leadership model. Hofstede's (2001) Values Survey Model (VSM) 94 (Appendices B and C) was the instrument that was used. Hofstede emphasized the critical nature of the size and similarity of samples with the warning that "cross-national research should be done only on matched samples—that is, samples similar in all respects except nationality" and that the sample size should be "at least 20 and preferably 50 per country" (p. 463). The samples in this research were carefully matched and there has been sufficient response, according to Hofstede, to represent the two populations.

The U.S. population for this study involved 423 U.S. economics professors listed on the economic department Web sites of the 86 Carnegie classified *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive) institutions that award master's degrees in the humanities, social sciences, and STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) fields, and degrees in one or more professional fields (Carnegie Foundation Web site, n. d.). There were a total of 133 respondents in this category (31% response rate) with 114 listing their current nationality as the same as at birth. Within the classification of similar type of German institutions, or *Fachhochschulen*, there were 130 institutions, with approximately 90 of these institutions having economics faculty who either taught in a business or economics department, or both. The population for these *Fachhochschulen* numbered 221 professors. A total of 61 German economics professors

responded (28% response rate) with 57 of these professors listing both a current German citizenship and German citizenship at birth.

The response rates for the samples of U.S. and German professors who met the criterion of having a current citizenship that was also the citizenship at birth were similar at 27% and 26%, respectively. In addition, both the mean age and years of experience in the profession were well-matched as was the percentage of males in the populations and in the samples (Table 8).

Table 8

U.S. and German Economics Professor Demographics

Country	*n*	Response %	*M* Age	*M* Years Experience	Population Male	Sample Male
US	114	27%	49	16	87%	81%
Germany	57	26%	49	19	84%	79%

The means for the index values calculated for Hofstede's five cultural dimensions indicate that German professors have higher mean indices values compared to their U.S. counterparts for the cultural dimensions of power distance (PDI) and uncertainty avoidance (UAI) while having lower values for individualism and collectivism (IDV), masculinity and feminism (MAS), and long term orientation (LTO) (Table 9). The most striking difference was with the MAS index. In addition, the standard deviations of the indices values were similar between the two groups as are the range values.

In comparing the cultural dimension indices mean values to the original range of those established with Hofstede's (1980) original 40 countries, the U.S. economics professors in the dimensions of PDI and UAI were in the low end of the range of values, in the mid-range in the

Table 9

U.S. and German Economics Professor Descriptive Statistics

Dimensions	*M*		STD		Range	
	US	Germany	US	Germany	US	Germany
PDI	10	26	49.3	56.4	-110 – 165	-60 – 225
UAI	19	23	62.3	63.0	-90 – 200	-95 – 165
IDV	105	85	43.4	47.5	-40 – 200	-45 – 205
MAS	53	-11	98.5	86.2	-210 – 290	-190 – 150
LTO	51	44	23.3	22.4	0 – 120	0 – 100

cultural dimensions of MAS and LTO, and outside of the range in the area of IDV (Table 10). The German economics professors are also in the bottom quartile of Hofstede's original range of values for the dimensions of PDI and UAI, in the top quartile of values in the IDV dimension, in the midrange of the LTO dimension, but outside of the range and actually a negative value in the MAS cultural dimension.

Table 10

Hofstede (2001)Values with U.S. and German Economics Professor Values

Dimensions	Hofstede		Professor Values	
	Range of Values	*M*	US	German
PDI	11 – 94	57	10	26
UAI	8 – 112	65	19	23
IDV	12 – 91	53	105	85
MAS	5 – 95	49	53	-11
LTO	0 – 118	46	51	44

Note: LTO cultural dimension not part of Hofstede's original study. Mean values are from Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions for IBM employees

Hofstede (2001) maintained that the indices were independent dimensions and should not be significantly correlated. He found among wealthy countries in previous studies that UAI was significantly correlated with IDV, PDI, and MAS, but once the level of wealth was factored out, the correlation became insignificant. Given that the intervals between scores lack quantitative meaning (ordinal data), the bivariate correlation measure Spearman's rho (r_s) was an appropriate measure of correlation with correlations of .10, .30, and .50 interpreted as small, medium, and strong coefficients, respectively (Green & Salkind, 2005). Among the U.S. economics faculty, only UAI and MAS had a significant, although weak, correlation at $p < .05$ (Table 11). With the German economics faculty, UAI was significantly correlated with PDI, as was IDV and LTO ($p < .05$) (Table 12).

Table 11

Spearman's Correlation of U.S. Economics Professor Cultural Dimensions

	UAI	IDV	MAS	LTO
PDI	0.16	0.13	-0.03	-0.02
UAI	—	0.13	-0.27*	-0.08
IDV	0.13	—	-0.10	0.13
MAS	-0.27*	-0.10	—	-0.15

Note: *$p < .05$.

Table 12

Spearman's Correlation of German Economics Professor Cultural Dimensions

Dimensions	UAI	IDV	MAS	LTO
PDI	0.28*	-0.08	0.15	-0.24
UAI	—	-0.25	0.19	-0.18
IDV	-0.25	—	0.00	-0.27*
MAS	0.19	0.00	—	0.01

Note: $p < .05$.

Research Question 1

To what extent are the cultural values obtained from a sample of professors in the academic field of economics who teach at 86 Carnegie classification *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive) universities similar to the five cultural dimensions that Hofstede (1980, 2001) identified for the United States?

A direct comparison of Hofstede's (1980) original cultural dimension values from IBM workers in the United States and Germany (the LTO dimension was based on student responses from 22 countries) was added in the early 1990s) were compared to the calculated cultural dimension index values for the U.S. and German economics faculties, respectively, using *t* tests. In addition, given Hofstede's (2001) emphasis on using matched samples to compare to his original IBM cultural dimension index values, Boseland's educational adjustment factors (Appendix H) were used to adjust the calculated sample economics faculty index values in order to bring them in line with the educational background of the respondents in Hofstede's original IBM sample.

The one-sample *t* test has two underlying assumptions. These assumptions were that the test variable was normally distributed in the population and that they were independent of each other (Green & Salkind, 2005). Each of the five dimensions from the samples of U.S. and German economics professors were checked for normality and independence. Using the calculated unstandardized residuals, all sample measures of cultural dimensions had skewness and kurtosis measures that were within the acceptable range of under 1.0. In cases where the Shapiro-Wilk's test led to a $p < .05$, such as in the case of the German professor PDI value, checking for outliers using a boxplot led to dropping one observation and an establishment of the Shapiro-Wilk's value in the range of the non-rejection of the null hypothesis of normality (from .006 before dropping the outlier to .149 after dropping the outlier). This was in accordance with the case that findings of nonnormal distributions are usually a function of one or a few extreme outliers (Lomax, 2001). In all cultural dimension samples, normal and detrended graphs of Q-Q Plots indicated normal distributions. A plot of residuals for all cultural dimensions indicated random displays of the observations.

For the U.S. economics faculty calculated index values, it was found that only the MAS index value was not significantly different from the original IBM Hofstede index values for the United States ($p < .01$) (Table 13). Referring to Cohen's *d* measure of effect size, values of .2, .5, and .8, independent of sign, were interpreted to have small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively (Green & Salkind, 2005). It was found that only the cultural index value for MAS did not have at least a small measure of effect size. The LTO index value was found to have a large effect, PDI had a medium effect, while UAI and IDV had small effect sizes.

When the Boseland education adjustment (Appendix H) was used to adjust the five dimensions of the U.S. economics faculty, PDI, UAI, and IDV were all found to be significantly different from Hofstede's original IBM values ($p < .01$). MAS was significantly different at the $p < .05$ level. Effect sizes ranged from small to large.

Research Question 2

To what extent are the cultural values obtained from a sample of professors in the academic field of economics who teach at approximately 90 German *Fachhochschulen* (universities of applied sciences) similar to the five cultural dimensions that Hofstede (1980, 2001) identified for Germany?

Comparing German economic faculty cultural index values to those calculated for IBM employees by Hofstede (1980) in the 1960s and 1970s (and the later added LTO dimension), it was found that all cultural index values except those for PDI were significantly different than the original Hofstede values ($p < .01$) (Table 13). Calculated measures of effect size indicated a strong effect for MAS, medium effect for UAI and LTO, and small effect for IDV. Only PDI did not have at least a small effect size. After the Boseland educational adjustments (BA) were made, the *t* tests produced the same results, except that PDI was not significantly different the original values. Effect sizes with the BA factor was strong for all values other than PDI.

