The Effect of Culture on The Leadership Behavior of Australian Expatriate Managers in Thailand

Nuttawuth Muenjohn

Ph.D.

2001

The Effect of Culture on The Leadership Behavior of Australian Expatriate Managers in Thailand

Nuttawuth Muenjohn

(Bachelor of Business Administration, Prince of Songkla University)
(Master of Business Administration, Prince of Songkla University)
(Master of Management, Monash University)

*A thesis submitted in total fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of*
Doctor of Philosophy

School of Management
Faculty of Business and Law
Victoria University of Technology

2001

2350211 ?

2350211 ?

DEDICATION

ความสำเร็จในวิทยานิพนธ์ปริญญาเอกฉบับนี้ผู้เขียนขอ
มอบให้ **"คุณพ่อ แสงทอง และ คุณแม่ ลัดดา
หมื่นจร"** ซึ่งตลอดเวลาทั้งสองท่านได้เป็นแบบอย่าง
และ เป็น "ผู้นำ" ที่ดีให้แก่ลูกๆทุกคนเสมอมา
นอกจากนี้ความสำเร็จครั้งนี้จะเกิดขึ้นไม่ได้หาก ไม่มี **"พี่
เมศ, นเคนทร์ หมื่นจร, และครอบครัว"**
คอยให้ความช่วยเหลือและดูแล "ผม" และ
ครอบครัวอย่างดีที่สุดตลอดมา, **"บอย, ธีรวุฒิ หมื่นจร,
และ ครอบครัว"** ที่คอย ดูแล พ่อ และ แม่ เพื่อให้
"เพื่อน" มีโอกาส ได้มาเรียน, **"นภสร"** ภรรยา
ที่ให้ทั้งกำลังใจ และ ดูแลเอาใจใส่ ทุกๆเรื่อง, สุดท้าย
ขอมอบให้ **"ลูกภีม", ภีมวัทน์,** ที่คอย "กวน" พ่อ
ทั้งกลางวันและกลางคืน แต่ ลูกภีม
ก็เป็นแรงผลักดันอันสำคัญที่ทำให้วิทยานิพนธ์ฉบับนี้
สำเร็จลงได้

This Ph.D. thesis is dedicated to: my
parents, Khun Seangtong and Khun
Ladda Muenjohn, who are always a good
role model for their sons; my brother,
Nakane, who placed full confidence in me
and provided the best support since I
arrived in this country; my brother,
Treerawuth for looking after our parents
and that giving me an opportunity to
pursue my Ph.D.; my wife, Napasorn, for
giving me a lot of moral supports; finally
my son, Peamawat, you are the best thing
that ever happened to me.

ABSTRACT

One of the basic reasons for studying cross-cultural leadership is the question of the extent to which leadership behaviors or styles can be influenced by culture. In this regard, one researcher may suggest that certain leadership behaviors are likely to be unique to a given culture, while another argues that there should be certain structures or behaviors that leaders must perform to be effective, regardless of cultures.

In the current study, the investigation was conducted to determine: (a) the cultural values of Thai subordinates working with Australian expatriate managers, (b) the leadership behaviors of Australian expatriate managers in Thailand, and (c) the possible relationships between the two variables. Forty-seven Australian expatriates and ninety-one Thai subordinates responded on the instruments called the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the Value Survey Module (VSM).

The major results revealed that, firstly, Thai subordinates who worked with Australian managers tended to have a large distance superior-subordinate relationship, had medium uncertainty avoidance, reflected feminine values, and were collectivistic employees. In general, these findings seemed to be in accord with several previous studies that investigated the cultural values of Thai people.

Secondly, Australian expatriates, as reported by themselves and their Thai subordinates, exhibited significantly more transformational leadership than transactional leadership behavior. Australian managers who displayed transformational leadership behavior had a positive association with three measures of performance outcomes.

Finally, the findings also indicated that the cultural values of Thai subordinates had a very limited role in predicting the three principle leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian managers. This seemed to provide evidence to support a near universalistic position for the transformational-transactional paradigm.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

****

CHAPTER I
THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER III
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

CHAPTER V
RESEARCH RESULTS

CHAPTER VI
DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

CHAPTER VII
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABBREVIATIONS

CR	Contingent Reward
EF	Effectiveness
EE	Extra-Effort
EMIC	Culture-specific phenomenon
ETIC	Culture-universal phenomenon
IC	Individual Consideration
IDV	Individualism dimension
II	Idealized Influence
II (A)	Idealized Influence (Attributed)
II (B)	Idealized Influence (Behavior)
IM	Inspirational Motivation
IS	Intellectual Stimulation
LF	Laissez-Faire
MAS	Masculinity dimension
MBE-A	Management-by-Exception (active)
MBE-P	Management-by-Exception (passive)
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
PDI	Power Distance dimension
SAT	Satisfaction
VSM	Value Survey Module
UAI	Uncertainty Avoidance

STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

No other individual's work has been used without appropriate acknowledgement. This work has not been submitted for the award of any degree in any other tertiary or educational institution.
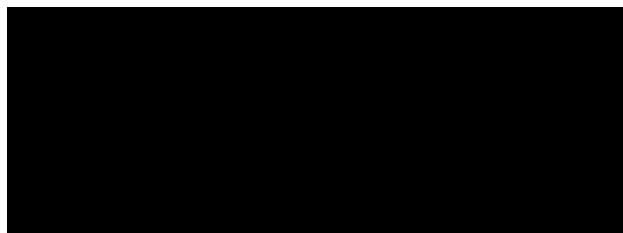
Nuttawuth Muenjohn

30 August 2001

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will provide a brief overview of the previous studies on Australian expatriate managers in Thailand and identify the gaps in those studies that will be addressed by this research. As such, it will introduce the research purposes and questions in the study, justify the scope of the study, and discuss its significance. This chapter is organized into six major sections: (a) background to the research; (b) research purposes; (c) research questions; (d) justification for the research; (e) outline of thesis; and (f) its scopes and assumptions.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

An increasingly changing global business environment presents a challenge to multinational corporations to manage this change by using their expatriate managers to carry out their headquarters' policies in foreign countries. Previous comparative cross-cultural studies have indicated that one of the main managerial practices required of managers is to adopt or adjust their style of leadership to conform with their subordinates' cultural background (e.g. Dorfman, Howell, Hibino, Lee, Tate, and Bautista, 1997; Campbell, Bommer, and Yeo, 1993).

Considering cultural differences between Australia and Thailand, Australians and Thais are identified as having different cultural backgrounds when described by Hofstede's (1980, 1984) four cultural dimensions. On the first dimension power distance, described as an inequality among people in a society, Thailand is viewed as being much larger in power distance than Australia. The second dimension uncertainty avoidance, refers to how well people can cope with unpredictable or unknown situations. This dimension indicates that Australians tend to be more willing to take risks and may tolerate uncertainty in situations more easily than Thais. Masculinity, as opposed to femininity, the third dimension reflects the underlying values of people in regard to acquiring material things or developing personal relationships. Living in a "feminine" society, Thais tend to emphasize relationships between others in society more than Australians do. Considering the last dimension, individualism indicates how well an individual depends on his/her group. Australia is a much more individualistic society compared with Thailand.

Because of these differences in their cultures, one basic question that arises is whether the effective leadership behaviors of Australian managers suit the situations experienced by expatriates working in Thailand. When addressing this question, some authors might argue that leadership behaviors should be unique according to a certain cultural environment (e.g. Hofstede, 1995a; Doktok, 1990), while others believed that the underlying constructs of effective leadership behavior tend to be similar across cultures (e.g. Bass, 1997b; Selvarajah, Duignam, Suppiah, Lane and Nuttman, 1995). In respect of both viewpoints, some scholars suggested that the relative universality of leadership behaviors might depend on the leadership theory being investigated (Dorfman, 1996) or the levels of analyses in each study (Chemers, 1997).

Transformational leadership is one of the current theories of leadership that have been focused during the past fifteen years (Bryman, 1992). Transformational leadership occurs when a leader attempts to broaden and elevate the interests of his/her followers by generating awareness and acceptance of the mission of the group and motivating followers to go beyond their self-interests for the good of the group (Bass, 1985). Bass and Avolio (1997) pointed out that leaders should exhibit behaviors associated with transformational leadership in order to achieve a high level of effectiveness.

Several research studies seemed to confirm their proposition irrespective of whether the studies were conducted in a variety of organizations (e.g. Ingram, 1997; Medley and Larochelle, 1995) or in different countries (e.g. Singer and Singer, 1990; Geyer and Steyrer, 1998). In addition, Bass (1997b) also argued that transformational leadership appeared, to a certain extent, to be universally valid, regardless of culture. At the present time, there are still a limited number of studies examining the relationships between culture and transformational leadership theory and thus this proposition remains to be supported by empirical data.

There are still few studies of Australian expatriates working in Thailand. To date, the most relevant studies are those by Thompson (1981) and Edwards, Edwards and Muthaly (1995). However, although both studies selected Australian expatriates as the target population, the studies were limited to providing guidelines for effective leadership behavior for Australian expatriate managers. The study by Thompson (1981) pointed out that Australian expatriates needed to adapt their management styles to deal with Thai subordinates because of the differences in cultures between them. For example, they had to learn to show respect and be more polite than would be expected in Australia if Thai subordinates were to be encouraged to be open in

communication. Besides, Thai subordinates looked to their superiors as father figures and expected their superiors to help them in personal problems, which was not normally the case in Australia.

A recent study by Edwards and his colleagues (Edwards et al., 1995), placing more stress on how Thai culture influenced Australian expatriates, reached similar conclusions. That was, that expatriates needed to modify their management practices to cope with cultural differences. The findings also indicated that the major problem facing Australian expatriates in Thailand was a lack of knowledge of Thai culture and that this was the most important skill required by expatriates seeking success in Thailand. Although this research suggested that the management practices of Australian expatriate managers were influenced by Thai culture, both studies focused only on the general experiences of Australian expatriate managers and relied heavily on qualitative data.

Contrary to the previous studies, the purpose of this research was to explain the relationships between culture and leadership behaviors by investigating the experiences of Australian expatriate managers and their Thai subordinates working in Thailand by: (a) concentrating its investigation on the relationships between "subordinates' cultural values" and "leadership behaviors" exhibited by Australian expatriate leaders, and (b) using a quantitative approach supported by sound statistical analysis to investigate these relationships. The findings of the study will assist Australian expatriate managers to understand their Thai subordinates' working values and help them to provide effective leadership behaviors in a Thai cultural environment.

1.3 RESEARCH PURPOSES AND QUESTIONS

The aims of this study were to determine the relationships between the leadership behaviors of expatriate managers and the culture of employees in the host country. In particular, this study was conducted to determine:

(a) The cultural values of Thai subordinates who work with Australian expatriate managers.

(b) The leadership behaviors of Australian expatriate managers when they were working in Thailand.

(c) The linkages between the cultural values of Thai subordinates and the leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian expatriate managers.

To answer the above purposes, two important theories were employed in the current study. The Hofstede (1984) four cultural model was adopted to determine the cultural values of Thai subordinates while the leadership behaviors of Australian expatriate managers were captured by transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1997). Five specific research questions were generated in this research project. The first question was developed in accordance with the first research purpose. The next three questions focused on the leadership behaviors of Australian managers and its relationships with performance outcomes. The different perceptions of the leadership behaviors between leaders and subordinates were also taken into account. Finally, the last question was explored the linkages between the leadership behaviors and subordinates' cultural values.

(1)   *To what extent do the cultural values of Thai subordinates, who work with Australian expatriate managers, conform with the representation of their national culture reported in the Hofstede study (1980; 1984)?*

(2)   *What patterns of leadership behaviors, as measured by transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1997), do Australian expatriate managers exhibit when they are located in Thailand?*

(3)   *Do Australian expatriate managers and their Thai subordinates hold different perceptions of the leadership behaviors and the set of outcome performances (effectiveness, extra effort, and satisfaction)?*

(4)   *How do the leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian expatriate managers relate to the set of outcome performances?*

(5)   *To what extent do the cultural values of Thai subordinates explain the variance in the leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian expatriate managers?*

1.4 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE RESEARCH

As previously mentioned, the studies of Thompson (1981) and Edwards et al. (1995) only investigated the general experience of Australian expatriates in Thailand. Furthermore, both studies conducted their research by relying mainly on qualitative approaches (interview method). Sekaran (2000) commenting on the use of a single qualitative research method suggested that the absence of statistical results in research might lead researchers to use their personal judgments when it came to the interpretation of the results. The present study, therefore, will differ from the previous studies by: (a) investigating the leadership behaviors of Australian expatriate managers; (b) linking those leadership behaviors to Thai subordinates' cultural background; (c) examining the relationships between leadership behaviors and the performance outcomes; (d) drawing on two well-recognized theoretical models, transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1997) and four cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1984), to develop the theoretical framework for the study; and (e) using a quantitative approach to collect and analyze the data.

It is intended that the study will make contributions to knowledge with both theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, the findings of the current study are expected to: (a) extend the validity of the theoretical models of the Hofstede (1980; 1984) four cultural dimensions and the Bass and Avolio (1997) transformational leadership, (b) provide empirical evidence for the study of cross-cultural leadership by determining the extent to subordinates' cultural values in a host country influence the leadership behavior exhibited by expatriate managers, and (c) provide an academic knowledge reference for other later studies relating to Australian expatriates working in the Thai cultural environment.

From a practical viewpoint, since multinational corporations need to compete internationally, leadership displayed by expatriates is often credited with the ✓ success of international operations (Dorfman, 1996). Consequently, the findings of this study will: (a) provide knowledge and recommendations to enhance the effective leadership behavior for Australian expatriates working or intending to work in the Thai cultural environment, and (b) assist the Australian expatriates to better understand the dominance of Thai subordinates' cultural values. By achieving a better understanding of their subordinates' cultural background, Australian expatriates will be able to develop an idea of how to lead their subordinates effectively in the Thai cultural environment.

1.5 KEY DEFINITIONS

Collectivism: A cultural dimension as opposed to Individualism. A collectivist culture refers to a strong tight social framework in which people tend to hold group values and beliefs and seek for collective interests.

Culture: "The collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another" (Hofstede, 1984, p. 21).

Femininity: A cultural dimension as opposed to Masculinity. A feminine culture represents values in which people in a society believe in warm relationships with others, quality of life and trying to help other members in the society.

Individualism: A cultural dimension as opposed to Collectivism. In contrast to collectivism, an individualistic culture assumes that people should have a self-concept of being an independent individual rather than a dependent member of a group.

Laissez-faire or Non-leadership behavior: A non-leadership behavior that indicates the absence of leadership by avoiding responsibilities and making decisions.

Leadership: Based on transformational leadership, leadership is an influence process that occurs between leaders and followers in which a leader influences followers by developing, intellectually stimulating, and inspiring followers to transcend their own self-interests for a higher collective purpose (Bass, 1985).

Leadership outcomes: Three performance outcomes that evaluate how transformational, transactional, and non-leadership relate to the success and performance of the target leaders, namely extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction

Masculinity: A cultural dimension as opposed to Femininity. A masculine culture is characterized by assertiveness and acquiring material things, that is, people in such society place values on a high achievement, task outcomes, and the acquisition of money.

Power distance: A cultural dimension that indicates how a society deals with the fact that people are unequal. Some societies believe that inequalities between people should be minimized while another accept and expect inequalities of power and allow the inequalities grow over time.

Transactional leadership: A form of leadership behavior that involves the process of exchanging between appropriate rewards promised by a leader for the followers' good performance at the same time the leader focuses his/her behavior on correction of mistakes. The components of transactional leadership include Contingent Reward, Management By Exception (active), and Management By Exception (passive).

Transformational leadership: A form of leadership behavior that involves the process of motivating followers to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the group and encouraging followers to perform more than they expected to do. The components of transformational leadership include Idealized Influence (attributed), Idealized Influence (behavior), Inspirational Motivation, Individualized Consideration, and Intellectual Stimulation.

Uncertainty avoidance: A cultural dimension that indicates to what extent a culture programs its members to feel either uncomfortable or comfortable in unstructured situations such as unknown, surprising and different from usual situations.

1.6 OUTLINE OF THESIS

This thesis is organized into seven chapters. Chapter one provides an introduction to the research topic by explaining the research purposes, questions, and the contributions of the thesis. Chapter two is a literature review, a review of those who contribute relevant knowledge to the theoretical models used in this study, in particular, the issues of Thai cultural values, Australian leadership behaviors, and cross-cultural leadership. The review of

the literature also helps to guide the discussion of the theoretical framework, methodology and results in the following chapters.

Chapter three is a theoretical framework that aims to identify the network of relationships among the variables in this research. Chapter four outlines the methodology employed in this thesis. It provides information on the data collection strategies, instruments, and data analysis methods used in the current investigation.

Chapter five presents the detailed results, separately for each research question. A number of tables and figures are included to facilitate understanding of the results. The results are summarized in Chapter six which also provides an explanation and critical discussion of the results. Finally, Chapter seven summaries the thesis in the form of a conclusion and draws together the theoretical and practical implications of the research.

1.7 THE SCOPE AND ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

Similar to other studies, this study has its own boundaries or assumptions. First, cultural values assessed in this study may not be representative of culture at the national level. In other words, this study investigated only the cultural values of Thai subordinates who worked under Australian expatriates and thus the findings are limited by the narrow characteristics of its sample. In addition, this study is based on the specific theoretical models of cultural values provided by Hofstede (1980, 1984) and the leadership behaviors developed by (Bass and Avolio, 1997). Since "there may be as many different definitions and conceptualizations of "culture" as there are for

"leadership" (Dorfman, 1996, p. 279), one should be cautious in concluding that the findings in this study are the norm beyond its theoretical boundaries. Rather it may reflect the theoretical models employed in this study.

1.8 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the foundations of the thesis. It introduced the research purposes and research questions. Then, the research was justified, key definitions were given, the thesis was outlined, and the limitations were provided.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to critically evaluate the relevant literature on which this research is based, to review the results found in the previous studies, and to demonstrate their relevance to the purposes of this study. The chapter is divided into three major sections. In the first section, various definitions of culture are reviewed, the Hofstede (1980; 1984) cultural framework is presented, and Thai culture is discussed. The second section aims to review the existing leadership literature by defining various concepts of leadership, and in particular discussing the transformational leadership model. The relationships between transformational leadership and leadership outcomes, the role of self-other ratings, and Australian perspectives on transformational leadership also are presented in this section. The third section of this chapter presents the literature review of the linkages between leadership behavior and culture, particularly the relationships between transformational leadership and culture.

2.2 CULTURE

2.2.1 CONCEPT AND DEFINITION

Several scientific fields such as anthropology, sociology, and psychology have ascribed a meaning to culture from their different perspectives (Wang, 1994).

Consequently, it seems that a fundamental problem in defining the word "culture" is a lack of any agreement as to how to define it (Smith, 1997). This was illustrated by the work of two scholars in the mid 1900s, Kroeber and Kluckhohn, who gathered more than 160 distinct definitions of the word "culture" and catalogued it into 7 separate groups (Kroeber and Kluckhohn, 1952). Then, they offered a comprehensive definition:

> *"Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behavior acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts: the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e., historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other as conditioning elements of further action" (p. 181).*

Traditionally, the word "culture" when first established in English was used in an anthropological context (Kroeber and Kluckhohn, 1952). An anthropologist named Tylor, who gave one of the first definitions of culture, defined culture as "the complete whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, laws, customs, and other capabilities or habits acquired by man as a member of society" (Tylor, 1871, p. 1). This definition still continues to influence many subsequent scholars and was "quoted numberless times – and not only by anthropologists and sociologists" (Kroeber and Kluvkhohn, 1952, p. 45).

When observing the previous literature on culture, a hundred definitions of culture were suggested by different authors. On the one hand, definitions of culture were given as a very inclusive term such as culture was "the end product of society" (Komin, 1990), "the world in which we live" (Rosaldo, 1984), or "the human-made part of the environment" (Herskovits, 1955).

Within this definition, culture could be several things, not only material human-made objects such houses or dresses but also as social institutions such as marriage or education. However, because of its broad concept, Smith and Bond (1993) argued that this type of definition did not help scholars to determine:

> "how to draw boundaries among culture. (or)
> How much difference must there be between
> two populations before we say that they are
> different cultures?" (p. 35).

Therefore, several scholars found it more useful to limit themselves to a specific concept of culture. They preferred to scope their definitions within a narrow concept such that it was referred it to as a "shared value systems within a unit" (Gopalan and Rivera, 1997) or "shared organization of ideas" (LeVine, 1984). This kind of definition was also criticized for being unable to explain the word "culture" sufficiently (e.g. D'Andrade, 1984).

Given the above discussion, it might be useful to enhance the understanding of culture by grouping definitions according to various approaches and reviewed their criticisms.

The first approach is a behaviorist approach which suggested that culture was basic to how people behave (Punnett and Ricks, 1997) and thus it referred to "the way they interact with their environment and among themselves" (Komin, 1990, p. 683). This approach was developed on the assumption that if one wished to study culture, then "Let's look at people's behavior and see what they do" (Shweder, 1984, p. 7). Scholars using this approach believed that culture not only influenced human behavior by controlling and directing human social behavior interaction (Lachman, Nedd, and Hinings, 1995) but also guided the development of "patterns for behavior characteristic of a

particular social group" (Keesing, 1981, p. 68). They assumed that people who lived in one society had a different model of social behavior to people who lived in another (Triandis, 1994a).

Furthermore, culture in this approach also reflected human learning experiences that "tell people what has worked in the past and make it easy for humans to pick behaviors that may work again in the present" (Triandis, 1994b, p. 15). Triandis (1994a) proposed that how culture influenced human behavior could be traceable in two ways: a person's habit or the unconscious behaviors (e.g. the frequency of touching between two interacting individuals or the frequency of looking at the another person eyes), and subjective utility components or conscious behaviors.

However, the behaviorist approach was criticized for laying too much stress on the physical forms, such as human behaviors, in describing culture. This was only a single category, according to Hall (1981), for investigation from among the many which made up culture. In addition, it was argued that human behavior was not always determined by culture but sometimes influenced by situations or stereotypes (Spiro, 1984; Kroeber and Kluckhohn, 1952). Therefore, "behavior as such cannot be used as a differentiating criterion of culture" (Kroeber and Kluckhohn, 1952, p. 155). Finally, it was believed that the same behavior might be perceived and interpreted differently by different observers (Triandis, 1994a), so defining culture based on human behavior might be insufficient.

The second approach is a cognitive approach. After the mid 1950s, culture became included in the content of cognitive psychology (Shweder, 1984). As a branch of cognitive psychology, the definitions of culture changed from " 'let's try to look at behavior and describe it' to 'let's try to look at ideas' " (Shweder,

1984, p. 7). Scholars using the cognitive approach viewed culture as consisting of shared ideas and meanings (Keesing, 1981), as a pattern of a way of thinking (Kluckhohn, 1954), and as the collective programming of the mind that controlled individual's responses in a given society (Hofstede, 1980). The "shared meaning and ideas" referred to the sharing of core values, beliefs, and norms (Erez, 1994; Wang, 1994), or the intellectual and moral standards (LeVine, 1984) by members of a particular culture that led "members of different cultures to develop different ways of viewing and perceiving the world" (Erez, 1994, p. 571).

According to this view, the "shared values and beliefs" could be transmitted over time (Dowling, Schuler, and Welch, 1994) by passing "from earlier generations, imposed by the present members of society, and passed on to succeeding generations" (Deresky, 2000, p. 105). The cognitive approach, however, was also criticized mainly for excluding people's emotions and their social experiences from the concept of culture (Spiro, 1984). In fact, the patterns of ideas and thinking were often influenced by people's emotion (feeling) and experience and thus these factors should be taken into account when defining culture (Spiro, 1984).

The third approach is an element approach. This approach focused on culture based on the underlying questions of "how has culture come to be? What are the factors that have made culture possible or caused it to come into existence?" (Kroeber and Kluckhohn, 1952, p.65). As a result, the scholars in this tradition tended to describe culture in terms of its characteristics or functions. For example, Spiro (1984) claimed that cultural and non-cultural propositions differed in an important way. That was, a definition of culture needed to consist of both "traditional" and "collective" attributes. The former were developed in the historical experience of social groups, and as a social

heritage, while the later created a sense of "sharing" among people in a given society.

This proposition seemed to agree with Triandis, Kurowski, and Gelfand (1994), when they saw culture as having three major characteristics. According to Triandis et al. (1994), culture needed to be able to be: (a) shared among members such as language and time ("collective" in Spiro, 1984), (b) transmitted across periods and generations ("traditional" in Spiro, 1984), and (c) adaptable to conform to its environment. In addition, some scholars in this approach also emphasized culture as a product consisting of objective elements (e.g. Komin, 1990) while other emphasized culture as psychological elements (e.g. Punnett and Ricks, 1997) or a combination of both (Triandis, 1994a).

The problem with this approach was that such definitions were not definitions in a technical sense (D'Andrade, 1984). Technically, according to D'Andrade (1984), "a definition should be a paraphrase that maintains the truth or falsity of statements in the theory when substituted for the word defined" (p. 115). Therefore, the definitions in this approach did not meet the goal of "definition". Rather, they were attempting to describe the components of culture.

The last approach is a communication approach. The definitions in this approach suggested that culture created the ways of communication (Hall, 1981; Hall and Hall, 1990) and the use of information (Triandis, 1994b). Culture, in the communication approach, influenced the communication process by providing understanding of the psychological and physical functions in people's lives (Kashima and Callan, 1994). Since language provided people with an important means of communication, the definitions in

this approach often used languages as the criterion of culture (Punnett and Ricks, 1997).

Language in these definitions included both verbal and non-verbal attributes both reflecting people's thinking and perceiving ((Hall and Hall, 1990; Keesing, 1981). People in a given society reached agreements and developed languages to use in their society and thus persons of a given language could understand one another and be able to share their common assumptions (Triandis et al., 1994).

The definitions in this approach were also criticized for defining culture too narrowly. Furthermore, people of the same culture might use different languages (Triandis, 1994b), while people speaking the same language, such as Americans and British, might live in societies in which each had its own culture (Keesing, 1981).

In summary, there were many definitions of culture and thus "Can one obtain a satisfactory definition of culture by using only one or the other perspective?" (Triandis et al., 1994, p. 777). Consequently, a combination of definitions was sometimes used to define culture. Based on the above approaches, culture might be defined as "software of the mind" which distinguished the members of one group from another (Hofstede, 1984) by their underlying patterns of values, beliefs and attitudes (Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn, 1997; Goplan and Rivera, 1997; Schuler and Rogovsky, 1998) that influenced how people responded to each other in a specific society (Triandis, 1994a; Katz and Seifer, 1996) and the way its members solved problems in their normal lives (Trompenaars and Turner, 1997). In other words, all definitions were valid (Triandis et al., 1994). It was "depending on what a particular investigator wishes to study" (p. 777).

2.2.2 CULTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The role of culture in the organizational context has been the focus of academics and researchers for the past several decades (O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991) and there was still a growing body of research in this area (Connor and Becker, 1994). For example, Agle and Caldwell (1999) assessed more than 200 published articles in only the past ten years on the role of cultural values in business. From the studies, they developed a framework with five different levels of business values: individual, organizational, institutional, societal, and global.

As mentioned previously, culture was defined in several ways in various approaches. However, at the organizational level, culture often referred to the underlying values, beliefs, and principles shared by members in an organization (Kotter and Heskett, 1992) that served as a foundation for its members' day-to-day life (Deal and Kennedy, 1982) and provided a guideline to determine the management system and practice in each organization (Denison, 1990).

However, Schein (1992) seemed to view culture from a different perspective by defining culture as a function of solving organizational member's problems of adapting to the external environment and internal integration in order to survive and adapt. Schein (1992) presented the five elements, as steps in a cycle, that every organization needed to maintain in relation to its changing external environment: (1) mission and strategy (a shared understanding of core mission and strategic direction), (2) goals (as derived from the core mission), (3) means (to be used to attain the goals), (4) measurement (measure

how well the organization was doing in fulfilling its goals), and (5) correction (repair strategies if goals were not being met).

Apart from an ability to adapt to an external environment, Schein (1992) also believed that the organization needed to be able to develop and maintain a set of internal relationships among its members in order to survive. Those internal elements were: (1) common language (used to understand each other), (2) group boundaries (who is in and who is out), (3) power and status (criteria for how members get, maintain, and lose power), (4) norms of intimacy, friendship, and love (rules for interpersonal relationships among members), (5) reward and punishment (agreement on what is a reward and what is a punishment), and (6) explaining the unexplainable (to avoid the anxiety of dealing with the unexplainable and uncontrollable).

At this stage, one might address a question of why cultural values are so important for studying in an organizational context. Several reasons might be offered, but one reason that was agreed by several authors was that cultural values could be a way of enhancing efficiency and effectiveness in organizations (e.g. Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Kotter and Heskett, 1992).

Posner and Schmidt (1992) believed that culture was one of the significant factors determining the organizational properties such as its structure, processes, and roles and that subsequently influenced organizational successes or failures. Connor and Becker (1975) also provided discussion of cultural values as they related to organizational performance and pointing out:

> *Whether viewed (cultural values) as identical with or underlying the formation and pursuit of organizational goals, values are inherently critical to the organization's performance... In the later view, values are seen to lie at the heart of goal setting and strategy choosing processes; in the former view, values are the goals.' (p. 557).*

Since culture and organizational performance are closely related, it might be useful to discuss some of selected studies or theories on the relationships between cultural values and organizational performance as they are showed in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Summary of some theories or themes in the study of the relationships between cultural values and organizational performance

Authors	Cultural value types or elements emphasis	Measure of performance	Methodology
England (1967a; 1967b)	Executive values	Four criteria of organizational goals	Survey
Peters and Waterman (1982)	Strong culture	Financial figures, ranking in industry, and record of innovation	Survey
Deal and Kennedy (1982)	Strong culture	Overall organizational performance	Organizational diagnosis
Kotter and Heskett (1992)	Strong and weak culture	Long-term economic performance	Survey
Denison (1990)	Involvement, Consistency, Adaptability, and Mission	Financial ratios	Survey

One of the early empirical studies on the relationships between culture and performance was the investigations by England (1967a; 1967b). England (1967a) emphasized his works at the personal value system by viewing culture as a relatively permanent framework which influenced the nature of an individual's behavior. English (1967a) suggested that the value system of individual (this study referred to managers) could influence an individual's behaviors in several aspects such as decision-making processes, perceptions of situations, and interpersonal relationships with other individuals in an organization.