Table 13

U.S. and German Professor *t* Tests with Boseland Education Adjustment (BA)

Dimensions	US				Germany			
	t Test	*d*	*t* Test (BA)	*d* (BA)	*t* Test	*D*	*t* Test (BA)	*d* (BA)
PDI	-6.44**	-0.61	-8.63**	-0.81	-1.16	-0.16	0.77	0.11
UAI	-4.55**	-0.43	-6.94**	-0.65	-4.83**	-0.67	-7.39**	-1.02
IDV	3.37**	0.32	8.27**	0.78	2.67**	0.37	-10.16**	-1.41
MAS	-0.97	-0.09	-2.26*	-0.21	-6.45**	-0.89	-7.46**	-1.03
LTO	10.20**	0.96			4.30**	0.57		

Note LTO cultural dimension not part of Hofstede's original study. BA = Boseland education adjustment.

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

Research Question 3

To what extent are the cultural values obtained from samples of U.S. and German professors who teach in the academic field of economics similar to the five cultural dimensions identified by Hofstede (1980, 2001) for the US and Germany?

The results of the research have indicated that only the MAS dimension for the U.S. economics faculty was not significantly different from Hofstede's original values; and for the German economics faculty, only the PDI dimension was not significantly different (Table 14). Even with the adjustment of the samples by the Boseland education adjustment factor (BA), the results were the same for the German sample (only PDI not significantly different) with all of the U.S. cultural values significantly different from Hofstede's original values ($p < .05$). Next, the independent samples for the economics faculties from the United States and Germany were directly compared using the independent samples *t* test.

Table 14

Independent Samples *t* Test Between U.S. and German Professors

Dimensions	Independent Samples *t* Test	*d*	r_s
PDI	1.76	0.30	0.16
UAI	-0.24	0.04	-0.20
IDV	2.60**	0.44	0.08
MAS	4.24**	0.71	-0.10
LTO	1.97	0.33	-0.00

Note. $*p < .01$.

The necessary assumptions for the Independent samples *t* test were normality, equal variances (homogeneity), and independence of the samples (Green & Salkind, 2005). As discussed earlier, the U.S. and German economic faculty samples met the requirement for normality and independence. Levene's test was used to confirm the homogeneity assumption. For all cultural dimensions for both faculties, the Levene values exceeded $p = .05$, thus the assumption of homogeneity cannot be rejected for all cultural dimensions for both samples. The Independent samples *t* tests conducted between corresponding dimensions led to the conclusions that for the cultural dimensions PDI, UAI, and LTO, the assumption that the two samples have values that are equal cannot be rejected (Table 14). For the cultural dimensions IDV and MAS, the differences between the values were found to be significant ($p < .01$), with effect sizes running from weak to strong respectively. Examination of the correlation coefficients led to the indication that there was a weak, although not significant, correlation between only the UAI for the U.S. and German economic faculties.

Hofstede (2001) indicated that the litmus test of whether the cultural dimensions of samples correspond to his original IBM samples is whether the relative difference between the

sample cultural dimension values between two nationalities matched the relative differences between the original IBM employee values of two different cultures in a dimension both in the difference between the scores and the sign of the difference. In order to compare the relative difference between the U.S. and German economics faculties, it was necessary to see if there was indeed any difference between the measured cultural dimensions between the two groups of faculties.

Hofstede (2001) interpreted Hoppe's (1990) values as having replicated his results with the IBM employees in all but the MAS cultural dimension; thus it was useful to compare Hofstede's relative differences between the U.S. and German IBM employees with the relative differences found among Hoppe's elites (Table 15). The greatest difference between the values of IBM employees in the US and Germany in Hofstede's original study and Hoppe's elites was

Table 15

Relative Difference Between U.S. and German Cultural Values for Three Studies

Dimensions	Hofstede	Hoppe Elites	Economics Faculties
PDI	5	-5	-16
UAI	-19	-19	-4
IDV	24	38	20
MAS	4	44	64
LTO	-2		7

Note. LTO cultural dimension not part of Hofstede's original study.

in the MAS dimension. In a comparison of the relative differences between respondents in the US and Germany in Hoppe's (1990) study and the current study, the directions of the signs were all the same. The current study values were much closer to the Hoppe study than to the Hofstede study, with the greatest difference in the values found (less than half the difference between the

Hofstede and Hoppe studies) in the MAS dimension. In a closer inspection of the demographics of the Hoppe study, it can be seen that there are many similarities between Hoppe's elites and the economics faculty respondents in this study. Over 70% of Hoppe's elites have education levels equivalent to a master's degree or doctorate. In addition, 60% worked in the public sector with almost 30% having worked for an academic institution, and 16% had economics as their first discipline of study.

Research Question 4

To what extent does the number of years of socialization in the economics profession affect the values for power distance which Hofstede (1980) identified as being related to occupation?

Given that Hofstede (2001) indicated that PDI and years of experience in a profession were correlated, the bivariate correlation Spearman's rho was calculated for the PDI cultural dimension index and years of experience for U.S. economics faculty. No significant relationship was discovered (r_s = -.076). This result was duplicated when the level of correlation was investigated between German economics faculty and years of experience (r_s = -.179). When the two samples were combined, again there was no significant correlation discovered (r_s = .028).

Summary

An examination of the data collected in this study indicated that the samples for the U.S. and German higher education faculties in the field of economics were well matched in their demographic characteristics. This was a necessary requirement in order to compare the data in

the five cultural dimensions with the original IBM sample and the subsequently added LTO dimension, as well as to compare the two faculties to each other (Hofstede, 2001).

The primary purpose of this study was to find the cultural dimension values of higher education economics faculty from the United States and Germany in order to develop a cultural contingency leadership model. This model could be used, for instance, to lead a faculty in providing online learning opportunities to developing countries.

It was discovered that the cultural dimensions for both the U.S. and German faculties were different from those of Hofstede's (1980) original sample. This was the case even when the U.S. and German faculty samples were adjusted using the Boseland education adjustment factor. It was, however, found that there were similarities between the two faculties in three out of the five cultural dimensions.

Hofstede (2001) contended that a replication of his work was successful if the differences between the values for two countries in specific cultural dimensions were similar, both in size of the differences and the signs of the differences. Comparing the relative difference between the U.S. and German economics faculties to the relative differences between Hofstede's original U.S. and German IBM employees, it was found that three out of the five dimensions replicated the sign of the original data. The closest relationship was found to be in the critical (Hofstede 1980, 2001; Triandis, 1995) IDV dimension, with values of 24 and 20 for the U.S. and Germany, respectively (Table 16).

Hofstede (2001) found Hoppe's study to be the best replication of his original IBM study. Hoppe's sample dealt with an elite (education, social, and employment status) group while Hofstede's original study dealt with a cross-sampling of IBM employees from all levels of the organization. It was found that the relative differences between his U.S. and German samples

and the Hoppe samples were similar for all but the MAS cultural dimension. The signs were identical in three out of four of the dimensions. This study found that the differences between the dimensions of the U.S. and German economics faculties, also an exclusive group considering education, social and employment status, emulated the Hoppe study exactly in the signs of the relative difference in the dimensions and were quite close in comparison of the actual numbers.

Finally, Hofstede (2001) found that the cultural dimension PDI was most closely related to years of experience in a profession. No significant correlation was found between the PDI cultural dimension index and years of experience for either the U.S., German, or combination of economic faculties.

Chapter 5 presents the findings of this study in the context of the theoretical foundations provided in the literature review of Chapter 2. A cultural contingent leadership model is presented that takes into account the leadership strategies appropriate for the discovered cultural values for the U.S. and German economics faculties.

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of Findings

Literature Review

This study was conducted to determine the cultural dimensions of higher education economics faculties from the United States and Germany in order to formulate a cultural contingent leadership model. The model was premised on the Triandis (1993) cultural contingent leadership model based on Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory. A cultural contingent leadership model would be useful in leading, for instance, a multinational faculty in providing online economics courses and programs in developing countries. The combination of US and German higher education institutions offering economic education to students in developing countries would capitalize on the inherent attributes of U.S. and German institutions. These include the version of capitalism practiced in each country, the leadership position of the US in providing education online and in other countries, English as the native language in the US, and finally the reputation in developing countries of Germany's higher education system. The methodology for developing a cultural contingent leadership model would not be limited to these nationalities or to this industry.

The cultural values discovered were compared to the Hofstede (1980, 2001) original cultural dimensions that included individualism and collectivism (IDV), large versus small power distance (PDI), strong versus weak uncertainty avoidance (UAI), masculinity and femininity (MAS), and long-term orientation (LTO) (added in the early 1990s). These

dimensions provide useful and very user-friendly constructs (Chanchani & Theivanathampillai, 2002). Hofstede's values were determined through a survey of over 100,000 IBM employees in initially 40 countries where IBM was represented in the late 1960s and validated later in the 1970s in 70 countries. Hofstede found that the US and Germany differed significantly in the cultural dimensions of IDV and UAI. This was corroborated in a study by Hoppe (1990), whose replication of Hofstede's original study was deemed to be the most professional to date (Hofstede, 2001). Hoppe's elites (leaders in industry, education, and government) including members from the US and Germany, also differed in the dimensions of IDV and UAI as well as MAS. This study, in part, attempted to replicate Hofstede's work and compared the values of the economics faculties in the US and Germany to the original IBM values of a cross-section of IBM employees in the US and Germany. The Bosland education adjustment (Appendix H) was used to adjust the samples of the U.S. and German economics faculties, who had at least 16 years of formal education, to the less well-educated IBM sample. In addition, the U.S. economics faculty and the German economics faculty, carefully matched by institution as well as demographics, were compared. Finally, this study examined the role of occupation in determining culture. In order to substantiate Prieto's (1997) theory that occupation plays a significant role in the determination of culture, the correlation of PDI to years of experience in the economics profession was examined. Hofstede's findings supported a significant correlation across countries between occupation and the PDI cultural dimension.

Both Fiedler's (1967) and Hofstede's (1980) models were based upon values (Hofstede, 2001; Rice, 1978). Fiedler's Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) model depended on the leader's emphasis on the importance of either tasks or relationships. When this is combined with the situational variables of task structure, leader member relations, and position power, the

combination will determine the leader's effectiveness. Triandis (1993) advocated that a solution to a cultural challenge, such as one involved in leading a multinational faculty, began with the identification of the emic factors, or those unique to a specific culture, and then moved on to a solution that is etic, or universal, to all cultures. Triandis felt that Hofstede's cultural dimensions could be tied to Fiedler's situational variables with UAI related to task structure, IDV and MAS equivalent to leader member relations, and PDI equal to position power.

A multinational faculty involved in a joint venture to provide online learning to developing countries would be involved in a situation that was low in task structure as well as in position power, given that the task would, at least initially, be ill-defined and fluid and department chairs of academic units have little position power with faculty (Gmelch & Miskin, 2004). This leaves the leader member relations variable, defined by Beach and Beach (1978), as well as Fiedler and Chemers (1984), as the most important situational variable, as the last of the situational variables that could be determined for the multinational economics faculty involved in an online joint venture to offer economics courses in developing countries. Once the values for the cultural dimensions of the multinationals participating were discovered, in-match leaders should be sought as they would be more accepted by followers (Thomas, 1999; Triandis, 1993; van Vianen & De Dreu, 2001). This would in turn lead to better leader member relations and conditions for more effective leadership (Chemers, 2000; Chemers, Hays, Rhodewalt, & Wysocki, 1985; Fiedler, 1967; Gerstner, 1994; Kabanoff, 1981; Meindl, 1990; Newman & Nolan, 1996; Thomas, 1999).

Research

Using Hofstede's (1994) Values Survey Module 94 (VSM 94) in English and German (Appendices B and C), over 400 U.S. economics faculty members at 86 Carnegie classification *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive) universities and over 200 German *Fachhochschulen* economics faculty members were surveyed. An online questionnaire was used with rates of usable (responding that both current citizenship and citizenship at birth were the same) responses for both at slightly under 30%, meeting Hostede's (2001) recommended minimum of at least 50 responses per country (113 usable responses for the U.S. faculty and 57 usable responses for the German faculty).

Hofstede (2001) indicated that replications of his original research needed to have samples that were well matched. Both the U.S. and German economics faculty were matched in age (both averaged 49 years of age), average years of experience (19 to 16 years, respectively), and gender (81% to 79% male, respectively) (Table 8).

Hofstede's (1994) formulas (Appendix H) were used to calculate the indices values for Hofstede's five cultural dimensions for both the U.S. and German economics faculty samples. Standard deviations for the two samples were similar across all cultural dimensions as were the ranges of values (Table 9). Hofstede (2001) stressed that his cultural indices were independent dimensions. Bivariate correlations Spearman's rho were calculated and it was found that the majority of the indices were not correlated, with only UAI and MAS correlated ($p < .05$) for the U.S. economics faculty (Tables 11 & 12). For the German economics faculty, UAI and PDI as well as IDV and LTO were correlated ($p < .05$).

Conclusions

Research Question 1

To what extent are the cultural values obtained from a sample of professors in the academic field of economics who teach at 86 Carnegie classification *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive) universities similar to the five cultural dimensions that Hofstede (1980, 2001) identified for the United States?

Using one sample *t* tests it was discovered that four out of the five cultural dimensions for the U.S. economics faculty were significantly different ($p < .01$) from Hofstede's (1980, 2001) original IBM employees (the LTO was based on a student sample), with only the MAS value not leading to the conclusion that a significant difference existed (Table 13). For the cultural values that were discovered to be significantly different, the measure of effect sizes ranged from small to large. When the cultural index values calculated for the U.S. economics faculty were adjusted by the Boseland education adjustment factor (Appendix H) in order to account for the differential in education between Hofstede's IBM employee sample and the economics professor sample, all values other than the MAS for the economics sample were still found to be significantly different at the $p < .01$, with MAS significantly different at $p < .05$.

The data indicated that a sample of U.S. economics professors at Carnegie classification *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive) universities was significantly different from the original IBM U.S. employees in the area of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) cultural dimensions even when the sample data was adjusted for its higher level of education. While the nationality was the same, the demographic characteristics of the U.S. economics professors are different, not only in education but also in the areas of experience and the type of occupation. That the two

samples would differ significantly is not surprising especially as it is felt that occupation plays a significant role in determining cultural values (Hofstede, 1980; Prieto, 1997; Wenger, 1998).

This research did confirm Hofstede's (2001) finding that the five cultural dimensions were independent of each other. In the present study, only one out of the ten unique combinations possible were correlated, namely UAI and MAS ($p < .05$) (Table 11).

The answer to the first research question indicated that for this specific sample, a cultural contingent leadership model developed using Hofstede's (1980, 2001) original values to design a cultural contingency leadership model would not be theoretically sound.

Research Question 2

To what extent are the cultural values obtained from a sample of professors in the academic field of economics who teach at approximately 90 German *Fachhochschulen* (universities of applied sciences) similar to the five cultural dimensions that Hofstede (1980, 2001) identified for Germany?

Single sample *t* tests were used to ascertain whether the five cultural dimensions of economics faculty in Germany at *Fachhochschulen* replicated the results found by Hofstede (1980, 2001) for his sample of IBM workers in Germany. The results were calculated both before and after adding the Boseland education adjustment (BA) factor (Table 13).

The *t* tests confirmed that the sample of German economics professors had cultural values that were significantly different in four out of the five categories ($p < .01$). It was found that only the PDI dimension for the German professors was not significantly different from Hofstede's IBM sample. Effect sizes ranged from small for the IDV cultural dimension, medium for UAI, and strong for MAS. These results (only the PDI not significantly different) were replicated even after the BA factor was added with strong effect sizes for IDV, UAI, and MAS.

Comparison of U.S. and German Professor Samples with Hofstede's (1980, 2001) Results

While the PDI value dropped from a value of 35 to 26 in comparing the original German IBM employees to the German economics professors (not significantly different), it dropped from a value of 40 to 10 in comparing the U.S. IBM employees to the U.S. economics professors (Table 4 and Table 10). One explanation for the lack of significant change in PDI demonstrated among economics faculty in Germany is the status of professors in Germany. The power distance between most professors in the system and those who are at the research institutions, have civil service appointments, and usually chair an academic department, is demonstrably great (Altbach, 1998b, 2000). Thus the respect granted that accompanies a title, academic or otherwise, in Germany was generally greater than in most countries (Schmidt, 2000). This seems to be the case even in German academia.