The main idea of the relationships between cultural values and organizational performance, according to England (1967a; 1967b), was that cultural values determined "specific time-space" behavior of individuals and those behaviors or actions directly or indirectly influenced the content of the organizational goals or effectiveness. However, England's concept of culture and performance had been criticized by some authors, for example, the relationships between culture and performance seemed to be too straightforward (Denison, 1992), and treated cultural values and preference for organizational goals as interchangeable quantities (Connor and Becker, 1975).

Another study of culture and performance was conducted by Peters and Waterman (1982). They conducted a study by using the interview method with 62 companies in various industry categories to find out what aspects contributed to the organization's "excellence". The results produced "eight attributes of excellence", obviously culture was one of them. In terms of cultural attribution, Peters and Waterman (1982) saw culture as a tool to enhance organizational effectiveness or performance. They believed that for a company to approach excellence, its culture must strongly hold certain unifying values. In every excellent company in their study, Peters and

Waterman (1982) found that those companies took the process of value shaping seriously and had a well-defined set of guiding beliefs or, in other words, having a "strong culture".

The idea of the "strong culture" was also discussed by Deal and Kennedy (1982) and Kotter and Heskett (1992). Deal and Kennedy (1982) stated that every organization had their own cultures and if those cultures were strong, it had a powerful influence throughout an organization. According to Deal and Kennedy (1982), strong culture had a major effect on the success of the business because strong culture helped 'everyone knows (clearly about) the goals of the corporation, and they are working for them.' (p. 4). Deal and Kennedy (1982) also provided four major elements that made up a strong culture; (a) *Value* was a basic concept of the organization and helped to establish standards of achievement within the organization, (b) *Heroes* were individuals who provided tangible role models for employees to follow, (c) *Rites and Rituals* represented the systematic routines of day-to-day life in the company, and (d) *Cultural network or communication* served as the "carrier" of the other three elements.

However, the theory that "strong cultures enhance organizational performance" was questioned by Kotter and Heskett (1992). To test this theory, Kotter and Heskett (1992) conducted a study with a sample of 207 companies from 22 different industries to investigate the relationships between the "strong-weak culture" and long-term economic performance. They found that the results of nearly two hundred companies did not support the theory. That was, some companies showed strong cultures but produced weak performance while some firms had weak cultures but provided a very good performance.

Kotter and Heskett (1992), therefore, proposed that strong cultures might enhance organizational performance but only if those cultures "fit" a company's context such as the company's business strategy, product or service, financial, and labor markets. More importantly, those cultures needed to be contained by norms and values that could help companies adapt to a changing environment to promote excellent performance in a long time period.

Another interesting theory of culture and organizational effectiveness was presented by Denison (1990). Denison (1990) attempted to explain how four cultural elements helped to enhance organizational effectiveness. Two of them concerned the internal dynamics of the organization, they were the *involvement* and *consistency* aspects. In contrast, the *adaptability* and *mission* aspects emphasized the relationships between the organization and its external environment.

For the first element, Denison (1990) believed that the higher level of involvement and participation of an organization's members given to the organization created a greater chance to produce organizational effectiveness. The consistency element seemed to be similar to the "strong culture" concept when Denison (1990) proposed that strong beliefs and values shared by members in an organization could improve its control and coordination systems and led to effective performance. The concept of adaptability was defined as how well cultural values helped the organization in responding to its external environment and depended on its ability to adapt itself. For the last elements, Denison (1990) stressed the importance of an organization's mission by stating that a sense of mission that was shared strongly by an organization's members could provided a clear direction and goal that served to define the appropriate course of action for its members and led to enhance overall performance.

To test the model, Denison (1990) conducted a study by using measures such as return on sales and return on investment for 34 companies in conjunction with a survey methodology using instruments called *The Survey of Organizations* and *The Organization Survey Profile*. Overall results from both quantitative and qualitative method showed that the four principle concepts had a direct and indirect impact on organizational effectiveness and performance. That was: (a) the both types of *involvement*, "informal" (decision-making process) and "formal" (participation), appeared to have a positive influence on effectiveness; (b) companies with high *consistency* management system (strong culture) appeared to be better performers than less consistent ones but it did not predict high performance in the future; (c) *adaptability* influenced effectiveness through both internal flexibility and external focus; and (c) *mission* effected effectiveness by providing both clear meaning and direction.

In summary, different types or theories of cultures proposed by the above authors seemed to suggested that cultural values played an important role in contributing to organizational performance in either a direct or indirect way.

2.2.3 DEFINING CULTURE: THE HOFSTEDE CULTURAL FRAMEWORK
2.2.3.1 OVERVIEW

As described earlier, scholars had produced hundreds of definitions of culture. In this study, the Hofstede (1980; 1984) definition of culture was used since the Hofstede framework was employed to assess the cultural values. According to Hofstede (1984), culture is

"the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another...Culture, in this sense, includes systems of values; and values are among the building blocks of culture" (p. 21).

The Hofstede cultural framework was chosen in this study because his framework made a significant contribution to managerial practices in several areas (see Triandis, 1994a) and thus, according to Mead (1998, p. 43), provided *"the best there is"* of a set of conceptual benchmarks for numerous empirical studies to understand culture in many societies or countries (see section 2.2.2.3 for more details of the significance of the Hofstede framework).

The Hofstede cultural framework was based on responses to an international attitude survey that collected data from a large multinational corporation (IBM) between November 1967 and 1973. The data bank provided responses of 88,000 different respondents with answers about 117,000 respondents from 66 countries among 50 occupations. The questionnaire was translated into 20 different languages. Consequently, his study was recognized as the largest body of survey data ever collected in the history of cross-cultural comparative research that allowed for analysis across individuals, countries, occupations, sex, education, and age of respondents (Hofstede, 1984).

2.2.3.2 THE FOUR CULTURAL DIMENSIONS

After extensive statistical analyses, Hofstede reduced the questionnaire's items from 60 "core" questions in 1971 to 33 items recommended for future cross-cultural survey studies (Hofstede, 1984, p. 283). The 33-item questionnaire presented questions concerning work goals (for example, "how

important would it be to you to work with people who cooperate well with one other?), perceptions on superiors (for example, "the respondents' preference for their managers' decision-making"), attitudes on organizational climate (for example, "how often do you feel nervous or tense at work"), and the respondents' employment stability (for example, "how long do you think you will continue working for this company or organization"). These items represented four cultural dimensions that:

> *"describe the basic problem of humanity with which every society has to cope; and the variation of country scores along these dimensions shows that different societies do cope with these problems in different ways" (Hofstede, 1984,p.313).*

The four cultural dimensions, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, and individualism, were described as follows:

2.2.3.2.1 POWER DISTANCE

Power distance described the extent to which inequalities, such as can be found in prestige, wealth, and power, were accepted among the people of a society. "It reflects the range of answers found in various countries to the basic question of how to handle the fact that people are unequal" (Hofstede, 1997, p. 24). Hofstede (1995a) pointed out that "all societies are unequal, but some are more unequal than others" (p. 151). This was because some societies let the inequalities grow over time, while others tried to downplay them. The underlying theoretical assumption of this dimension was taken from the work of Mulder's (1977) "The power distance reduction theory". Mulder (1977) defined the term "power distance" as the degree of inequality in power

between a less powerful member and a more powerful one, in which both belonged to the same social system.

According to Hofstede (1984), in countries with high power distance, people accepted and expected that there were differences in power among them. In contrast, in countries with low power distance, the majority expected that the differences in power should be minimized. Hofstede (1984) also acknowledged that people also transferred their "mental program" into organizational situations. As noted by Hofstede (1995a), "People's behavior in the work situation is strongly affected by their previous experiences in the family and school" (p. 151).

Inside organizations, power distance used to indicated the relationship between superiors and subordinates (Hofstede, 1984). Superior-subordinate relationship, in a high power distance society, was seen as unequal. Subordinates tended to be more dependent on their superiors and expected superiors to lead and to make decisions autocratically and paternalistically. As a result, there was less subordinate participation in decision-making. In such a society, subordinates were expected to obey and respect superiors, in particular older superiors were generally more respected than younger ones.

By contrast, in organizations with low power distance, superiors allowed subordinates to be involved more in decision-making and thus the subordinates were likely to prefer consultative superiors. Superiors considered subordinates as "people like me" so they treated each other as equals. In addition, subordinates were entitled to have different viewpoints from their superiors (see Table 2.2 for a summary of the key differences between high and low power distance in workplace).

Table 2.2: Key differences between high and low power distance in the workplace.

HIGH POWER DISTANCE	LOW POWER DISTANCE
• Inequalities among members in organizations are both expected and desired • Subordinates should be dependent on superiors • Subordinates treat superiors with respect • Subordinates should obey toward superiors • Subordinates expect to be told what to do • Seniority is an essential promotional system • Privileges and status symbols for superiors are both expected and popular • The ideal superior is a benevolent autocrat or good father • Centralization is popular • Hierarchy in organizations reflects the existential inequality between subordinates and superiors	• Inequalities among members in organizations should be minimized • There should be interdependence between subordinates and superiors • Subordinates treat superiors as equals • Subordinates can disagree with superiors • Subordinates expect to be consulted • Promotion based on performance • Privileges and status symbols are frowned upon • The ideal superior is a resourceful democrat • Decentralization is popular • Hierarchy in organizations means an inequality of roles, established for convenience

Note: Adapted from Hofstede (1984; 1997)

Table 2.3 presents power distance scores and their ranking for 53 countries and regions. Compared with the overall mean score, it shows high power distance values for many countries in Asia (include Thailand), African, Latin American and Latin European (e.g. France and Spain) regions. By contrast, lower power distance values can be found in most countries located in North American (USA, Canada), non-Latin part of European, and Australian regions (Australia, New Zealand). When the power distance dimension was applied to Australia and Thailand, it was seen that the power distance score of Australia

was 36, ranking it at 41 out of 53 countries/regions, whereas Thailand scored 64 coming in at 21/23 (see Table 2.3). The difference in power distance scores meant that Thais accepted and expected that power was not allocated equally, to a much larger degree than in Australia.

Table 2.3: Power distance score and rank for 53 countries/regions

Rank	Country	PDI score	Rank	Country	PDI score
1	Malaysia	104	27/28	South Korea	60
2/3	Guatemala	95	29/30	Iran	58
2/3	Panama	95	29/30	Taiwan	58
4	Philippines	94	31	Spain	57
5/6	Mexico	81	32	Pakistan	55
5/6	Venezuela	81	33	Japan	54
7	Arab countries	80	34	Italy	50
8/9	Equador	78	35/36	Argentina	49
8/9	Indonesia	78	35/36	South Africa	49
10/11	India	77	37	Jamaica	45
10/11	West Africa	77	38	USA	40
12	Yugoslavia	76	39	Canada	39
13	Singapore	74	40	Netherlands	38
14	Brazil	69	41	**Australia**	**36**
15/16	France	68	42/44	Costa Rica	35
15/16	Hong Kong	68	42/44	Germany FR	35
17	Colombia	67	42/44	Great Britain	35
18/19	Salvador	66	45	Switzerland	34
18/19	Turkey	66	46	Finland	33
20	Belgium	65	47/48	Norway	31
21/23	East Africa	64	47/48	Sweden	31
21/23	Peru	64	49	Ireland (Republic of)	28
21/23	**Thailand**	**64**	50	New Zealand	22
24/25	Chile	63	51	Denmark	18
24/25	Portugal	63	52	Israel	13
26	Uruguay	61	53	Austria	11
27/28	Greece	60		**PDI Mean score**	**51**

Note: Adapted from Hofstede, G. (1997, p. 26) and Hofstede, G. (1984, p.77).

2.2.3.2.2 UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE

Uncertainty avoidance indicates the extent to which people in a society feel threatened by the unpredictable or unknown situations and thus "tries to avoid these situations by providing greater career stability, establishing more formal rules, not tolerating deviant ideas and behaviors, and believing in absolute truths and the attainment of expertise" (Hofstede, 1995b, p. 195).

In countries with strong uncertainty avoidance, members of an organization were more likely to become anxious when faced with ambiguous situations or unfamiliar risks. Consequently, they tried to prevent these uncertainties in the first place by setting many formal/informal rules and procedures to control the employers' and employees' duties as well as the work process. On the other hand, members in an organization with weak uncertainty avoidance were likely to be more comfortable with unclear situations and were willing to take risks even in unfamiliar situations. They felt uncomfortable if surrounded by many formal rules and procedures; thus "rules were only established in case of absolute necessity" (Hofstede, 1997, p. 121). Table 2.4 provided the key differences between weak and strong uncertainty avoidance in organizational practices.

Table 2.4: Key differences between weak and strong uncertainty avoidance in the workplace.

WEAK UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE	STRONG UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE
• Uncertainty is a normal feature of life and each day is accepted as it comes. • Low stress at work • Comfortable in ambiguous situations and unfamiliar risks • What is different, is curious • There should not be more rules than is strictly necessary • Time is a framework for orientation • Comfortable feeling when lazy; hard-working only when needed • Tolerance of deviant and innovative ideas and behavior • Motivation by achievement and esteem or belongingness	• The uncertainty in life is felt as a threat which must be fought • High stress at work • Fear of ambiguous situations and of unfamiliar risks • What is different, is dangerous • There should be more rules • Time is money • Emotional need to be busy; inner urge to work hard • Suppression of deviant ideas and behaviors; resistance to innovation • Motivation by security and esteem or belongingness

Note: Adapted from Hofstede (1984; 1997)

Table 2.5 shows strong uncertainty avoidance values for Latin American, Latin European, and Mediterranean countries. Some Asian countries such as Japan and South Korea were also strong in this cultural dimension. Medium scores were found in such countries as Thailand, Iran, Finland and Germany. Medium to low were the scores of many countries in Asian, for the African countries, North American region, Australia, and New Zealand. The uncertainty avoidance score of 51 positioned Australia at 37 and Thailand with a score of 64 was placed 30th (see Table 2.5). The gap in uncertainty avoidance scores indicated that Thais avoided unstructured situations by adhering to strict norms and rules more than Australians.

Table 2.5: Uncertainty avoidance scores and rank for 53 countries/regions

Rank	Country	UAI score	Rank	Country	UAI score
1	Greece	112	28	Equador	67
2	Portugal	104	29	Germany	65
3	Guatemala	101	30	**Thailand**	64
4	Uruguay	100	31/32	Iran	59
5/6	Belgium	94	31/32	Finland	59
5/6	Salvador	94	33	Switzerland	58
7	Japan	92	34	West Africa	54
8	Yugoslavia	88	35	Netherlands	53
9	Peru	87	36	East Africa	52
10/15	France	86	37	**Australia**	51
10/15	Chile	86	38	Norway	50
10/15	Spain	86	39/40	South Africa	49
10/15	Costa Rica	86	39/40	New Zealand	49
10/15	Panama	86	41/42	Indonesia	48
10/15	Argentina	86	41/42	Canada	48
16/17	Turkey	85	43	USA	46
16/17	South Korea	85	44	Philippines	44
18	Mexico	82	45	India	40
19	Israel	81	46	Malaysia	36
20	Colombia	80	47/48	Great Britain	35
21/22	Venezuela	76	47/48	Ireland (Republic of)	35
21/22	Brazil	76	49/50	Hong Kong	29
23	Italy	75	49/50	Sweden	29
24/25	Pakistan	70	51	Denmark	23
24/25	Austria	70	52	Jamaica	13
26	Taiwan	69	53	Singapore	8
27	Arab countries	68		**UAI Mean score**	**64**

Note: Adapted from Hofstede, G. (1997, p. 113) and Hofstede, G. (1984, p.122).