A possible explanation as to why this sample of U.S. professors was not significantly different from Hofstede's (1980, 2001) original IBM sample in the MAS cultural dimension while the German sample of economics professors did differ significantly and scored extremely low in this dimension (Table 10), may be found in the relative philosophy of the two economics faculties. Hofstede (2001) described both the US and Germany as countries high in MAS, in comparison to countries in Scandinavia such as Sweden and Norway which are low in MAS, with low MAS typified by "sympathy for the weak" (p. 299). The market in the United States was viewed by the majority of economists to be efficient in the use of resources thus the role of government in redistributing resources and providing a social safety net is limited (Gardner, 1998). To the other extreme, the low MAS Scandinavian countries had a higher level of government intervention in supporting an economy with generous social benefits (Gardner). While Germany was a country high in MAS, in a survey of 1,000 students in higher education

institutions in Germany, 80% indicated that they felt that it was very important for them to get a job after graduation that was useful to the community (Pritchard, 2004). In the same survey, it was reported that professors in German higher education were highly skeptical of what was described as *academic capitalism*, or the case of using market mechanisms to spur research. The difference in relative philosophies may account for the significant difference in the MAS cultural dimension between Hofstede's (1980) original German IBM sample of middle class respondents with average education levels and the highly educated German economics professors (66 and -11, respectively). It is also noteworthy that a similar difference was noted between Hofstede's (1980) IBM German sample and Hoppe's German elites (66 and -2, respectively). There was, however, only a small difference between the U.S. IBM respondents and the U.S. elites (62 and 42, respectively) as well as between the U.S. elites and U.S. economics professors (42 and 53, respectively). The German elites, similar to the German economics professors, scored very low on the MAS index (-2 and -11, respectively).

The German sample of economics faculty at *Fachhochschulen* did not have cultural values that were comparable to Hofstede's original IBM sample for Germany. Using the cultural values from the IBM sample to design a cultural contingency leadership strategy for German professors from *Fachhochschulen* who would, for instance, be involved in a multinational joint venture to provide online economics courses to students in developing countries, would not be appropriate.

Research Question 3

To what extent are the cultural values obtained from samples of U.S. and German professors who teach in the academic field of economics similar to the five cultural dimensions identified by Hofstede (1980, 2001) for the US and Germany?

A cultural contingent leadership model assumes that cultural values are emic to a nationality, but a leadership strategy can be developed which incorporates the "greatest of all moderators" (Triandis, 1993, p. 168) to arrive at a model that is etic for all cultures. In order to design a leadership strategy that would be successful in leading a multinational joint venture, it would be necessary to understand the cultural difference that separates the members of the various cultures. If the cultures were similar, an appropriate strategy would be to use a leadership methodology that has been shown to be successful with the members of the cultures that were involved. If the members of the group are from disparate cultures, it would be necessary to design a leadership strategy that attempts to capitalize on the differences that exist.

Independent samples *t* tests were conducted to examine whether the U.S. and German economics professors were similar in their cultural values. The areas of greatest difference with Hofstede's U.S. and German IBM sample were in the cultural values of UAI and IDV (-19 and 24, respectively) (Table 4). The independent *t* tests confirmed that the difference between the two groups of economics professors was preserved in the IDV dimension (Table 14).

A significant difference was also discovered in the MAS dimension ($p < .05$). A significant difference was not found in the UAI dimension nor in the PDI and LTO dimensions. As mentioned in the second research question, the difference between the U.S. faculty and the German faculty in the cultural dimension of MAS may be attributed to the difference in philosophy between the U.S. and German economic faculties, with the U.S. faculty believing in

the power of the market to distribute resources (Gardner, 1998) and with the German faculty believing in the perceived mission of universities in Germany to prepare students for taking their role as the educational elites and, as such, having a responsibility as stewards of those less fortunate in society (Prichard, 2004).

It was a significant finding that there appeared to be a shifting of cultural values not only between Hofstede's original values and the values found for the economics professors but also that there were still differences between nationalities. This supports Hofstede's (2001) findings that,

> there was no international convergence of cultural values over time, except toward increased individualism for countries having become richer. Value differences between nations described by authors centuries ago are still present today, in spite of continued close contacts. For the next few hundred years, countries will remain culturally very diverse. (p. 454).

Research Question 4

To what extent does the number of years of socialization in the economics profession affect the values for power distance which Hofstede (1980) identified as being related to occupation?

While Holland (1997) felt that personality affected occupational choice, Wenger (1998) theorized that occupation was both a reflection and a modifier of the attitudes and values of the practitioners, with the length of exposure to the methods and philosophy within the profession affecting the practitioner. Both Prieto (1997) and Hofstede (2001) acknowledged that occupation is the primary variable, outside of nationality, that affects cultural values. Specifically, the cultural dimension PDI has been shown to correlate significantly with occupation across countries, enabling the use of occupation to predict the value of PDI across cultures.

The bivariate correlation Spearman's rho was calculated between the years of experience of economics faculty in the profession for the U.S. faculty, the German faculty, and a combination of the U.S. and German faculties. The values discovered were not significant (r_s = -.076, -.179, and .028, respectively). This confirmed Hofstede's (2001) finding that there would not be a correlation at the individual level for occupation and PDI. The correlation, Hofstede maintained, would be at the country level.

Recommendations

Using the similarities and differences found between Hofstede's (1980, 2001) original findings and replications of his work, recommendations for a cultural contingent leadership strategy relevant to faculty from the United States and Germany involved in a joint venture to offer economics courses online to students in developing counties were made. The same methodology used to develop this strategy is applicable to any multinational endeavor susceptible to cultural contingent leadership challenges. Developing a cultural contingent leadership strategy to lead a multinational joint venture is critical as it is inevitable that cultural conflict will arise (Barkema & Vermeulen, 1997; Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999; More & Spekman, 1994).

A qualitative comparison of the cultural dimension as measured by Hofstede (1980, 2001), Hoppe (1990), and the study measuring the cultural values of economics professors in the US and Germany indicated that there were similarities between both the Hoppe replication study and the current study as well as between the dimensions of the U.S. and German economics professors (Table 16). Given three qualitative degrees of comparison (*low*, *moderate*, and *high*)

of cultural values, based on Hofstede's (2001) established range of values (Table 10), with the additional qualification of *very*, the Hoppe study and the economics professors study matched on all eight cases when comparing Hoppe's U.S. elite respondents to the U.S. economics professors as well as Hoppe's German elites to the German economics professors using the three degrees of comparison (low, moderate, and high). When exact matches were sought (e.g., *very high = very high* but *very high ≠ high*), the Hoppe elites and the economics professors matched on six out of eight categories.

Table 16

Relative Comparison of Hofstede (1980, 2001), Hoppe (1990), and Research Cultural Values

	Hofstede		Hoppe		Economics Professors	
Dimensions	US	Germany	US	Germany	US	Germany
PDI	Moderate	Moderate	Very Low	Very Low	Very Low	Low
UAI	Moderate	High	Very Low	Low	Low	Low
IDV	Very High	High	Very High	High	Very High	High
MAS	High	High	Moderate	Very Low	Moderate	Very Low
LTO	Low	Low			Moderate	Moderate

Note. Hofstede (1980) original study and Hoppe (1990) study did not include LTO dimension.

Having established the qualitative similarity between Hoppe's elites and the economics professors, the same broad classifications were used to compare U.S. and German professors in Hofstede's five cultural dimensions. The similarity was used to create a cultural contingent leadership strategy based on the Triandis (1993) model which related Hofstede's five dimensions of culture to Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory. Finally, findings from numerous studies relating Hofstede's cultural dimensions to leadership lessons were used.

Triandis (1993) related Fiedler's (1967) situational variables (leader member relations, task structure, and position power) to Hofstede's (1980) individualism and collectivism (IDV) and masculine and femininity (MAS), uncertainty avoidance (UA), and power distance (PDI), respectively. All but IDV indicate lower levels for the values (combination of *moderate* and *very low* for MAS). Triandis indicated that there was an inverse relationship between the Hofstede cultural dimensions and Fiedler's LPC values with low values for Hofstede's dimensions (1980, 2001) indicating a need for high LPC or relationship oriented leaders (Table 17). In the only study relating Hofstede's values to LPC, UAI was negatively correlated with LPC (Hofstede, 2001), corroborating the Triandis theory. Thus the *low* to *very low* values for the dimensions UAI and PDI indicated that for U.S. and German economics professors, a high LPC leader (relationship oriented) should be more successful. However, given the mismatch in the MAS dimension and the contrary indication from the IDV dimension (indicating a low LPC task oriented leader would be more appropriate), the evidence for a high LPC relationship leader cannot be deemed to be overwhelming. Indeed, Fiedler and Chemers (1984) found that leader member relations to be the most important factor in situation control and good relations would lead to a situation of good, or at worst, moderate situational control. Fiedler found that a situation of moderate control in the LPC model (octants 4, 5, & 6) required a high LPC leader.

This research indicated than an in-match leader for a multinational (U.S. and German) joint venture to offer online economics courses for students in developing countries may be one who is relationship oriented. In contrast to these findings, applying Hofstede's original research on the cultural values of IBM employees from the US and Germany (Table 16) to the Triandis model (Table 17), found that two out of the four cultural dimensions are at high levels and are consistent with a low LPC leader, or task related leader, and two are moderate to high levels, also

skewed in favor of the alternative leadership style, task oriented, to that identified by this research for the U.S. and German economics faculties.

Table 17

Triandis (1993) Cultural Contingency Model Applied to Economics Professors

	Relative Values		Triandis Model	
Leadership Contingency/ Cultural Dimension	US	Germany	Hofstede's Dimensions	Fiedler's LPC
Leader Member Relations/				
IDV	Very High IDV	High IDV	High IDV	Low LPC*
			Low IDV	High LPC
MAS	Moderate MAS	Very Low MAS	High MAS	Low LPC
			Low MAS	High LPC
Task Structure/				
UAI	Low UAI	Low UAI	High UAI	Low LPC
			Low UAI	High LPC*
Position Power/				
PDI	Very Low PDI	Low PDI	High PDI	Low LPC
			Low PDI	High LPC*

Note. * Indicates match between U.S. and German economics professors.

Using a similar approach to the 8 octant model of situational control developed for Fiedler's contingency model, Table 18 illustrates a cultural contingency leadership model which generalizes the approach illustrated in Table 17. This model can be used as a way of developing

Table 18

Generalized Cultural Contingency Leadership Model

	High Control	Moderate Control	Low Control
Leader Member Relations/ IDV & MAS	Average of both IDV & MAS must yield high measured values	Any combination of at least 2 of the 3 (IDV & MAS, UAI, or PDI) must yield low average measured values	Average of both IDV & MAS must yield high measured values
Task Structure/UAI	High average UAI measured value (can be a low value if PDI measures at a high level)		High average UAI measured value
Position Power/PDI	High average PDI measured value (can be a low value if PDI measures at a high level)		Either high or low average PDI measured value
Recommended Leadership Type	Task oriented Leader	Relationship oriented leader	Task oriented leader

a suggestion for an in-match leader given a project which will combine employees from different cultures.

A flowchart (Figure 1) can be use to demonstrate Triandis' (1993) adaptation of Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory three factors of situational control (leader member relations, task structure, and position power) and the subsequently developed 8-octant Situational Favorableness model to Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions. The flowchart demonstrates the powerful influence that the cultural dimension individualism and collectivism has on leader member relations, recognized as the most important aspect of situational control (Fiedler & Chemers, 1984). Using a simple method of adding together the IDV and MAS cultural values, a methodology followed by Kogut and Singh (1988) in developing their "remarkable" (Smith, 2002, p. 132) model for determining the success of joint ventures involving different cultures, the U.S. and German professor cultural values for IDV and MAS from Table 9 (105, 85,53, and -11, respectively), has an average of 58. When compared to Hofstede's (2001) mean of 57 for IDV and MAS for IBM employees in all countries in his survey, there is an indication that there would be high situational control. However, the situational control of a multinational higher education joint venture, as previously discussed, would be one that has both low leader position power and task structure. As indicated in Figure 1, while the answer to the first question follows a path towards a task oriented leader, the average of the U.S. and German economics professors' UAI is not greater than 65 and their average PDI is not greater than 57. The path to moderate control is thus followed, confirming the conclusion that a relationship oriented leader is necessary (remembering that in the Triandis model, low values for UAI, a substitute for task

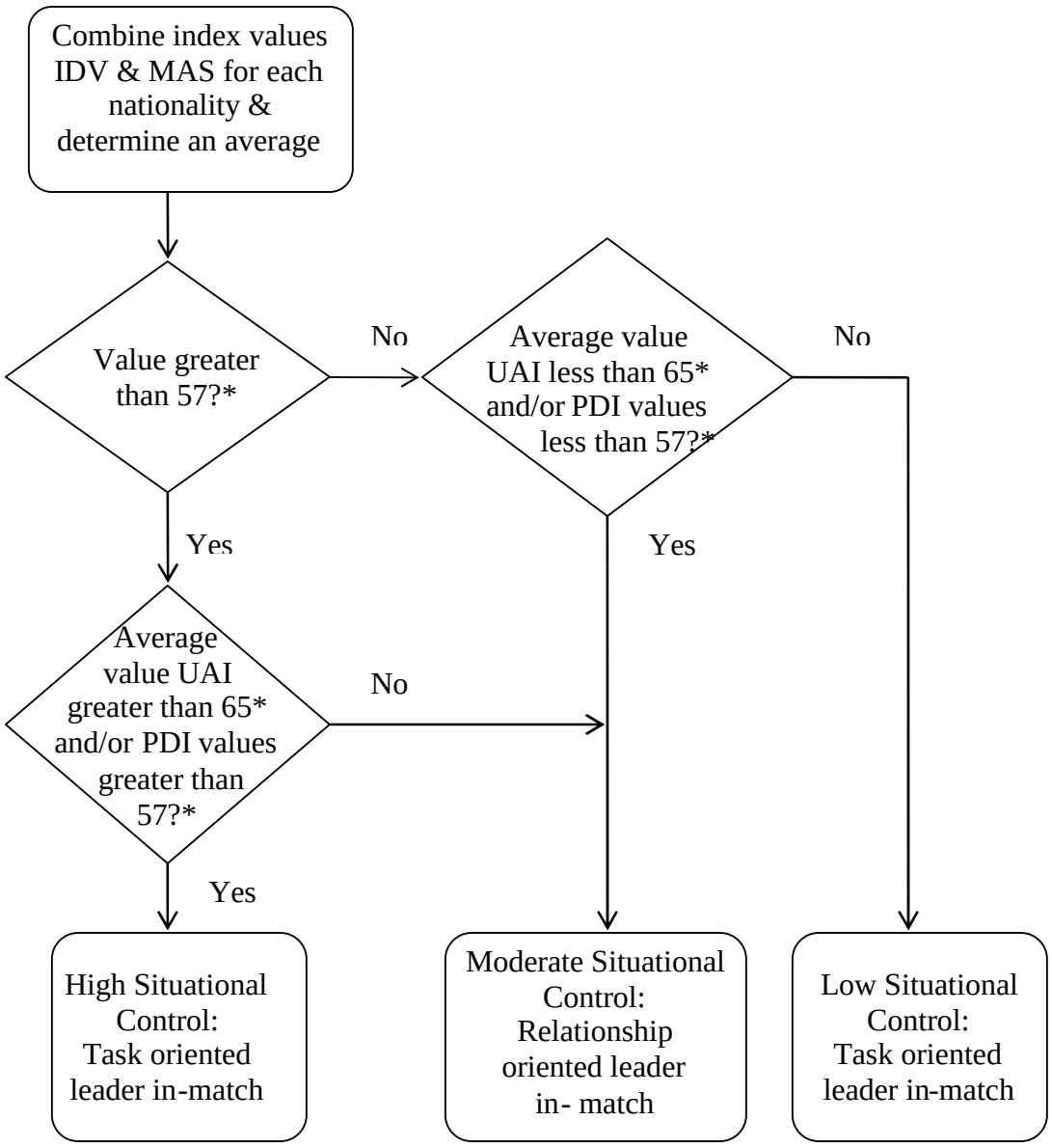

Figure 1

Flow Chart Representing Cultural Contingent Leadership Model for Multinational Higher Education Faculty Joint Venture

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Note. * Values are the mean of the dimensions for Hofstede's (2001) IBM employee cultural values (Table 10)

structure, are indications of a high LPC or relationship oriented leader while in the 8-octant model, low task structure would be a factor favoring a low LPC or task oriented leader). If the values for Hofstede's U.S. and German IBM employees in the cultural dimensions of IDV and MAS were calculated in the same way (values from Table 4), the mean of 71.5 (the average of 91, 67, 62, and 66) would be a much clearer indication of the need for a task oriented leader, although the related cultural values translating to task structure and position power would still favor moderate situational control.

The research indicated that a relationship oriented leader would be the best in-match leader to lead a multinational joint venture of economics professors from the United States and Germany to offer online economics courses to students in developing countries. There are, however, additional considerations that should be acknowledged by a leader as a result of the data discovered concerning Hofstede's (1980, 2001) individual cultural dimension values.