2.2.3.2.3 MASCULINITY

Masculinity with its opposite pole of Femininity, reflected the distribution of roles between sexes that different societies exhibited in different ways. The fundamental issue was "whether the biological differences between the sexes should or should not have implications for their roles in social activities"

(Hofstede, 1984, p. 176). Hofstede (1980) found differences between men's and women's values from one country to another. His analysis revealed that the dominant values of men were assertive and competitive, while women valued more nurturing, caring, and modesty. Consequently, he labeled the assertive side as "masculine" and caring pole as "feminine".

In organizational contexts, members of an organization in the masculine culture emphasized values of assertiveness, ambition, and competition. They were results-orientated and expect to be rewarded on the basis of equity, for instance, everyone according to performance. The acquisition of money and material things were also important for them. By contrast, those in the feminine societies placed a high value on warm relationships with people and helping others. They preferred to "work in order to live" rather than "live in order to work". Another difference between masculine and feminine cultures in the workplace was the different ways of handling conflicts. Employees in the masculine organizations tended to resolve the conflicts by fighting "Let the best man win" (Hofstede, 1997, p.92), while those in the feminine societies preferred using compromise method to solve the debates. Table 2.6 showed key differences between masculinity and femininity in workplace.

Table 2.6: Key differences between masculinity and femininity in the workplace.

MASCULINITY	FEMININITY
• Dominant values are material success and progress • Money and things are important • Live in order to work • Managers expected to be decisive and assertive • Stress on equity, competition among colleagues and performance • Resolution of conflicts by fighting them out • Stress on career • Ambition provides the drive	• Dominant values are caring for others and preservation • People and warm relationship are important • Work in order to live • Managers use intuition and strive for consensus • Stress on equality, and solidarity • Resolution of conflicts by compromise and negotiation • Stress on life quality • Service provides the motivation

Note: Adapted from Hofstede (1984; 1997)

The masculinity scores for 53 countries and regions can be found in Table 2.7. The four most feminine countries were Sweden, Norway, Netherlands, and Denmark. Thailand was also placed in the feminine countries along with other Asian countries such as South Korea, Taiwan, and Indonesia. The most masculinity countries were Japan and some of European countries such as Austria, Italy, and Switzerland. Strongly to moderately masculine score were Ireland, Great Britain, USA, and Australia. Comparing between Australia and Thailand, the masculinity score of Australia was 61 ranked at 16 and Thailand was 34 rated at 44 (see Table 2.7). The contrast in masculinity scores suggested that the Thai culture is much more feminine than Australian.

Table 2.7: Masculinity scores and rank for 53 countries/regions

Rank	Country	MAS score	Rank	Country	MAS score
1	Japan	95	28	Singapore	48
2	Austria	79	29	Israel	47
3	Venezuela	73	30/31	Indonesia	46
4/5	Italy	70	30/31	West Africa	46
4/5	Switzerland	70	32/33	Turkey	45
6	Mexico	69	32/33	Taiwan	45
7/8	Ireland	68	34	Panama	44
7/8	Jamaica	68	35/36	Iran	43
9/10	Great Britain	66	35/36	France	43
9/10	Germany	66	37/38	Spain	42
11/12	Philippines	64	37/38	Peru	42
11/12	Colombia	64	39	East Africa	41
13/14	South Africa	63	40	Salvador	40
13/14	Equador	63	41	South Korea	39
15	USA	62	42	Uruguay	38
16	**Australia**	**61**	43	Guatemala	37
17	New Zealand	58	44	**Thailand**	**34**
18/19	Greece	57	45	Portugal	31
18/19	Hong Kong	57	46	Chile	28
20/21	Argentina	56	47	Finland	26
20/21	India	56	48/49	Yugoslavia	21
22	Belgium	54	48/49	Costa Rica	21
23	Arab countries	53	50	Denmark	16
24	Canada	52	51	Netherlands	14
25/26	Malaysia	50	52	Norway	8
25/26	Pakistan	50	53	Sweden	5
27	Brazil	49		**MAS Mean score**	**51**

Note: Adapted from Hofstede, G. (1997, p. 84) and Hofstede, G. (1984, p.189).

2.2.3.2.4 INDIVIDUALISM

The dimension of Individualism with its opposite side of Collectivism described the degree to which individuals in a society were integrated into groups. "It is reflected in the way people live together" (Hofstede, 1984, p. 148). In an individualistic society, the ties between individuals were loose: people were supposed to take care of themselves and of their immediate families (husband, wife, and children). In a collectivistic country, people were

described as a tight social framework in which they distinguished between in-groups and out-groups. They expected their in-group (relatives, clan, organizations) to look after them, and in exchange, they felt they owe unquestioning loyalty to it.

From a management perspective, this dimension reflected the degree to which people were likely to prefer working as individuals or working together in groups (Hofstede, 1984). Employees in the collectivistic culture tended to perform well when they operated within groups, whereas those in the individualistic country performed best when they worked individually. As a result, subordinates in the individualistic society tended to place more value on individual rewards, while subordinates in a collectivistic culture were likely to prefer group rewards (Currie, 1991). Table 2.8 presented the key differences between the individualistic and collectivistic organizations.

Table 2.8: Key differences between individualism and collectivism in the workplace.

COLLECTIVISM	INDIVIDUALISM
• Subordinates are expected to act according to their "in-group" interests • Harmony should be always be maintained and direct confrontations and losing face should be avoided • Relationship superior-subordinate is perceived in moral terms, like a family link • Hiring and promotion decisions take employees' in-group into account • Management is management of groups • Relationship prevails over task	• Subordinates are expected to act according to their own interests • Speaking one's mind is a characteristic of an honest person • Relationship superior-subordinate is a contract supposed to be based on mutual advantage • Hiring and promotion decisions are supposed to be based on skills and rules • Management is management of individuals • Task prevails over relationship

Note: Adapted from Hofstede (1984; 1997)

The individualism scores can be read from Table 2.9. Australia was the second most individualism country from 53 countries. Most of individualism countries were from North American and European regions such as USA, Great Britain, Canada, and Netherlands. Arab, Latin American and some of Asian countries scored moderately on this dimension. Thailand was grouped as collectivism country along with countries in the rest of Asian and some of the South American regions. Comparing between Australia and Thailand, the individualism score of 90 placed Australia at No.2 while Thailand with a score of 20 was positioned at No.39 (see Table 2.9). The difference in the scores of individualism indicated that Australia had a much more individualistic culture than Thailand.

Table 2.9: Individualism scores and rank for 53 countries/regions

Rank	Country	IDV score	Rank	Country	IDV score
1	USA	91	28	Turkey	37
2	Australia	90	29	Uruguay	36
3	Great Britain	89	30	Greece	35
4/5	Canada	80	31	Philippines	32
4/5	Netherlands	80	32	Mexico	30
6	New Zealand	79	33/35	East Africa	27
7	Italy	76	33/35	Yugoslavia	27
8	Belgium	75	33/35	Portugal	27
9	Denmark	74 -	36	Malaysia	26
10/11	Sweden	71	37	Hong Kong	25
10/11	France	71	38	Chile	23
12	Ireland	70	39/41	West Africa	20
13	Norway	69	39/41	Singapore	20 -
14	Switzerland	68	39/41	Thailand	20
15	Germany	67 -	42	Salvador	19
16	South Africa	65	43	South Korea	18
17	Finland	63	44	Taiwan	17
18	Austria	55	45	Peru	16
19	Israel	54	46	Costa Rica	15
20	Spain	51	47/48	Pakistan	14
21	India	48	47/48	Indonesia	14 -
22/23	Japan	46 -	49	Colombia	13
22/23	Argentina	46	50	Venezuela	12
24	Iran	41	51	Panama	11
25	Jamaica	39	52	Equador	8
26/27	Brazil	38	53	Guatemala	6
26/27	Arab countries	38		**IDV Mean score**	51

Note: Adapted from Hofstede, G. (1997, p. 53) and Hofstede, G. (1984, p.158).

2.2.3.3   SIGNIFICANCE   OF   THE   HOFSTEDE   CULTURAL FRAMEWORK

One of the greatest challenges for a cross-national study was to gain a large data based from a variety number of countries. The Hofstede study appeared to meet this challenge by producing data from 66 countries of 88,000 different respondents with answers from 117,000 questionnaires. Subsequently,

Hofstede reduced the answers from 72,000 respondents from 40 countries to produce a 40-country × 32-item matrix or a 40-country × 14-work goal matrix for the development of the masculinity and individualism dimensions. This data bank "represents probably the largest body of survey data ever collected with one instrument up to the time" (Hofstede, 1984, p. 47).

The second significant contribution was that it appeared that the Hofstede study provided a useful basic cultural framework for thinking about some aspects of cross-national differences. Firstly, the four dimensions showed significant and meaningful correlations with many aspects of national indicators such as geographic, economic, demographic and political areas (Hofstede, 1990). Secondly, these dimensions also related significantly to the demographic background of the respondents such as sex, age, education, and occupation. Finally, the four cultural dimensions were measured "quantitatively" and that allowed researchers to assess the degree to which two or more societies differed "in terms of the statistical figure" in their cultures.

The third significant feature of the Hofstede framework, perhaps the most important reason for using the framework in this study, was that it not only showed the significant relationships between the its dimensions and several areas of general management (see, for example, Smith, 1992; Hui, Yee, and Eastman, 1995 for organizational behavior; Katz and Seifer, 1996 for motivation systems; and Boyacigiller, Kleinberg, Phillips and Sackmann, 1996 for decision making) but also its relationships with leadership behaviors (e.g. Harrison, 1995; Newman and Nollen, 1995; Blunt and Jones, 1997; Elenkov, 1997). In this respect, Hofstede (1984; 1995b) proposed that his cultural framework could be used to guide which leadership behaviors would be most effective and consistent with the culture of leaders' subordinates.

Some studies seemed to support this point. For example, Newman and Nollen (1996) found that a participative leadership style tended to encourage employees to improve the profitability of work units in countries with a culture of low power distance such as the U.S., but such leadership style worsens profitability in countries with the high power distance seen in East Asia. In addition, leaders in an individualism culture were expected to emphasize individual reward systems rather than group incentives while subordinates in collectivistic countries seemed to prefer group rewards and placing emphasis on group responsibility (Harrison, 1995; Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn, 1997).

However, similar to other cultural models, the Hofstede framework was also criticized by some scholars. Therefore, it might be worthy to review some of its major criticisms and see how Hofstede responded to those criticisms. One of the common criticisms addressed in previous literature was that the Hofstede study was based on the results of a sample from one multinational corporation (IBM) and from a single industry and thus it might not be representative of the whole country (e.g. Gopalan and Rivera, 1997; Smith, 1997; Mead, 1998).

In correspondence to this criticism, Hofstede (1990) replied that although IBM was the single organization in his study, it did not mean that IBM data could not be used for comparing national cultures because "the variance among countries which survives in this case (his sample) is probably a conservative estimate of the variance found outside IBM" (p. 104) and that "The country scores on the four dimensions could be shown to be significantly correlated with country scores from 38 other comparative studies by other researchers on other populations" (p. 103).

Another concern raised by cross-cultural researchers was the poor internal consistency in the VSM instrument (e.g. Helgstrand and Stuhlmacher, 1999; Kuchinke, 1999; Newman and Nollen, 1996; Harvey, 1997). As a result of this, Harvey (1997) suggested that the instrument might serve as a good basic tool for understanding the influence of culture on organizational behavior but it probably needed to be adapted to serve the specific purposes of studies.

Hofstede (1990) seemed to recognize the pitfalls of his instrument by noting that "I never claimed that the Values Survey Module is the ideal instrument for comparing culture" (p. 104). He also pointed out that the ideal instrument for examining culture at the national level should obtain answers from a sample that covered widely different respondents, such as from academics to non-educators, politicians to artists, children to elder people, but "The problem is that nobody has data for a population large and varied enough to develop and validate such instrument" (p. 105). In general, although the criticisms might be sound, the Hofstede cultural framework was seen by some authors as one of the best-known cultural frameworks and widely used among international management scholars (e.g. Triandis, 1994a; Kale and Barnes, 1995; Brown and Humphreys, 1995; Mead, 1998).

2.2.4 THAILAND
2.2.4.1 OVERVIEW

Thailand used to be known as Siam. Until 1939, the name of nation was changed to "Prathet Thai" or "Thailand" (Cummings, 1997). Its literal meaning was "the land of the free", reflecting the Thais' intense pride in their independent history (FitzGerald, 1998). The nation's history began around

800 years ago when the Sukhothai Kingdom was considered by Thais to be the first true Kingdom (Mulder, 1997). The Sukhothai period was considered as a "golden age" of Thai politics, religion, and culture when the Thai writing system and Treravada Buddhism were established as part of the nation's identity. In particular, the Buddhist religion subsequently effected the Thais' everyday life (Sheehan, 1993).

Nowadays, the Thai kingdom is centrally located in South-East Asia. Its immediate neighbors are Malaysia in the South, Myanmar in the West and North, Cambodia and Laos in the East and North East. While all of its neighbors had undergone Western imperialism at one time or another, Thailand had never been colonized by any foreign country. Consequently, Thailand still maintains its unique national characteristics that differ from other countries, particularly from those with a Western culture (Cummings, 1997).

The population of Thailand of approximately 60 million was considered as a relatively homogeneous population. That was, according to O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk (1997), of this population, the majority were ethnic Thai (80 percent). Most of them were Buddhist (95 percent) and spoke Thai as the first language (95 percent) representing "a homogeneity matched by few other countries in the world" (p. 13). However, there were also ethnic minorities in Thailand. Chinese made up the largest ethic minority (12 percent), followed by other minority groups such as 4 percent of the Malay-Muslims in the south and 3 percent of the Khmer in the east (FitzGerald, 1998).

Unlike in some Southeast Asian countries such as Malaysia and Indonesia, the minorities in Thailand had not become the focus of ethnic rivalries. This might be because Thais placed strong value on harmony and avoidance of

confrontation "they (Thais) would naturally seek to have harmonious inter-ethnic relations – and most Thais would feel that they have succeeded in achieving this goal" (O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk, 1997, p. 13).

Thai people were often described as the "land of smiles". "Few nations could smile more frequently, longer, and more enthusiastically than the Thais" (O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk, 1997, p. 73). In Thailand, smiles were highly valued. However, it should be realized that there were several functions of "smile" in the Thai context. Apart from universal basic functions of smiles such as to express pleasure and happiness, the Thai people might smile in other occasions, for example, to prevent them from feeling anxious, to avoid conflict before fleeting, to cover embarrassment, and put other people at their ease (Boesch, 1994). Thai smiles, in other words, "have more non-verbal meanings than they do in English-speaking cultures" (FitzGerald, 1998, p. 40). Therefore, foreigners might sometime found the difficulties of interpreting the Thais' smiles could cause some irritation or misunderstanding (Cooper, 1991).

The Thais were not only well-known as a 'smiling face', they were also characterized by their kindness, politeness, easy-going, friendliness, fun and peace loving, and pride of being Thai (Charoenngam and Jablin, 1999). These characteristics were most influenced by the value system of the Buddhist faith (Sheehan, 1993). For Thais, Buddhism permeated the culture and day-to-day life (Cummings, 1997). In other words, Buddhism was an integral part of most Thai people: "a good Thai and a good Buddhist are the same thing" (O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk, 1997, p. 18).