Given a match in the cultural dimensions of UAI and LTO, it augurs well for the success of an international joint venture between U.S. and German economics professors that the research by Barkema and Vermuelen (1997) indicated that individuals who were from countries matching in the areas of UAI and LTO (Table 16) experienced greater success in joint ventures than individuals from countries that did not match. In addition, given that both the U.S. and German professors scored low in the uncertainty avoidance cultural dimension, there is common ground for the academic approach to be taken in economics courses towards the role of business leaders in an economy as Hofstede, Van Deusen, Mueller, and Charles (2002) found that cultures high in UAI to mistrust business leaders. Thomas (1999) found that countries that were close in the IDV dimension were more receptive to adding group members. Alternatively, groups that were high in the IDV dimension were less effective as a group in collating, weighing, and

integrating information; and, thus the quality of the group decision-making was lower (Earley, 1994; Gibson, 1999). The combination of a high IDV and low PDI, as discovered for the economics professor sample, however, was associated with leaders relying on their own experiences when solving problems as opposed to relying on others (Smith, Peterson, Akande, Callan, Cho, Jesuino, et al. 1994).

Using Hofstede's (2001) findings as applied to the results of the current research associated with economics professors in the US and Germany, groups low in PDI are more receptive of consultative leadership, leading to higher group productivity, performance, and satisfaction. Goezler (2003) found that employees from countries that scored low in PDI were also more dedicated to the organizational mission. In addition, there was less reliance on formal rules, and there is also less status associated with the leadership position. Considering the low value for the UAI dimension, leaders believed in sharing power with subordinates and were likely to bear the risk of doing so. Hofstede found that higher education was a factor that will lead to lower levels of UAI and groups high in IDV expect that the employment relationship will be dictated by the rules of the *market* versus a paternal or family type of relationship.

The significant difference found in the IDV values between the U.S. and German economics faculties is a consequential finding in that many cultural researchers feel that this was the most prominent dimension that differentiates cultures (Earley, 1994; Thomas, 1999, Triandis, 1993, 1998; Trompenaars, 1994). Hofstede (2001) touched upon this when he wrote that, "Management in individualistic societies is management of individuals…Management in collectivist societies is management of groups" (Hofstede, pp. 240–241). It is perhaps useful at this point to consider Triandis' (1995) use of additional qualifiers of the IDV dimension.

While Table 17 indicated that in the IDV cultural dimension, the U.S. faculty and German faculty scored very high and high, respectively, it was discovered that a statistically significant difference existed between the two faculties (Table 14). Triandis' (1995) multidimensional view of IDV has a useful application at this point, concentrating on the difference between vertical individualism (VI) and horizontal individualism (HI). According to Triandis, a major difference between the VI and HI classification is the emphasis by those from the VI cultures to want to acquire status through competition and winning, in other words to celebrate their individuality. Triandis & Bhawuk (1997) found that employees from societies categorized as HI had the least tolerance for an autocratic leadership style, preferring a more participative leadership style while employees from VI cultures preferred a leadership style that is based on a contingency approach.

A leader of a multinational faculty with differences in IDV may want to consider the implications of this difference such as the emphasis on in-groups and whether a leader is part of that in-group, thus in-match (Gerstner, 1994). The differences in IDV also will play a role when it comes to compensation (Böhm, 2000; Erez, 1994). In addition, Trompenaars (1994) discovered in a survey of U.S. and German managers, that 40% of U.S. managers felt that decisions should be based on individual versus group considerations while only 14% of German managers gave this answer. If the two groups do indeed differ significantly in the IDV dimension, Hofstede (2001) felt that the Fisher & Ury (1981) negotiation model would not be a successful methodology in negotiating solutions to problems because it requires that people be separated from the problem. In group oriented collectivist cultures, the members of the group cannot be separated from the issue.

Considering a cultural dimension where there clearly was a cultural difference between U.S. and German professors, the measured MAS values were considerably different with a

moderate value for the U.S. professors and a very low value for German professors (Table 16). Hofstede (2001) found that low MAS was associated with the requirement for a nurturing leadership style (Sinha, 1995), employees finding that work played a less significant role in their lives, and managers were seen by employees to have a social status equivalent to that of any other employee. Conversely, with a higher level of MAS, work plays a very significant role in an employee's life as does the level of compensation, and managers can be seen as cultural heroes. Low MAS was also associated with problems being solved through negotiation rather than by conflict.

A leader of a multinational economics faculty from the United States and Germany who is offering online courses in developing countries will need an awareness of the cultural similarities and differences of the faculty they would lead. Fiedler's (1967) contingency model indicated that a situation of moderate control would require a high LPC leader, or one that is relationship oriented. This is a similar conclusion to that reached when Triandis' (1993) cultural contingency model was used in conjunction with the values that were discovered for the U.S. and German economics faculty: An in-match leader would be relationship oriented and would follow the appropriate leadership strategies that would be consistent with employees who had similar levels of PDI, LTO, and UAI, slightly different IDV, but significantly divergent levels of MAS.

Future Research

Fiedler's contingency theory has received overwhelming empirical support (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987; Peters, Hartke, & Pohlmann, 1985; Rice, 1978; Strube & Garcia, 1981). Hofstede's research on the five dimensions of culture also has had numerous replications with

studies confirming both reliability (Kogut & Singh, 1988; Newman & Nolan, 1996) and validity (Søndergaard, 1994). Values are the common basis for the Fiedler (1967) and Hofstede (1980, 2001) models, and this allowed Triandis (1993) to maintain that culture was the ultimate contingency. However, his theory of altering leadership strategies according to the cultural background of leaders and their followers lacked empirical support. This research study was a first step in providing empirical support for the Triandis theory.

Data collected from the sample of U.S. economics professors at U.S. Carnegie classification *Postbac-Comp* (postbaccalaureate comprehensive) universities and German *Fachhochschulen* economics professors indicated that the values discovered by Hofstede for the IBM sample cannot be used as surrogate data in research on the values of university faculty in the academic field of economics at these types of institutions. The next useful step would be to apply the results of this research to actual leadership situations, perhaps using a high LPC leader to lead a multinational U.S. and German economics faculty that is offering online courses to developing countries and comparing the effectiveness of this group to a similar group being led by a low LPC leader.

It was demonstrated that there was not a correlation with years in the profession to PDI as indicated by Hofstede (1980, 2001). Given that professors from only two countries were used in this survey research, additional research on economics professors in similar institutions in other countries should be undertaken to ascertain whether the years in the profession and the PDI index are correlated on a macro level.

To discover whether this methodology is etic across other nationalities and other academic fields, it would also be useful to use the same format followed in this study and apply it to both U.S. and German faculties across other academic disciplines, such as anthropology or

accounting. Should replications of this study prove that academic field does play a role, replications should be within the academic field of economics but with an expanded sample of countries. Should the results prove to be not significantly different from the results of this study, this would be an indication that academic field played an insignificant role in determining cultural values. If this were the case, it would be useful to broaden the survey to include other professors in different countries, independent of academic field, in order to design an etic cultural contingent leadership model.

Finally, any attempt to bring distance learning to students in developing countries should consider the cultural backgrounds of the students who are to be the beneficiaries of an online multinational higher education joint venture.

APPENDIX A
PERMISSION TO USE VSM 94 QUESTIONNAIRE

Dr. Geert Hofstede

Professor Emeritus

Den Bruyl 15, 6881-AN Velp, The Netherlands

Dear Dr. Hofstede:

I am conducting research at the doctoral level at the University of Central Florida in Orlando, Florida. The dissertation research concerns the implication of culture on leadership at institutes of higher education in the United States and in other countries, specifically Germany. I would like to request permission to use:

V S M 9 4 VALUES SURVEY MODULE 1994 QUESTIONNAIRE
English & German versions

The request for permission extends to any future revisions and editions of my dissertation, including non-exclusive world rights in all languages, and to the publication of my dissertation by UMI. These rights will in no way restrict republication of the material in any other form by you or by others authorized by you. Your signing of this letter will also confirm that you own (or your company owns) the copyright to the above-described material.

If these arrangements meet with your approval, please sign this letter where indicated below and return to me either with an email as per a scanned attachment or per fax (407.328.2581). Thank you for your attention in this matter.

Sincerely,

Frankie P. Albritton
Doctoral Student
Educational Leadership
University of Central Florida

PERMISSION GRANTED FOR THE USE REQUESTED ABOVE:

By: _____

Dr. Geert Hofstede

Date: March 7, 2005

GEERT HOFSTEDE
Den Bruyl 15
NL - 6881 AN VELP

APPENDIX B
VSM 94 ONLINE QUESTIONNAIRE IN ENGLISH

INTERNATIONAL QUESTIONNAIRE (VSM 94)

Please think of an ideal job, disregarding your present job, if you have one. In choosing an ideal job, how important would it be to you to ...

(please choose one answer for each of questions 1 through 12):
1 = of utmost importance
2 = very important
3 = of moderate importance
4 = of little importance
5 = of very little or no importance

1. have sufficient time for your personal or family life
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

2. have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

3. have a good working relationship with your direct superior
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

4. have security of employment
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

5. work with people who cooperate well with one another
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

6. be consulted by your direct superior in his/her decisions
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

7. have an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

8. have an element of variety and adventure in the job
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

In your private life, how important is each of the following to you?