One of the main beliefs of Buddhism was reincarnation or "rebirth" (FitzGerald, 1998). Thais believed that life was not linear but an "endless

cycle". Every present life had a past and next life on earth. The status of present life was the results of "karma" [merits and demerits from a previous life (Smith, 1976)], rather than the direct result of current personal effort. In other words, "karma" served as a "road map" to explain the "how and why" things happened in one's life (Komin, 1990). As a result, Thais generally believed that life should be easy-going and "sanuk" (fun, enjoy oneself and have as good time). For Thais, "material things (and personal achievement) do not matter much in the overall scheme of life" (FitzGerald, 1998, p. 34).

A recent cultural research study examining the Thai values at the national level was conducted by Komin (1990). Based on two nationwide surveys of Thai values, Komin (1990) described nine value orientations that "indicates the validity of the Thai value measures in reflecting the cognitive world of the Thai people" (p. 688). The results of these surveys showed that Thais placed strong values on "face-saving" (ego orientation); long-term relationship (grateful relationship orientation); harmonious (smooth interpersonal relationship orientation); flexible adjustment (flexibility and adjustment orientation); supernatural and spiritual belief (religio-psychical orientation); education as a way to achieve higher social status (education and competence orientation); mutual helpfulness and collaboration (interdependence orientation); fun-oriented atmosphere (fun-pleasure orientation); and task achievement but not destroyed harmony (achievement-task orientation). According to Komin (1990), these nine value orientations served as the mental programming of the Thai people.

2.2.4.2 THE FOUR DIMENSIONS OF THAI CULTURE

When the four dimensions' scores of Thailand from Hofstede (1984) were compared with the original mean scores (Hofstede, 1984), Thailand was characterized as a high power distance country, a moderate uncertainty avoidance society, having feminine values, and a high collectivistic culture. The cultural values of Thai people identified by Komin (1990) and others that related to the four dimensions are described below.

A HIGH POWER DISTANCE COUNTRY

According to Hofstede (1980; 1984), the Thai culture was characterized as a high power distance society. Several authors agreed with this point by concluding that the Thai social system was strongly hierarchical and the status differences among the Thai people were very large (e.g. Komin, 1990; Rabibhadana, 1993; Pornpitakpan, 2000). The hierarchical social system permeated the Thai people since their childhood (Mulder, 1997). In a study of the national social study in elementary schools in Thailand, Mulder (1997) found that Thai children were taught from the first two grades to know:

> *"family members are unequal, ..., and that people should behave towards each other through conduct befitting their mutually unequal positions (tha:na). These positions must be respected." (Mulder, 1997, p. 33)*

Thai children were also taught that younger people had to show their respect to elders by "wai". The "wai" was one of the most prominent identities which symbolizes "display of respect" in Thai society (Charoenngam and Jablin, 1999). It also "reflects and maintains the hierarchical social structure" (FitzGerald, 1998, p. 40). The "wai" is performed by placing the hands

together, in a gesture similar to praying. The hands were supposed to go lower or higher depending on the rank of the person receiving the "wai". Therefore, the degree of social differences between two people was determined by who should initiate the "wai" and who should receive the "wai" (FitzGerald, 1998). Generally, the "wai" was initiated by the person who was younger or with inferior status, and elders or superiors might or might not return it, again depending on the differences in the degree of seniority or social status.

Social status in Thailand was normally based on both ascribed and achieved criteria (Pornpitakpan, 2000). The ascribed criteria were identified by one's age, birth, and family background, while education, wealth, power, and position in work were classified into achieved criteria. Therefore, "one can move up or down the social hierarchy" (Pornpitakpan, 2000, p. 61), particularly for people who were classified by the achieved criteria. For example, Thais might be considered as having "high seniority" when they became teachers regardless of their age and background. Komin (1990) agreed with this point by mentioning "education (was seen) as a 'means' to climb up the social ladder..." (p. 693).

O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk (1997) described the essence of obligations and rights characterizing the senior and the junior roles in Thailand. Senior people in Thailand had obligations to guide, assist, and protect the juniors' interests. In turn, they could expect the juniors' loyalty, respect and support. These "senior-junior" obligations were agreed by Haas (1979):

> *"(In Thailand) Great respect is paid by young people to their seniors, and benefits are frequently obtained by a sort of patronage system in which juniors gave deference and obedience in exchange for help and protection" (p. 15).*

The "senior-junior" relationship was seen by Komin (1990) as a social pattern of "bunkhun relationship". The "bunkhun relationship" referred to:

> *"the psychological bond between two persons: one who renders the needy help and favors out of kindness and the other's remembering of the goodness done and his ever-readiness to reciprocate the kindness, not bound by time nor distance" (p. 691)*

According to Komin (1990), the "bunkhun relationship" was the norm in Thailand, normally occurring between higher and lower power people. The higher power Thais "saang bunkhun" (creating gratitude) to the lower power ones to establish and maintain their power and status in society. The "bunkhun" was also often seen in the relationship between the Thai superiors and subordinates. That was, Thai superiors not only used their power or status to exert influence in favor of their subordinates, both in working and personal life, but also were thoughtful and kind to their subordinates so that subordinates felt that they owed something to their superiors. In turn, Thai subordinates were supposed to be loyal, obedient and respectful to their superiors (Leppert, 1996). Consequently, Thai subordinates were unlikely to disagree with their superiors. In other words, "effective subordinates in Thai organizations are those who carry out orders without deviation" (Charoenngam and Jablin, 1999, p. 387).

The Thai management approach typically involved a pattern of benevolent and paternalistic styles that relied on the close relationship between the superiors and subordinates (Fieg, 1989). Unlike in western organizations, the Thai superiors and subordinates tended to involve themselves in each other's personal life (Klausner, 1993). Thai subordinates were expected to know their superiors' personal matters such as family members (Edwards et al., 1995) while it was typical for Thai superiors to spend some time in subordinates'

weddings, birthday parties, and family funerals (Tourret, 1989). "The more the boss gets the subordinate involved, the more the subordinate is viewed as a valuable resource for the organization" (Charoenngam and Jablin, 1999, p. 387).

High power distance in Thailand was also reported by several organizational studies. McCampbell, Jongpipitporn, Umar, and Ungaree (1999) analyzed the influence of culture on the seniority and merit promotion systems in fifty Thai organizations. The results showed that the promotional system in a Thai organization was also influenced by the large power distance value. That was, nearly 80 percent of Thai respondents recognized respect for seniority in their organizations and thus 76 percent of Thai companies employed the seniority-based promotion structure.

In addition, a study by Charoenngam and Jablin (1999) gave information about communication competence among superiors, subordinates, and co-workers in Thai organizations. By gaining data from fourteen different Thai organizations, they found that for Thais, communication competence was strongly associated with: (a) knowing how to express respectful manners in the organizations; (b) knowledge of the chain of command for communication; and (c) knowing how to communicate and show respect to senior members in the organizations.

Even in a negotiated situation between superiors and subordinates in Thai organizations, Noypayak and Speece (1998) reported that Thai supervisors were not required to treat their subordinates as having equal power and thus they did not need to negotiate with the subordinates to get good results. This was because the subordinates readily accepted strong status and power differences between them.

A MODERATE UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE SOCIETY

On the second cultural dimension, Thailand was classified as a moderate uncertainty avoidance society (Hofstede, 1984). The view that Thais preferred to describe themselves as being "flexible" was observed by several authors (e.g. Komin, 1990; Pornpitakpan, 2000; O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk, 1997). Komin (1990) believed that the Thais were "flexible and situation oriented" rather than "system orientated". "It is always the 'person' and the 'situation' over principles and system" (p. 692). In Thailand, therefore, principles and laws were usually adjustable to suit people and situations (Pornpitakpan, 2000).

In many cases, according to Komin (1990), principles and agreements might not be upheld by the Thais if it was against personal relationships among members of their groups. As a result, this Thai characteristic was sometime seen by foreign scholars as the Thais being "unpredictable" or as "non-commitment" (e.g. Cooper, 1991). The flexible orientation of Thai people could be seen from the commonly expressed notion of "mai pen rai" (never mind, it doesn't matter). The "mai pen rai" expression simply indicated the way Thai people tolerate variations of behavior when something unfortunate occurred (Charoenngam and Jablin, 1999). It showed:

> *"an easy-going feeling about life and social interaction, and imply flexibility and a high degree of tolerance to ward deviations from norms and commitments" (Pornpitakpan, 2000, p. 66).*

Although the Thais were characterized as flexible people, it was unreasonable to absolutely conclude that the Thais lived in a society without appropriate rules or norms. By contrast, many social rules and norms had shaped appropriate manners and interfered with everyday Thai life from birth to

death (Seartoa, 1989), perhaps even more rules than in western societies. For example, when the Thais walked between two people who were talking, their bodies needed to incline forward as 'dipping' while walking. Another example is that Thais considered the "head" as sacred and inviolable so it was extremely inappropriate to touch others' heads (see more Thai social norms in O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk, 1997). Furthermore, the Thais also expected newcomers to respect their ways. Consequently, foreigners should know these norms before coming to Thailand if they wanted to be treated as a desired visitor (Mulder, 1996).

To sum up, although the Thais were seen as being flexible, it was balanced by a respect of rules and norms surrounding their life, most of them related to religious and social norms. As a result, this might be a reason to explain why the Thai society was classified into the moderate level of uncertainty avoidance.

A FEMININE CULTURE

On the third dimension, according to Hofstede (1980; 1984), Thailand was defined as a feminine society. Therefore, it seemed that the Thais were likely to emphasis their values of caring for others and warm interpersonal relationships in their society. O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk (1997) confirmed this point "Few societies place greater emphasis on relationships than Thailand; relationships are seen to underlie most social activities" (p. 41). This characteristic of the Thais, according to O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk (1997), was characterized by the preferences for being as "non-assertive", "self-controlled", "polite" and "conflict-free" types of personalities. On the other hand, personal ambition and competition seemed to be viewed by the Thais as

aggressive manners that sometime put them into uncomfortable situations (Tourret, 1989).

In the Thai value survey, Komin (1990) identified "smooth interpersonal relationship" among nine highly valued attributes by the Thai people, whereas "achievement value", such as being ambitious and hard working, was consistently ranked as the least important value (the 23rd). Statistically, the research data showed that 85.2 percent of the Thai sample considered social relationships as one of the most important aspects of living in the Thai society. A closer look revealed that 61.0 percent regarded "maintaining good relationships" as more important than "work", with only 15.0 percent seeing the reverse as more important (Komin, 1990).

However, the generally low score on the masculinity dimension among the Thais should not be interpreted as avoiding hard working and lack of a sense of achievement. By contrast, the majority of Australian expatriates in Thailand, according to Thompson (1981), perceived Thai employees as being hard working and diligent:

> *"One of the good things about the Thais is that they work hard. They are not clock watchers there is no doubt about that.... If the job has to be done it is head down until it's finished." (p. 79)*

Unlike the countries with high masculinity where people equated "hard working" with achievement goals and self-assertiveness, the Thais considered the balance of "social relations" and "hard working" as goals for success in their life. In other words:

> *"Also it is very rare that work alone would lead one to the Thai sense of achievement. Instead, it has always been the good relationships, with or without work, that guarantees this Thai sense of achievement" (Komin, 1990, p. 697).*

Not surprisingly, some expatriate managers, who did not understand the "Thai sense of achievement", sometime they felt it was difficult to instil a spirit of ambition, assertiveness, or competitiveness among the Thai employees (Cooper, 1991).

Another reflection of the feminine side of Thai people could relate to the belief of Buddhism. As Buddhists, the Thais believed that economic status was not the result of individuals' effort but rather the result of individuals' "karma" (FitzGerald, 1998). The map of life had already been drawn by the "karma" so one should appreciate a cheerful life (Cooper and Cooper, 1990).

In Thailand, few workers were happy with purely economic incentives if a job was no fun (Cooper and Cooper, 1990). "Successful offices and factories (in Thailand) are usually those where people enjoy their work and have plenty of opportunities to come together for social activity" (p.131). This Thai attitude was supported by Thompson (1981) who suggested that although a money incentive was important to the Thai employees, it did not have a straightforward role. At the same level, according to Thompson (1981), good working relationships was at least as important as money in motivating efficient the Thai workers.

COLLECTIVISTIC PEOPLE

On the final cultural dimension, individualism, several authors agreed that the Thai people were group oriented or lived in a collectivistic cultural environment (e.g. Hofstede, 1980; Komin, 1990). The group orientation of the Thais reflected "the community collaboration spirit through the value of co-existence and interdependence" (Komin, 1990, p. 693). This value orientation made life in Thailand unlike its neighbors. The minorities such as Chinese and

Moslems enjoyed their life with the majority and saved Thailand from the painful experiences of ethic conflict (Cummings, 1997). This was because the Thais believed strongly that social harmony was very important (Cooper, 1991) and thus "in general, people will do their utmost to avoid any personal conflict in their contacts with others" (Charoenngam and Jablin, 1999, p.384).

Komin (1990) observed that the underlying value of "harmony" in the Thai society was the Thai concept of "kraeng jai" attitude (to be considerate, to take another person's feelings into account, to take every measure not to cause discomfort or inconvenience for another person). This "kraeng jai" attitude "is a basic rule, observed by all Thai, superiors, equals, and inferiors, even in more intimate relationship" (Komin, 1990, p. 691).

In addition, the Thais believed that inner freedom should be preserved by maintaining an emotionally and physically stable environment (Klausner, 1993). That was, the Thais were taught to hide their feelings, particularly any public displays of "human anger". Public anger was seen by the Thais as a very negative characteristic and should be avoided at all cost. If someone lost their temper and showed their anger, they might lose the respect of others (Cooper, 1991). This belief could explain why the Thais did not criticize others directly in public and tended to avoid confrontation. Open conflict and direct criticism were not only viewed by the Thais as the effect of "human anger" (Cooper, 1991) but also as a form of violence that offended people and threatened harmony in their society (O'Sullivan and Tajaroensuk, 1997).

Furthermore, direct criticism sometime made people "lose face". For Thais, making a Thai "lose face" should be avoided at all cost. If it is necessary, indirect criticism was more effective (Komin, 1990). In the Thai workplace, direct criticism was regarded as destructive to the working system:

"To criticize a superior is to question the role of the superior in the system. To criticize an inferior for anything other than failing to obey the superior's orders is equally destructive. To do so suggests either that the inferior is responsible for making decisions or that the orders given him by the superior are inadequate or that the superior has made a mistake in entrusting the job to somebody incompetent to do it. Thus, criticize an inferior and you not only make him lose face, you also make yourself lose face, since you are criticizing yourself." (Cooper, 1991, p.60)

Some previous studies had indicated that the dominant values of the Thai people are associated with collectivism. For example, Charoenngam and Jablin (1999) made it clear that communication competence in Thai organizations required consideration of the collectivist value. In their study, the Thais who were perceived to be communicatively competent knew how to avoid conflict with others by recognizing the inappropriateness of responding negatively to colleagues' opinions. Furthermore, by maintaining social harmony and warm relationships, Thais were expected to communicate with a gentle tone of voice, displayed a smiling and pleasant face and friendly manner.

Another study by Noypayak and Speece (1998) reflected the harmony between superiors and subordinates in Thai organizations. The results showed that Thai managers preferred to employ a soft negotiation approach (e.g. friendly or helpful behavior) rather than hard tactics (e.g. using of threats, checking or persistent reminders) when they negotiated with their employees.

In summary, at this point, several studies by either Thai or foreign authors seemed to be in line with the cultural results of Thailand provided by Hofstede (1984). A further question is that whether Thai subordinates who

work under foreign superiors, such as Australians, still present with similar values to their national representatives reported in the Hofstede (1984) study.

2.3 LEADERSHIP
2.3.1 CONCEPT AND DEFINITION

It is generally accepted that leadership is one of the most complex phenomena in the study of social science (Northouse, 1997; Yukl, 1998) because the reality of leadership is influenced by several dynamic environmental factors such as thoughts, emotions, attractions, and communications (Chemers, 1997). Although the symbols for "leadership" might be traced back into thousands of years (Bass, 1990), the word "leadership" was relatively new appearing approximately 200 years ago (Dorfman, 1996). In fact, Bass (1990, p. 11) noted about the origins of the words leader and leadership:

> *"A preoccupation with leadership, as opposed to headship based on inheritance, usurpation, or appointment, occurred predominantly in countries with an Anglo-Saxon heritage. Although the Oxford English Dictionary (1993) noted the appearance of the word "leader" in the English language as early as the year 1300, the word "leadership" did not appear until the first half of the nineteenth century in writings about the political influence and control of British Parliament. And the word did not appear in most other modern language until recent times".*

However, it should be noted that leadership had become a topic for systematic analysis by scholars only in the twentieth century (Van Seters and Field, 1990), with most modern theories of leadership being developed in the last 50 years (Blunt and Jones, 1997; Parry, 1996). Since then, intensive research on

the subject (Rost, 1993; Sarros and Butchatsky, 1996) still continues at a high rate (Yukl, 1989).

A review of the scholarly studies on leadership showed that there was not only a wide range of different leadership theories to explain the leadership phenomena (e.g. Yukl, 1998; Northouse, 1997; Chemers, 1997) but also no single or unique definition to define leadership that was agreed by leadership theorists (Bass, 1990; Rost, 1993; Yousef, 1998; Jackson, 1993; Bryman, 1986). As noted by Rost (1993), "the phenomena that one person judges experientially to be leadership often are not evaluated as leadership by other people who see the very same phenomena" (p. 7).

Leadership definitions were given from a very broad view such as "anyone who is so designated" (Rost, 1993) to a narrow definition such as the individual responsible as the "creator or sustainer of culture" (Schein, 1996). Some scholars preferred to give a clue to what leadership was by defining leadership in term of its roles (e.g. Senge, 1990), skills (e.g. Decrane, 1997) or properties (Knowles, 1990). Yukl (1998) argued that one of the basic problems for inability to reach agreement on the definition of leadership among scholars was that leadership was an interdisciplinary field that could be found in several other disciplines such as management, psychology, sociology, political science, public administration, and educational administration. Therefore, leadership scholars often defined leadership according to their own interests based on the purposes of their studies (Yukl, 1998; Bass, 1990).

After trying to unravel the meaning of leadership for over 40 years, Bass (1990) published his third edition of *"Handbook of Leadership"*, the extension of Stogdill's work (1974), and pointed out "There are almost as many definitions of leadership as those who have attempted to define the concept"

(Bass, 1990, p.11). In his *Handbook*, Bass (1990) grouped the definitions of leadership into 12 categories, including leadership as a focus of group processes, a matter of personality, a matter of inducing compliance, the exercise of influence, particular behaviors, a form of persuasion, a power relationship, an instrument to achieve goals, an effect of interaction, a differentiated role, a initiation of structure, and as many combinations of elements. After the extensive review of leadership definition, Bass (1990) gave his own broadly based definition by defining leadership as:

> *"an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members. Leaders are agents of change-persons whose acts affect other people more than other people's acts affect them...(therefore) with this broad definition, any member of the group can exhibit some amount of leadership, and the members will vary in the extent to which they do so"*
> *(p. 19-20).*

Similarly, in doing research between 1900 and 1989, Rost (1993) found 221 definitions of leadership in the total of 587 works such as books, chapters, and articles. Rost (1993) also found that the definitions of leadership had changed from period to period. In the first three decades, the leadership definitions tended to emphasize control and centralization of power while defining leadership as traits was usually found in the 1930s. The group approach to understanding leadership began to dominate the leadership literature in the 1940s, followed by the influence approach in the 1950s.

Many authors in the 1960s seemed to view leadership as behavior that influenced others toward common purposes. However, in the 1970s, Rost (1993) found 73 percent of the authors did not give a definition of leadership in their works at all. Perhaps, "the scholars found it increasingly difficult to

define leadership, so they deliberately chose not to give a definition" (p. 57).
Unlike the 1970s, Rost (1993) found there was an incredible increase in the
number of works about leadership in the 1980s. As a result, nearly half of the
total leadership definitions in his work were found in this period. After
collecting 110 definitions of leadership in the 1980s, Rost (1993) classified the
definitions into 7 groups, including defining leadership as to do the leader's
wishes, as achieving group goals, as management, as influence, as traits, as
transformation, and as a combination of all.

Until now, leadership had been defined in several terms in different
categories. However, most definitions of leadership tended to involve an
influence process (Yukl, 1989; 1998). Yukl (1998) proposed that there was a
strong view among leadership theorists that leadership was a social influence
process that occurred between leader and followers and thus Yukl defined
leadership as:

> *"the process wherein an individual member of a*
> *group or organization influences the interpretation*
> *of events, the choice of objectives and strategies, the*
> *organization of work activities, the motivation of*
> *people to achieve the objectives, the maintenance of*
> *cooperative relationships, the development of skills*
> *and confidence by members, and the enlistment of*
> *support and cooperation from people outside the*
> *group or organization" (Yukl, 1998, p. 5).*

The notion of leadership as an influence process seemed to be supported by
several scholars (e.g. Rost, 1993; Bryman, 1992; Barney and Griffin, 1992;
Schermerhorn et al., 1997; Baird, Post, and Mahon, 1990; Sarros and
Butchatsky, 1996; Hollander, 1993). Based upon an extensive of leadership
literature, Rost (1993) defined leadership as "an influence relationship among
leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual

purposes" (p. 102). From this definition, there were four essential elements (Rost, 1993):

(1) The relationship was based on influence that was multidirectional and noncoercive,

(2) Leaders and followers were the people in this relationship and the influence patterns were unequal,

(3) Leaders and followers desired real changes, that were substantive and transforming changes, and

(4) Leaders and followers developed mutual purposes that reflected their intended changes.

Similarly, Bryman (1992) suggested that the leadership definition should consist of three main elements, influence, group, and goal. That was, (a) leaders were individuals who influenced the behavior of followers; (b) the leaders needed to be examined in relation to a group; and (c) it emphasized a group goal that needed to be achieved. As a result, Bryman (1992) defined leadership as "a process of social influence whereby a leader steers members of a group towards a goal" (p. 2).

Furthermore, several authors were likely to identify similar concepts by viewing leadership as "the purposeful behaviour of influencing others to contribute to a commonly agreed goal for the benefit of individuals as well as the organisation or common good" (Sarros and Butchatsky, 1996, p. 3). Schermerhorn et al. (1997) suggested that "Leadership is a special case of interpersonal influence that gets an individual or group to do what the leader wants done" (p. 315). Baird et al. (1990) regarded leadership as "the ability to influence people toward goal achievement" (p. 290). For Barney and Griffin (1992), "leaders are people who are able to influence the behaviors of others without having to rely on threats or other forms of force" (p. 588).

Bass (1990) suggested that "the definition of leadership should depend on the purposes to be served by the definition" (p. 20). Therefore, the definition of leadership in the current study was based on its theoretical approach, transformational leadership. Leadership is a process between leaders and followers that influenced the achievement of collective purpose (Coad and Berry, 1998) and the building of commitment to the organization's objectives (Yukl, 1998) by developing, intellectually stimulating, and inspiring followers to transcend their own self-interests for a higher collective purpose (Bass, 1985). As a result, leadership in this sense appeared to involve assessing followers' motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human being (Northouse, 1997).

2.3.2 DEVELOPMENT OF LEADERSHIP THEORY

After reviewing the leadership definitions, it seemed worthwhile to return to the historical foundations of leadership theory and review its progress. The field of leadership study was often described as having passed through three major distinct eras, the trait, behavior, and contingency eras (Dorfman, 1996; Baird et al., 1990; Bryman, 1992). Each era could be characterized by a dominant research strategy and focus of interest. The leadership eras, their respective periods, and core themes were presented in Table 2.10.

Table 2.10: The evolutionary stages of leadership theory

Period	Approach	Core theme
Up to late 1940s	Trait approach	Leadership ability was innate
Late 1940s to late 1960s	Behavior approach	Leadership effectiveness was to do with how the leader behaved
Late 1960s to early 1980s	Situational contingency approach	It all depended; effective leadership was affected by the situation

Note: Adapted from Bryman (1992, p. 1)

The trait approach was one of the first formal leadership theories and represented a beginning in the understanding of the leadership phenomenon (Yukl, 1998). The underlying assumption of this approach was that some basic traits differentiated leaders from non-leaders or followers and thus "if those traits could be defined, potential leaders could be identified" (Barney and Griffin, 1992, p. 588).

Many studies of the traits of leaders have been conducted in the past several decades. For example, Ghiselli (1971) conducted research that identified 13 personality and motivational traits associated with managerial success. Levinson (1980) also provided a list of 20 dimensions of personality that could be used as a basis for selecting chief executives. In addition, Kotter (1988) proposed six major personal requirements needed for providing effective leadership.

Locke and associates suggested that effective leadership was characterized by two core aspects, including the core motives and core traits (Locke, Kirkpatrick, Wheeler, Schneider, Niles, Goldstein, Welsh, and Chah, 1991). They pointed out "the core motives and traits...is a precondition for any individual to become an effective leader." (Locke et al., 1991, p. 14). Some

authors have focused on specific traits such as intelligence (e.g. Goleman, 1995). Goleman (1995) argued that several aspects of emotional intelligence were related to effective leadership for example promoting cooperation and avoiding conflicts, being able to see things from the perspective of others, being self-motivated to take more responsibilities, and showing persuasive ability.

In fact, a good review of the trait approach could be found in the two surveys of leadership studies conducted by Stogdill in 1947 and 1970 (Stogdill, 1974). In his first survey, Stogdill (1974) found more than 40 sets of personality traits from around 124 studies conducted between 1904 and 1947. Then, he classified these personality traits of leaders under six categories; capacity (e.g. intelligence, alertness, and judgment), achievement (e.g. knowledge, athletic accomplishments, and scholarship), responsibility (e.g. self-confidence, dependability, and persistence), participation (e.g. activity, sociability, and cooperation), status (e.g. socio-economic position and popularity), and situation (e.g. mental level, skills, and needs of followers).

In the second survey, Stogdill (1974) analysed another 163 studies reported from 1948 to 1970 and, again, grouped leaders' characteristics into 6 major categories; physical characteristic (e.g. age, height, and appearance), social background (e.g. education, social status, and mobility), intelligence (e.g. intelligence, knowledge, and judgment), personality (e.g. self-confidence, adaptability, and enthusiasm), task-related characteristics (e.g. achievement drive, responsibility, and task orientation), and social characteristics (e.g. cooperativeness, nurturance, and popularity).

However, the trait approach was challenged by research that questioned the universality of leadership traits. That was, no single trait or group of

characteristics would guarantee leadership successes and outcomes (Van Seters and Field, 1990). Locke et al. (1991) also recognized that leadership traits alone were not sufficient. "If leaders are to be effective, they must use their traits to develop skills, formulate a vision, and implement this vision in reality." (p. 10). Another criticism of the trait approach was that the approach failed to recognize possible differences in situations. As noted by Stogdill (1974), "persons who are leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in other situations." (p. 64). However, the trait approach also benefited the leadership scholars by providing basic guidelines of the leaders' characteristics for the further study of leadership (Northouse, 1997).

Due to the difficulty in demonstrating effective leadership by the trait approach, several leadership researchers shifted their interests from the trait approach to the behaviourist approach (e.g. Fleishman, Harris, and Burtt, 1955; Scott, 1956). This approach attempted to identify and measure the leadership behavior patterns that influenced followers' productivity and morale. There were several theories developed and categorized under the heading of the behavior approach but the Ohio State studies and the Michigan studies were strongly representatives of the ideas in this approach (Chemers, 1997).

In a similar time frame, researchers at the Ohio state University (e.g., Hemphill, 1950; Fleishman et al., 1955; Scott, 1956) and the University of Michigan (e.g. Likert, 1961; Katz and Kahn, 1966) conducted studies to determine how effective leadership related to the two general essential behaviors, task behaviors (*initiating structure* in the Ohio State studies and *production orientation* in the Michigan studies) and relationship behaviors (*consideration* in the Ohio State studies and *employee orientation* in the Michigan studies).

The main idea of the theories was to explain how leaders combined the task and relationship behaviors to influence the followers' performance and satisfaction. For example, Fleishman et al. (1955) conducted a study under the behavior approach by using the 150 items Leader Behavior Description questionnaire with workers and supervisors in a motor-truck manufacturing plant. They found that supervisors who were more concerned on considerate behavior had less grievances and turnover in their units than supervisors who were less concerned on considerate behavior. On the other hand, supervisors who employed a lot of initiating structural behavior had more turnover and grievances in their work units.

Although the approach offered a broader scope for leadership study than the trait theory, the behaviourist approach, similar to the trait approach, also suffered criticism for failing to include situational elements (Jackson, 1993). In addition, Chemers (1997) also argued that inconsistent findings were often found in the studies using this approach. "From one set of studies to another, the relationships between the behavior factors and outcomes measures shifted, being positively related in one study to negatively related or unrelated in another." (p. 23).

The results of trait and behavior researches led leadership scholars to conclude that there was no one best approach to guarantee leadership effectiveness. Bass (1990) believed that a leader's success might be partially due to certain traits or behaviors of the leaders, but it was also determined by how well the traits or behaviors of the leader suited the specific situations. In the early 1950s, leadership researchers began to include a set of situational factors into their leadership theories to see how well leadership behavior fitted into variety of different situations (Hemphill, 1949).

The overall assumption of the situational contingency approach was that effective leadership behavior varied from one situation to another and thus to determine appropriate leadership behavior, a leader needed to take situational factors into account (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974; Fiedler and Garcia, 1987). The most widely accepted theories in this approach included the least preferred co-worker (LPC) model developed by Fred Fiedler (Fiedler, 1964; 1967; 1993) and the path-goal model, associated most closely with Robert House's works (House, 1971; House and Mitchell, 1974; House, 1996).

Similar to the behaviorist approach, the Fiedler theory proposed two styles of leadership, measured by LPC questionnaire, task-oriented and relationship-oriented. The difference from the behaviorist approach was that the Fiedler theory suggested that the relationship between the two leadership behaviors and leaders' effectiveness depended on a combination of three situational factors, namely leader-member relations, task structure, and position power (see Fiedler and Chemers, 1974; Fiedler and Garcia, 1987; Fiedler, 1993).

The "leader-member relations" referred to how satisfactory was the relationship between the leader and the work group while the "task structure" referred to the degree to which the group's task was well defined. The last situational factor, "position power", referred to what degree leaders had strong power in their positions. According to the model, these three situational factors determined the "favorableness" of the situations from the leader's point of view.

The most favorable situation for a leader was the combination of those having good leader-subordinate relationships, well-defined task structure, and strong position power. On the other hand, the least favorable situation was having poor leader-subordinate relationships, poor task structure, and weak position

power. The concept links between the leadership behavior and the situational factors, according to the theory, was that the task-oriented leaders should be effective in both the most favorable and the least favorable situations whereas the relationship-oriented leaders should be effective in the moderate favorable situation.