9. Personal steadiness and stability

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

10. Thrift

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

11. Persistence (perseverance)

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

12. Respect for tradition

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

13. How often do you feel nervous or tense at work

- ○ never
- ○ seldom
- ○ sometimes
- ○ usually
- ○ always

14. How frequently, in your experience, are subordinates afraid to express disagreement with their superiors?

- ○ very seldom
- ○ seldom
- ○ sometimes
- ○ frequently
- ○ very frequently

To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements? (please choose one answer for each of questions 15 through 20):

1 = strongly agree
2 = agree
3 = undecided
4 = disagre
5 = strongly disagree

15. Most people can be trusted

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

16. One can be a good manager without having precise answers to most questions that subordinates may raise about their work

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

17. An organization structure in which certain subordinates have two bosses should be avoided at all costs

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

18. Competition between employees usually does more harm than good

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

19. A company's or organization's rules should not be broken - not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

20. When people have failed in life it is often their own fault

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

INTERNATIONAL QUESTIONNAIRE (VSM 94)

Some information about yourself (for statistical purposes):

21. Are you:

○ male
○ female

22. How old are you?

- Under 20
- 20-24
- 25-29
- 30-34
- 35-39
- 40-49
- 50-59
- 60 or over

23. How many years of formal school education (or their equivalent) did you complete (starting with primary school)?

- 10 years or less
- 11 years
- 12 years
- 13 years
- 14 years
- 15 years
- 16 year
- 17 years
- 18 years or over

24. How many years of professional experience do you have since completing your education?

- 5 years or less
- 6 to 10 years
- 11 to 15 years
- 16 to 20 years
- More than 21 years

25. What is your nationality?

26. What was your nationality at birth (if different)?

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Submit

APPENDIX C
VSM 94 ONLINE QUESTIONNAIRE IN GERMAN

INTERNATIONALER FRAGEBOGEN (VSM 94)

Bitte denken Sie an eine ideale berufliche Tätigkeit - Ihre gegenwärtige berufliche Tätigkeit, falls Sie berufstätig sind, ausser Acht gelassen. Wie wichtig ist es für Sie bei der Auswahl einer beruflichen Tätigkeit, dass..

(bitte bei jeder Aussage eine Antwort wählen):

1 = äußerst wichtig
2 = sehr wichtig
3 = einigermaßen wichtig
4 = nicht so wichtig
5 = (überhaupt) nicht wichtig

1. Sie genügend Zeit für sich persönlich oder für Ihr Familienleben haben
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

2. Sie gute Arbeitsbedingungen haben (gute Be-und Entlüftung und gutes Licht, angemessener Arbeitsplatz usw.)
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

3. Sie eine gute Arbeitsbeziehung zu Ihrer/m direkten Vorgesetzten haben
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

4. Sie einen stabilen Arbeitsplatz haben
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

5. Sie mit Menschen arbeiten, die gut miteinander kooperieren können
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

6. Sie von Ihrer/m direkten Vorgesetzten bei ihren/seinen Entscheidungen konsultiert werden
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

7. Sie Aufstiegsmöglichkeiten zu einer beruflichen Tätigkeit auf höherem Niveau haben
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

8. Ihre berufliche Tätigkeit Abwechslung und Abenteuer enthält
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

Wie wichtig ist in Ihrem Privatleben Folgendes für Sie?

9. Persönliche Stetigkeit und Stabilität

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

10. Sparsamkeit

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

11. Ausdauer (Beharrlichkeit)

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

12. Respekt für Tradition

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

13. Wie oft fühlen Sie sich bei der Arbeit nervös oder angespannt

- ○ 1. nie
- ○ 2. selten
- ○ 3. manchmal
- ○ 4. gewöhnlich
- ○ 5. immer

14. Wie häufig haben Ihrer Erfahrung nach Personen Angst, Ihren Vorgesetzten gegenüber zum Ausdruck zu bringen, dass sie ihnen nicht zustimmen?

- ○ 1. sehr selten
- ○ 2. selten
- ○ 3. manchmal
- ○ 4. häufig
- ○ 5. sehr häufig

Inwieweit stimmen Sie folgenden Aussagen zu oder nicht zu?

1 = absolut gleicher Meinung
2 = gleicher Meinung
3 = unentschieden
4 = nicht gleicher Meinung
5 = absolut nicht gleicher Meinung

15. Den meisten Menschen kann man trauen

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

16. Man kann ein guter Manager sein, auch ohne auf alle Fragen, die untergeordnete Mitarbeiter bezüglich ihrer Arbeit haben, genaue Antworten geben zu können

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

17. Die Organisationsstruktur, bei der bestimmte Beschäftigte zwei Vorgesetzte haben, sollte auf alle Fälle vermieden werden

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

18. Konkurrenz unter Beschäftigten schadet mehr, als sie nützt

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

19. Die Regeln einer Firma oder einer Organisation sollten immer eingehalten werden, auch dann, wenn der Beschäftigte denkt, sie liegen nicht im Interesse der Firma

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

20. Wenn jemand im Leben gescheitert ist, ist es oft durch eigene Schuld

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5

INTERNATIONALER FRAGEBOGEN (VSM 94)

Einige persönliche Daten (nur für statistisches Gebrauch):

21. Sind Sie:
    - ○ männlich
    - ○ weiblich

22. Wie alt sind Sie?
    - ○ unter 20 Jahren
    - ○ 20 – 24
    - ○ 25-29
    - ○ 30-34
    - ○ 35-39
    - ○ 40-49
    - ○ 50-59
    - ○ über 60 Jahre

23. Wie viele Jahre hat Ihre Schulausbildung (oder Gleichwertiges) bis zu Ihrem Abschluss gedauert, von der Grundschule an?
    - ○ 10 Jahre oder weniger
    - ○ 11 Jahre
    - ○ 12 Jahre
    - ○ 13 Jahre
    - ○ 14 Jahre
    - ○ 15 Jahre
    - ○ 16 Jahre
    - ○ 17 Jahre
    - ○ 18 Jahre oder länger

24. Wie viele Jahre Befufserfahrung seit Sie mit Ihre Ausbildung fertig sind haben Sie

- ○ 5 Jahre oder weniger
- ○ 6 bis 10 Jahre
- ○ 11 bis 15 Jahre
- ○ 16 bis 20
- ○ 21 oder länger

25. Welche Nationalität haben Sie? _____

26. Welche Nationalität hatten Sie bei Ihrer Geburt? _____

Vielen Dank fürs Mitmachen!

Submit

APPENDIX D
LETTER 1 (ENGLISH)

"Research on International Collaboration and Economic Faculty"
Frank Albritton, albrittf@scc-fl.edu
Doctoral Student (Advisor: J. House, Ph.D., jhouse@fgcu.edu),
Department of Educational Leadership
University of Central Florida

Dear Professor:

You have been chosen to complete a questionnaire on the cultural values of university and college economics professors. Your name and email address was found on your department's Web site. You will be sent in approximately one week, per email, a questionnaire which will ask you to respond to twenty-six questions concerning your values. This questionnaire is part of a university research study to determine the cultural contingent leadership necessary to lead an international educational collaborative joint venture.

It is extremely important that all randomly selected respondents complete the questionnaire. Completion of the questionnaire should take no more than 10 minutes.

Research at the University of Central Florida involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (IRB). Questions or concerns about research participants' rights may be directed to UCF Institutional Review Board Office at the University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246. The phone numbers are 407-823-2901 or 407-882-2276.

Your participation will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Frank Albritton

APPENDIX E
LETTER 1 (GERMAN)

“Research on International Collaboration and Economic Faculty”
Frank Albritton, albrittf@scc-fl.edu
Doktorant (Doktorvater, J. House, Ph.D., jhouse@fgcu.edu)
Department of Educational Leadership, University of Central Florida

Sehr geehrt,

als Fakultätsmitglied des akademischen Bereichs Wirtschaftswissenschaften möchten wir Sie hiermit bitten an einer Studie teilzunehmen, welche sich mit den Unterschieden des kulturellen Wertesystems von Wirtschaftsprofessoren beschäftigt. Ihren Namen und email Adresse haben wir auf die Website Ihre Fachhochschule gefunden. Anlässlich dieser Studie werden Sie in Kürze per Email einen Fragebogen von uns erhalten. Der von Ihnen zu beantwortende Fragebogen beinhaltet 26 Fragen. Jener ist Teil eines Forschungsprogramms zur Bestimmung eines *cultural contingent leadership,* um ein internationales bildungskooperatives joint venture einer VWL-Fakultät zu leiten (durchzuführen).