The path-goal model was developed to explain how leadership behaviors influenced the satisfaction and performance of subordinates by clarifying what was needed to be done (the path) to obtain desired rewards (the goal) (see House and Mitchell 1974; House, 1996).

In the theory, four kinds of leadership behaviors were identified, namely directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented behaviors. Directive leaders let subordinates know what was expected of them and gave guidance and direction of works while supportive leaders were friendly and concerned subordinates' welfare. Participative leaders consulted subordinates and allowed participation in decision-making. Finally, achievement-oriented leaders encouraged subordinates to perform at high level and showed confidence in subordinates' abilities. Similar to other contingency theories, the path-goal theory also suggested two major situation factors, including subordinates' personal characteristic (ability and locus of control) and work's environmental characteristics (task structure, authority system, and work group).

The underlying assumption of the theory was that both personal and environment characteristics determined the appropriate leadership behavior that led to the degrees of effective outcomes performed by subordinates. Some examples might clarify how this theory operated. According to the theory, directive leadership should increase subordinates' performance and

satisfaction when the task was ambiguous and subordinates were inexperienced. When the task was unpleasant, stressful, and frustrating, then supportive leadership could result in a higher subordinate effort and satisfaction (House, 1996). The propositions for participative and achievement-oriented leadership were not as well developed as those for supportive and directive leadership. Participative leadership was predicted to promote satisfaction of subordinates on non-repetitive and unstructured tasks that allowed for the ego involvement of subordinates. Achievement-oriented leadership was hypothesized to work well in complex tasks by increasing subordinates' self-confidence in their ability to meet challenging goals.

The theories in the situational contingency approach had a huge impact on the study of leadership by providing effective leadership behaviors regarding a variety of different situations (Baird et al., 1990). However, the approach has not passed without its detractors. For example, both the LPC and path-goal models raised questions in a number of areas such as the complexity of the models and their validity (Yukl, 1998). The approach was also criticized for treating leadership as one-way process, particularly with the path-goal theory (Chemers, 1997). That was, it emphasized a greater focus on the responsibility of leaders and much less on subordinates.

In summary, leadership theory began with an internal-dimension interest, since it focused on leaders' characteristics as a central point and suggested that other external-dimension variables were relatively less important. Then, other external variables, such as the followers' performance and satisfaction, were brought to the researchers' attention by linking these variables with the behaviors of successful leaders. After finding that effective leadership was not only dependent on the relationship between leaders and followers but that a situational element was also one of the key factors, the interaction of the

leaders, followers, and the situation all became important in explaining leadership theory.

2.3.3 DEFINING LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR: THE BASS AND AVOLIO TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP MODEL

Transformational leadership was recognized as a new and current approach to leadership (Bryman, 1992; Schermerhorn et al., 1997; Northouse, 1997; Van Seters and Field, 1990) that has been the focus of much research since the early 1980s (Howell and Avolio, 1993). Over the last five years alone, there had been the study of transformational leadership in "at least 100 doctoral dissertations, theses, and research investigations, many of these in Europe, Asia, Africa, and elsewhere" (Bass and Avolio, 1997, p. 16). This could be because the transformational leadership theory helped researchers to understand the leadership phenomena by linking the theory to several areas of study such as those found in management and behavioral psychology (e.g. Bass, Avolio and Atwater, 1996; Atwater and Yammarino, 1993; Avolio, Howell and Sosik, 1999).

Before the 1980s, according to Bass (1990), leadership was generally conceptualized as a transactional exchange process. As he noted, "most experimental research, unfortunately, has focused on transactional leadership..., whereas the real movers and shakers of the world are transformational" (Bass, 1990, p. 23).

Originally, transformational leadership, or a "new force in leadership research" (Thite, 1999), was initially developed by a political scientist named

Burns (1978) who was the first scholar to distinguish conceptually between transactional and transformational leadership (Yukl, 1998; Geyer and Steyrer, 1998; Ingram, 1997). In his work *"Leadership"*, Burns (1978) linked the roles of "leadership" and "followership" by defining leaders as those individuals who attempted to find followers' interests and needs in order to reach the goals of both leaders and followers, and classified leadership into two categories: namely transactional and transformational leadership.

Transactional leadership, for Burns (1978), emphasized satisfying followers' lower level needs based on a cost-benefit exchange process that occurred between leaders and followers. Transactional leaders, therefore, "approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another: jobs for votes, or subsidies for campaign contributions." (p. 3). Then, Burns (1978) contrasted transactional with transformational leadership. He defined transformational leadership as a process in which leaders tried to raise the consciousness of followers by appealing to higher ideals and moral values.

According to Burns (1978), this type of leader was attentive to the needs and motives of followers and tried to motivate followers to reach collective outcomes by going beyond their own self interests. By doing so, transformational leaders needed be able to define and articulate a vision for their organizations, and the followers had to accept the credibility of the leader.

Bass (1985) was one of the early scholars who extended the concept of transactional and transformational leadership, based on the work of Burns (1978), to more organizational situations (Howell and Avolio, 1993). Bass argued that a common problem with leadership research was that a new leadership theory often was substituted for a previous theory that fell into

disfavor (Bass and Avolio, 1997). "Rather than build on earlier theories, there is a tendency to discount them for the sake of introducing a "new way of thinking" (Bass and Avolio, 1993, p. 51). He disagreed with this strategy and thus, according to Bass and Avolio (1997), leadership scholars should not abandon previous leadership models because:

> *"we can now build on previous models to broaden our understanding of leadership and its full development. Hence any improvements that can be made to increase the reliability and validity of measures that tap into outstanding leadership styles such as transformational would likely have immediate benefits for practicing managers and leaders" (Bass et al., 1997, p. 1).*

However, although the foundation concept of transformational leadership between the Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) works were similar, some major differences were pointed out (Bass, 1985; Hede and Wear, 1996). In contrast to Burns (1978), Bass (1985) believed that transformational and transactional leaders were not portrayed as occurring at opposite ends of a continuum. In fact, for Bass, transformational and transactional leadership behavior could not be totally separated because both leadership behaviors were likely to be displayed by the same individual in different amounts and intensities (Bass, 1985) or "most leaders do both but in different amounts" (p. 22).

Another distinction between the Burns and Bass works was the level of operation of leadership (Hede and Wear, 1996). According to Hede and Wear (1996), Burns (1978) was primarily interested in leadership at the macro level (national level), whereby leaders influence vast constituencies beyond their immediate or direct followers. Bass (1985), by contrast, concentrated on the micro level of leadership, whereby leaders and followers were involved in smaller groups and relationships were more direct and interpersonal.

In developing an instrument to measure transformational and transactional leadership, Bass began his first data collection in 1980, that was, the collection of qualitative data from 70 South Africa senior executives (Bass and Avolio, 1993). The reaction of these executives, combined with the responses from 196 U.S. Army colonels in 1985, enabled him to produce a 73-item questionnaire, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). Subsequently, the MLQ was refined and used to measure the three major leadership behaviors: laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1997). These leadership behaviors "help to define the range of leadership behaviors commonly observed by followers from very active through very inactive leaders" (Bass and Avolio, 1993, p. 51). The three leadership behaviors, non-leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership, and their components, are described below.

NON-LEADERSHIP

Laissez-faire leadership was considered by Bass and Avolio (1997) as a negative form of leadership. This leadership was demonstrated when a leader avoided clarifying expectations, addressing conflicts, and making decisions. It referred to an absence of leadership. In other words, he/she avoided getting involved when important issues arise, or showed no concern and responsibility for the results of projects in their control. Consequently, followers working under this kind of leader normally were left to their own responsibilities and might need to seek assistance, support, and supervision from alternative sources (Dubinsky, Yammarino, Jolson, and Spangler, 1995) and often attempted to usurp the role of leader (Coad and Berry, 1998).

TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP

Similar to Burns' (1978) concept, transactional leadership, according to Bass (1985), was mainly based on contingent reinforcement. A transactional leader identified and clarified his/her expectation to followers and promised rewards in exchange for the desired goals. To achieve the desired goals, the transactional leader needed to clearly determine and define the role and task required for the followers. At the same time, transactional leaders also recognized the immediate needs of his/her followers and communicated to them how those needs would be met. This implied that the main characteristics of transactional leaders were those who: (a) recognized what their followers want to get from their work, and they could get it, if they met the required performance; (b) exchanged rewards and promises of reward for appropriate levels of performance; and (c) responded to the needs and desires of followers as long as they made the job done (Bass and Avolio, 1997, p. 17).

According to Bass and Avolio (1997), transactional leadership had three components. *Contingent Reward* referred to an exchange process between leaders and followers. Contingent rewarding leaders provided their followers with rewards for good performance or discipline for poor performance. Through contingent reward, leaders employed goal setting to help clarify what was expected of their followers and what the followers could receive for accomplishing the goals and objectives. The followers might gain rewards in terms of recognition, bonuses, or merit increases (Howell and Avolio, 1993). "If the *contingent reward* strategy is executed properly, then the associates should achieve their objectives" (Bass and Avolio, 1996, p. 14).

Management-by-exception referred to leadership that involved corrective criticism, negative feedback, and negative reinforcement (Bass and Avolio,

1997). Management-by-exception takes two forms: active and passive. The distinction between active and passive management-by-exception is primarily based on the timing of the leader's intervention (Howell and Avolio, 1993).

The leader who relied heavily on *Management-by-Exception (Passive)* intervened with his or her group only when procedures and standards for accomplishing tasks were not met. In other words, the leaders waited until the tasks were completed before taking corrective process. The interest of this kind of leaders tended to be "leaving things alone as long as it doesn't give them too much trouble" (Bass and Avolio, 1996, p. 15). In contrast, *Management-by-Exception (Active)* leaders were characterised as monitors who detected mistakes. These leaders continuously monitored followers' performances and mistakes and immediately took corrective actions when required. The problem with these leaders was that the leaders might create a kind of "risk avoidance" followers (Bass and Avolio, 1996). That was, the followers attempted to avoid taking risks or creating innovative ideas because they could make more mistakes that resulted in their leader's disapproval.

Although previous research studies indicated transactional leadership seemed to be an effective leadership behavior in some situations such as police (Densten, 1999) or sales workforces (Dubinsky et al., 1995), there was concern about the limitations of performing the transactional leadership behavior (Geyer and Steyrer, 1998; Bass and Avolio, 1997; Densten, 1999). The main concern of transactional leadership was that it was not an easy job for a leader to clarify his or her subordinates' needs and to arrange the promised rewards to meet those needs (Singer and Singer, 1990; Geyer and Steyrer, 1998). In several cases, a transactional leader failed to work if the leader lacked reputation or resources to deliver the promises rewards and thus became an ineffective transactional leader (Bass and Avolio, 1997). In

addition, followers might play games with the leaders if rewards were tied too much to specific performance targets, that was, followers did exactly what they were told to do, no more, no less (Bass and Avolio, 1997). "This is not an effective base for continuous improvement" (p. 26).

In summary, a leader was perceived as an effective leader when he or she displayed transactional leadership behavior, particularly contingent reward. However, to achieve success of long-term "high-order" objectives, – "those commonly associated with highly successful organizational systems" (Bass and Avolio, 1997, p. 26), transformational leadership behavior needed to be exhibited.

TRANSFORMATONAL LEADERSHIP

For Bass (1985), transformational leadership was a process in which the leaders took actions to try to increase their followers' awareness of what was right and important. This process was associated with motivating followers to perform "beyond expectation" and encouraging followers to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group or organization. As a result, transformational leadership differed from transactional leadership by not only recognizing followers' needs and wants "but by attempting to develop those needs from lower to higher levels of maturity" (Bass and Avolio, 1997, p.17).

Transformational leadership went beyond the attempts of leaders who seek to satisfy the current needs of followers through transactions or exchanges process (Yammarino and Dubinsky, 1994), it aroused awareness of followers, increased confidence and moved followers gradually from concerns for existence to concerns for achievement and growth of the group (Bass and Avolio, 1997). By working harder for a transformational leader, his/her

followers could develop their skills by using their own decisions and taking greater responsibility (Den Hartog, Van Muijen and Koopman, 1997).

Similar to Bass (1985), Yukl (1998) believed that transformational leadership could be exhibited by anyone in the organization in any type of position. "It (transformational leadership) can occur in the day-to-day acts of ordinary people, but it is not ordinary or common" (p 351).

Transformational leadership had five components. *Idealised Influence* referred to leaders who encouraged followers to share their visions and goals. These leaders had strong personal appeal (Comer, Jolson, Dubinsky, and Yammarino, 1995) and power to influence over his/her subordinates by providing clear vision, a strong sense of purpose and perseverance to achieve the most difficult objectives. As a result, this kind of leader was thoroughly respected, trusted, and admired by their followers. In addition, such leaders normally considered their followers' needs over their own personal needs (Tracey and Himkin, 1998) and were willing to put aside their self-interest for the good of their organisations (Bass and Avolio, 1997). There were two types of idealised influence leadership in a recent theoretical development (Bass and Avolio, 1997). That was, idealized influence could exert influence based on a perception in the eye of the beholder (*Idealized Influence Attributed*) or impact based on the behavior of the leader (*Idealized Influence Behavior*) such as persistence and determination (Bass, 1997a).

Inspirational Motivation represented the appeal of challenging followers by symbols, and metaphors. In other words, inspirational motivation leaders expressed the importance and value of desired goals in simple ways and displayed high levels of expectations. These leaders often talked about a vision of the future and expressed confidence and commitment that their goals

and visions could be achieved. They also tried to move followers to achieve extraordinary levels of accomplishment by showing high expectations and confidence in the followers. Thus, followers reacted by willingly increasing their efforts to attain the vision (Coad and Berry, 1998). Although charisma and inspirational motivation leadership were often highly correlated (Bass, 1997a), inspirational leadership might or might not overlap with charismatic leadership. It depended on the extent to which followers seek to identify with the leaders (Bass and Avolio, 1993). Inspirational leaders could occur without the need for identification of followers with the leader (Charismatic leaders).

Intellectual Stimulation referred to leaders who challenged their followers' ideas and values for solving problems (Bass and Avolio, 1997). Through intellectual stimulation, transformational leaders were able to show their followers new ways of looking at old problems. Such leaders encouraged their followers to use non-traditional thinking to deal with traditional problems and they often listened to followers' ideas even if different from theirs. The message was that "followers should feel free to try out new approaches, and their ideas will not be publicly criticised because they differ from those of the leader" (Coad and Berry, 1998, p. 166). As a result, the followers were encouraged to question their own beliefs, assumptions, and values for solving current problems from many angles perhaps not previously considered. Therefore, the followers could have capabilities to tackle and solve future problems on their own (Bass and Avolio, 1993) and were more likely to focus on their long-term development (Jung, Bass, and Sosik, 1995).

Individualised Consideration referred to "understanding and sharing in others' concerns and developmental needs and treating each individual uniquely" (Bass and Avolio, 1997, p. 29). Through individualised consideration, the leaders spent more time teaching and coaching followers

and treated followers as individuals rather than just as members of a group. This was because the leaders considered their followers as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others. Therefore, the followers, who felt he/she received a leader's special attention, were more likely to work harder to meet their leader's high expectations (Jung et al., 1995). The leaders who exhibited individual consideration normally understood where the further development was needed for their followers. As noted by Bass and Avolio (1996):

> *"Such individualised treatment reflects the leaders' ability to diagnose their associates' requirements for further development and the leaders' ability to design appropriate strategies to satisfy as well as elevate their associates to higher levels of motivation, potential, and performance". (p. 13)*

Summary of leadership factors and its definitions are exhibited in Table 2.11.