Es ist äußerst wichtig, dass alle per Zufallsgenerator ausgewählten Befragten den Fragebogen vollständig ausfüllen. Nach unserer Erfahrung wird die Beantwortung der Fragen nicht mehr als zehn Minuten in Anspruch nehmen.

Bei eventuellen Fragen wenden Sie sich bitte an das UCF Institutional Review Board Office at the University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 (Telefon: 001-407-823-2901 oder 001-407-882-2276).

Für Ihre Mithilfe bedanke ich mich bereits im Voraus.

APPENDIX F
LETTER 2 (ENGLISH)

Informed Consent

"Research on International Collaboration and Economic Faculty"
Frank Albritton, albrittf@scc-fl.edu
Doctoral Student
Department of Educational Leadership
University of Central Florida

Dear Professor:

You have been randomly chosen from a list of economics professors compiled from a list of higher education institutions developed by the Carnegie Institute to complete a questionnaire on the cultural values of university and college economics professors. The study is being conducted by Frank Albritton, an Economics Professor at Seminole Community College in Sanford, Florida and a doctoral student in Educational Leadership at the University of Central Florida (Advisor: Jess House, Ph.D.,jhouse@fgcu.edu).

The Internet is ideal for allowing business collaborations on a global scale. This is also true for higher education. In order to understand the values that faculty in higher education in different countries would bring to collaborative educational joint ventures, you, as a faculty member in the academic field of economics, are being asked to participate in an academic study through the use of a questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed by Professor Geert Hofstede and has a long history of success in evaluating the differences in cultural values.

The survey should take no more than 10 minutes to complete. The information obtained in the survey will be used as part of a dissertation in the field of higher education leadership. The survey is confidential and you can be assured that your responses will never be matched with your name, since IP addresses will be removed from the survey when it is submitted. There are no financial benefits to you or risks associated with participation in this study. If you have further questions about your rights, information is available from the contact person listed at the top of this consent form. You participation is completely voluntary and you may choose to skip any questions or end your participation at any time.

The results of this study may be published. However, the data obtained from you will be combined with data from others in the study. The published results will not include your name or any other information that would personally identify you in any way.

Research at the University of Central Florida involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (IRB). Questions or concerns about research participants' rights may be directed to UCF Institutional Review Board Office at the University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246. The phone numbers are 407-823-2901 or 407-882-2276.

To access the survey, please use the link and password below and choose the "Consent to Participate" button. Please choose an answer for all questions. You may end your participation at any time.

Link (password = e2071): http://tinyurl.com/j5ccm

Thank you very much for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Frank Albritton

Addressees who do not initially participate, will be contacted again in approximately three weeks. If you do not wish to participate, please access the following link:
http://tinyurl.com/hnsp9

APPENDIX G
LETTER 2 (GERMAN)

Bewusste Einwilligung

"Research on International Collaboration and Economic Faculty"
Frank Albritton albrittf@scc-fl.edu
Doktorant (Doktorvater: Dr. J. House)
Department of Educational Leadership
University of Central Florida

Sehr geehrt

in der heutigen Geschäftswelt gilt das Internet insbesondere im internationalen Bereich als ideales Kommunikationsmittel. Gleiches gilt auch für das höhere Bildungswesen. In Anbetracht der Bedeutung, welche der Zusammenarbeit der internationalen Fakultäten hinsichtlich eines Joint Ventures in Forschung und Lehre zukommt, möchten wir Sie als Fakultätsmitglied im Bereich der Wirtschaftswissenschaften darum bitten an dieser wissenschaftlichen Studie teilzunehmen.

Der dafür vorgesehene Fragebogen von Professor Dr. Geert Hofstede wurde bereits mehrfach erfolgreich angewendet, um Unterschiede zwischen den Kulturen näher zu analysieren.

Ihre Teilname an der Umfrage ist vertraulich und absolut freiwillig, und es liegt an Ihnen, ob Sie all Fragen beantworten wollen oder nicht. Kein finanzieller Nutzen, beziehungsweise Risiko besteht für Sie. Die Beantwortung der Fragen wird erfahrungsgemäß nicht mehr als 10 Minuten betragen. Die Ergebnisse dieser Studie werden in einer Dissertationsarbeit über die Leitung im höheren Bildungswesen verwendet werden.

In diesem Zusammenhang betrachten wir Ihre Teilnahme an dieser Studie als Zustimmung dazu die gewonnene Erkenntnisse ausschliesslich für wissenschaftiche Zwecke zu veröffentlichen. Alle Antworten werden selbstverständlich vertraulich behandelt werden und alle IP Adressen werden entfernt. Bei eventuellen Fragen wenden Sie sich bitte an das UCF Institutional Review Board Office at the University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 (Telefon: 001-407-823-2901 oder 001-407-882-2276).

Um zur Studie zu gelangen, verwenden Sie bitte die folgende Internetverbindung und das unten angegebene Kennwort.

Internetverbindung (Kennwort/password = g2071): **http://tinyurl.com/jbu46**

Hochachtungsvoll,

Frank Albritton

Wenn Sie diesen Fragebogen nicht beantworten, werden Sie innerhalb der nächsten drei Wochen nochmals kontaktiert. Falls Sie nicht teilnehmen wollen, bitte diese Internetverbindung benutzen: ***http://tinyurl.com/hnsp9***

APPENDIX H
VSM 94 MANUAL & BOSLAND EDUCATIONAL ADJUSTMENT

Power Distance Index (PDI)

The index formula is: PDI = –35m(03) +35m(06) +25m(14) –20m(17) –20

(in which m(03) is the mean score for question 03, etc.)

The index normally has a value between 0 (small Power Distance) and 100 (large Power Distance), but values below 0 and above 100 are technically possible.

Bosland Adjustment Value: From scores from 0 to 100 in increments of 10, the corrected scores would be: +8, +19, +30, +41, +52, +63, +74, +85, +96, +107, +118

Individualism Index (IDV)

The index formula is: IDV = –50m(01) +30m(02) +20m(04) –25m(08) +130

(in which m(01) is the mean score for question 01, etc.)

The index normally has a value between 0 (strongly collectivist) and 100 (strongly individualist), but values below 0 and above 100 are technically possible.

Bosland Adjustment Value: +20

Masculinity Index (MAS)

The index formula is: MAS = +60m(05) –20m(07) +20m(15) –70m(20) +100

(in which m(05) is the mean score for question 05, etc.)

The index normally has a value between 0 (strongly feminine) and 100 (strongly masculine), but values below 0 and above 100 are technically possible.

Bosland Adjustment Value: -12

Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)

The index formula is: UAI = +25m(13) +20m(16) –50m(18) –15m(19) +120

(in which m(13) is the mean score for question 13, etc.)

The index normally has a value between 0 (weak Uncertainty Avoidance) and 100 (strong Uncertainty Avoidance), but values below 0 and above 100 are technically possible.

Bosland Adjustment Value: -14

Long-term Orientation Index (LTO)

The index formula is: LTO = -20m(10) +20m(12) +40

(revised version 1999) in which m(10) is the mean score for question 10, etc.

The index normally has a value between 0 (very short-term oriented) and 100 (very long-term oriented), but values below 0 and above 100 are technically possible.

APPENDIX I
IRB APPROVAL LETTER

University of Central Florida

Office of Research & Commercialization

June 6, 2006

Frankie P. Albritton, Jr.
12435 Castlemain Trail
Orlando, FL 32828

Dear Mr. Albritton:

The University of Central Florida's Institutional Review Board (IRB) received your protocol IRB #06-3546 entitled **"A Cultural Contingency Leadership Model: Application to a Multinational Higher Education Faculty."** The IRB Chair reviewed the study on 6/1/2006 and did not have any concerns with the proposed project. The Chair has indicated that under federal regulations (Category #2, research involving the use of educational tests, survey or interview procedures, or the observation of public behavior, so long as confidentiality is maintained) this research is **exempt** from further review by our IRB, so an approval is not applicable and a renewal within one year is not required.

Please accept our best wishes for the success of your endeavors. Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at 407-823-2901.

Cordially,

Joanne Muratori
UCF IRB Coordinator
(IRB00001138, FWA00000351, Exp. 5/13/07)

Copies: IRB File
Jess House, Ph.D.

JM:jm

12201 Research Parkway • Suite 501 • Orlando, FL 32826-3246 • 407-823-3778 • Fax 407-823-3299

APPENDIX J
INDEX TO LITERATURE REVIEW

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