Table 2.11 Definitions of the factors of leadership

FACTOR	LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR
Laissez-Faire	Leadership is not attempted. There is abdication of responsibility, indecisiveness, reluctance to take a stand, lack of involvement, and absence of the leader when needed.
Contingent Reward	The leader gives followers a clear understanding of what needs to be done and/or what is expected of them, then arranges to exchange rewards in the form of praise, pay increase, bonuses, and commendations.
Management-by-Exception (Active & Passive)	When it is active, the leader monitors the followers' performance and takes corrective action when mistakes or failures are detected. When it is passive, the leader intervenes only if standards are not met or if something goes wrong.
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	The leader has the followers' respect, faith, and trust. The followers want to identify with the leader. The leader shows determination and conviction.
Idealized Influence (Behavior)	The leader shared a vision and sense of mission with the followers. Radical, innovative solutions to critical problems are proposed for handling followers' problems.
Inspirational Motivation	The leader increases the optimism and enthusiasm of followers. The leader communicates with fluency and confidence using simple language and appealing symbols and metaphors.
Intellectual Stimulation	The leader encourages new ways of looking at old methods and problems. The leader emphasizes the use of intelligence and creativity. The leader provokes rethinking and re-examination of assumptions on which possibilities, capabilities, and strategies are based.
Individualized Consideration	The leader gives personal attention to followers and makes each feel valued and important. The leader coaches and advises each follower for the followers' personal development.

Source: Bass, B. M. (1997a) 'Personal Selling and Transactional/Transformational Leadership', *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, Vol. XVII, No. 3, p. 22.

2.3.3.1 RESEARCH IN TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ITS RELATIONS TO PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES

Transformational leadership had been used to investigate leadership behavior across a wide variety of many organizations for example in a business institution (e.g. Carless, Mann, and Wearing, 1996), military or law enforcement (e.g. Atwater and Yammarino, 1993; Densten, 1999; Singer and Singer, 1990), informational technology (Thite, 1999; Sosik, 1997), educational setting (e.g. Ingram, 1997), and health care industry (Medley and Larochelle, 1995; Pillai, 1995). In addition, the theory is not only widely used in the U.S. but also had been employed in several countries such as Australia (e.g. Parry and Sarros, 1996; Carless, 1998), New Zealand (e.g. Singer and Singer, 1990), the Netherlands (e.g. Den Hartog et al., 1997), Canada (e.g. Avolio, Howell, and Sosik, 1999), Austria (e.g. Geyer and Steyrer, 1998) and the U.K. (e.g. Coad and Berry, 1998) and translated into over a dozen languages (Bass and Avolio, 1997).

In evaluating leadership performance, Bass and Avolio (1997) also proposed the three leadership outcomes that showed how transformational, transactional, and non-leadership related to the success and performance of the target leaders. The three leadership outcomes are presented below:

1. *Extra Effort* reflected the extent to which the "rater" exerted effort beyond the ordinary as result of the leadership behavior.

2. *Effectiveness* reflected how effective the "rater" perceived the target leader to be at different levels of the organisation.

3. *Satisfaction* reflected how satisfied the "rater" was with the target leader' methods and styles and how satisfied he/she was in general with the leader.

According to Bass (1985), transformational and transactional leadership had different effects on followers' performance. In an analysis of 14 independent empirical studies, Bass and Avolio (1997) found the correlations among the transformational, transactional and non-leadership components' scores and the three leadership outcomes and results that generally confirmed the predictions of "The Full Range of Leadership Development Model" (Bass and Avolio, 1997) (see "The Full Range of Leadership Model" in Figure 2.1).
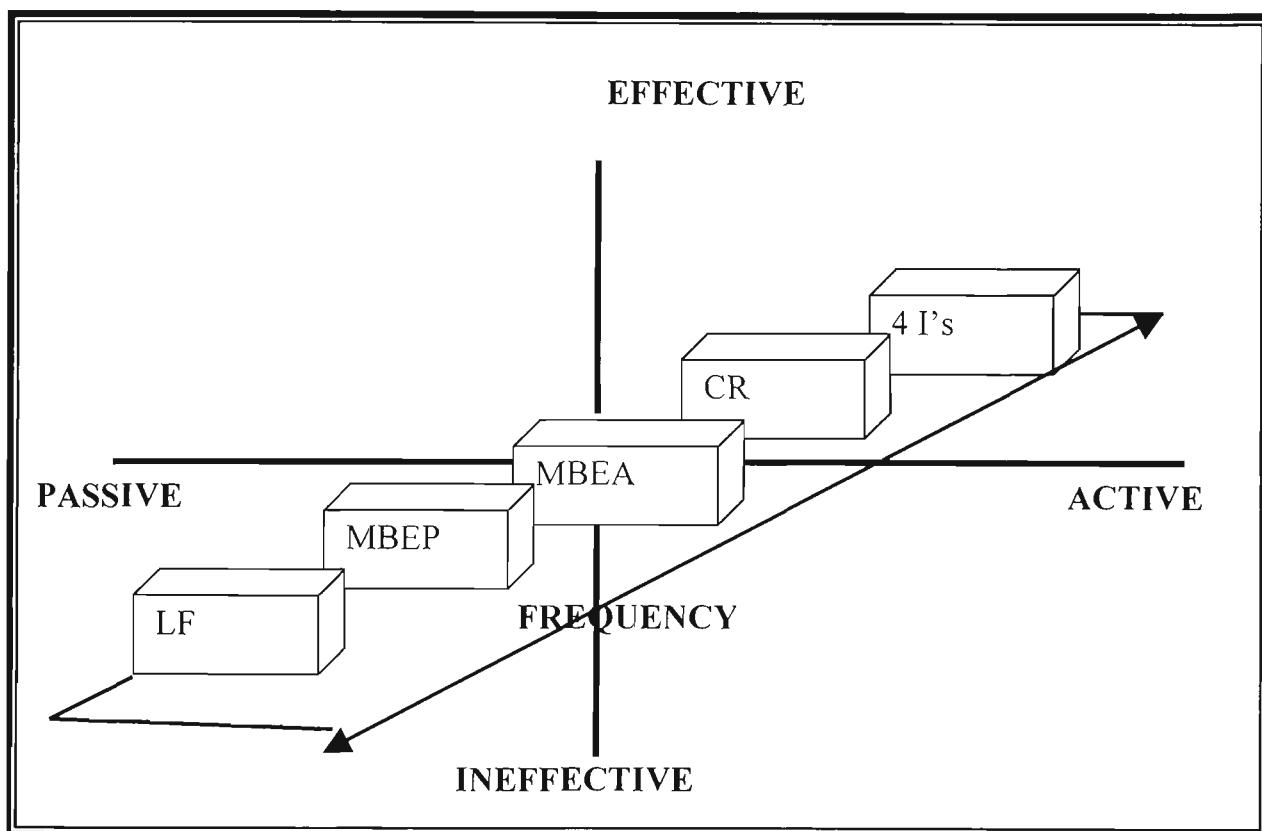
Figure 2.1: "The Full Range of Leadership Development Model" Source: Bass, B. M. and Avolio, B. J. (1997) Full range leadership development: Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire, CA: Mind Garden. Copyright © 1995 by Bernard M. Bass and Bruce J. Avolio.

Figure 2.1 shows the factors in the leadership model on two dimensions: active-passive, and effective and ineffective. The style of leadership displayed by any particular leader depended on the frequency of occurrence of performance of behaviors indicating the four leadership behaviors. The active and passive dimensions helped to clarify the leadership styles: the four I's

(idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) and CR (contingent reward) were active leadership styles, the MBE-A (active management-by-exception) some what in between, and the MBE-P (passive management-by-exception) and LF (laissez-faire) were passive leadership styles. The last dimension (effectiveness) broadly represented the relationships between the leadership styles and performance or the leadership outcomes (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction).

According to Bass and Avolio (1997), transformational leadership behavior was on average more highly positively correlated with the three leadership outcomes when compared with contingent reward, management-by-exception, and laissez-faire leadership. This could be because the transformational principle was more concerned with the development of shared values, beliefs and commitments among leaders and followers (Ingram, 1997); thus transformational leaders might be able to help their followers collectively maximize performance (Howell and Avolio, 1993).

Transactional leadership based on contingent reward was generally viewed as being positively linked to the leadership outcomes. This relationship was based on the assumption that "by clarifying what the leader wants and then rewarding the appropriate behaviors, the leader directs followers to the performance level he or she desires" (Howell and Avolio, 1993, p. 892).

Several previous studies had showed that contingent reward leadership behavior was positively related to followers effectiveness, satisfaction, or extra effort (e.g. Parry and Sarros, 1996; Comer et al., 1995; Singer and Singer, 1990; Geyer and Steyrer, 1998) although in some circumstances the relationship was negative (e.g. Howell and Avolio, 1993; Avolio et al., 1999) or

no relationship (e.g. Coad and Berry, 1998). For management-by-exception, this style of leadership generally had no or little relationships with the leadership outcomes when the leaders displayed active management-by-exception behavior (Thite, 1999; Coad and Berry, 1998; Comer et al., 1995); or had a negative relationship when the leaders passively waited for problems to arise before taking any necessary actions (Singer and Singer, 1990; Howell and Avolio, 1993; Parry and Sarros, 1996; Geyer and Steyrer, 1998). For non-leadership, laissez-faire, leadership had been found consistently to be negative correlated with all of the measures of outcomes among followers (Bass and Avolio, 1997).

In summary, "The Full Range of Leadership Development Model" indicated that an effective leader generally infrequently displayed laissez-faire leadership and increased the frequencies of the transactional leadership behavior of management-by-exception (passive), management-by-exception (active), and contingent reward, but the most frequently displayed leadership style by the effective leader was the transformational leadership behavior.

The results of several previous studies appeared to support the assumption of "The Full Range of Leadership Development Model" by indicating that leaders who exhibited transformational leadership were generally more frequently to be seen by their subordinates as effective leaders than were those who showed transactional or non-leadership behaviors. For example, Ingram (1997) using the MLQ with 44 teachers who worked in public K-12 schools to identify their principals' leadership styles found that principals who were perceived to exhibit highly transformational behavior had a greater positive effects on teachers' motivation to exert extra effort than principals who were perceived to exhibit highly transactional leadership.

In addition, a study of the relationship between the leadership style of head nurses and the job satisfaction of 122 staff nurses by Medley and Larochelle (1995) discovered that the head nurses who exhibited transformational were more likely to have higher staff nurses' satisfaction than the head nurses who displayed transactional leadership.

Similar results were obtained by the study of Singer and Singer (1990) which in an investigation of the relationship between the leadership styles and satisfaction in police force in New Zealand and employees in Taiwan organizations, demonstrated that the subordinates' satisfaction scores had higher correlations with the rating of transformational than transactional leadership behavior.

Comer et al. (1995) who studied 61 salesmen and saleswomen on the leadership styles of 31 female sales managers indicated that the four transformational components were generally greater positively correlated to the satisfaction measure than the transactional components in both samples. Geyer and Steyrer (1998) reported similar results when they used the MLQ to examine the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and performance with 1456 subordinates of branch managers in 20 different Austrian banks.

Again, Sosik (1997) obtained similar findings when investigating 36 undergraduate student work groups. The findings indicated that the groups working under high levels of transformational leadership reported higher levels of perceived performance, extra effort, and satisfaction with the leader than did groups working under low levels of transformational leadership. Further support was provided by Hult, Ferrell, and Schul (1998), in examining the effects of the leadership styles on the satisfaction of the users

of strategic business units (SBUs), when the results suggested that the transformational components appeared to be more important than the transactional components in achieving a high degree of user's satisfaction.

Based on the above results, the research seemed to support the fundamental point of "The Full Range of Leadership Development Model" that transactional leadership skill was necessary for effective leaders to achieve an acceptable standard of work but transformational leadership induced followers to work harder, enhanced followers' effectiveness, and increased satisfaction among followers (Bass and Avolio, 1997).

2.3.3.2 THE MLQ STRUCTURAL VALIDITY

Most of previous research on transformational leadership involved the use of the MLQ to measure various aspects of transformational, transactional, and non-leadership behavior (Hinkin and Tracey, 1999). Although the MLQ was the most widely used instrument to assess transformational leadership theory (Bryman, 1992; Tracey and Hinkin, 1998) and there was many empirical supports for the validity of the Full Range of Leadership Development Model, the MLQ also had been criticized in some areas for its conceptual framework and the measurement of its respective factors (see Yukl, 1998; Northhouse, 1997; Tracey and Hinkin, 1998).

According to Tepper and Percy (1994, p. 735), the most immediate concern regarding the MLQ was its structural validity. In fact, a number of studies had reported a wide range of outcomes when examining the underlying constructs of the MLQ. Yammarino and Dubinsky (1994) conducted a

principal components factor analysis of the transformational factors, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, using the MLQ with the multi-source data of 105 salespersons and their 33 sales supervisors. They found very high correlations among the four transformational factors and very high loadings of the items on a single transformational scale for both samples.

Similar results were reported by the study of Tracey and Hinkin (1998) when they conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to test the contractual distinction of the four transformational factors by using data from 291 hotel managers. The results of the overall fit indices suggested that the four scales of the MLQ were best represented in their data by a single transformational leadership factor. Den Hartog et al. (1997) also conducted a principal component factor analysis to test the structure of the MLQ form 8Y using Dutch data.

The results of their study provided mixed support. That was, for the three main leadership scales (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire), they found the distinction between the three-factor solution. However, at the subscale level, the results suggested that passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire belonged to one factor. Carless (1998) also tested the distinct constructs of three factors of transformational leadership (II, IS, IC) using confirmatory factor analysis with the sample of 1,440 employees working in an international bank. After testing three hierarchical models, Carless concluded that "the MLQ (Form-5X) does not measure separate transformational leader behaviours, instead, it appears to assess a single, hierarchical construct of transformational leadership" (p. 357).

In addition, Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995) investigated the factor structure of the MLQ form 1 by conducting a series of confirmatory factor analyses using data from 1,376 nurses. Four models were examined in their study, including one general factor, two correlated factors (transformational and transactional leadership), two other correlated factors (active and passive leadership), and five correlated factors (II, IC, IS, CR, and MBE-P). Generally, they found that the overall confirmatory factor analysis only supported the five factors model.

However, Bycio et al. (1995) also noted that the results needed to be interpreted with caution since the correlations among the transformational factors were very high (.81 to .91). Again, Densten and Sarros (1997) investigated the structure of transformational leadership using a higher-order confirmatory factor analysis with the sample of 480 senior police officers. The results indicated that the four second-order transformational factors (II, IM, IS, and IC) were confirmed by their data. As the four second-order factors were based on the eleven first-order factors, they argued that the structure of the MLQ seemed to be more complex than its original representation.

Another study that focused on the measurement qualities of the MLQ was conducted by Tepper and Percy (1994). Tepper and Percy examined the MLQ's latent structure using confirmatory analyses at the item and scale levels with two independent samples (290 student and 90 managers). In the first sample, they investigated three separate factor models at the item level that included one-factor model, two-factor model (transformational and transactional), and eight-factor model (four of transformational and four of transactional). Using 24 items from 72-item version of the MLQ, the results suggested that none of the models obtained a particularly good fit to the data.

As a result, Tepper and Percy (1994) eliminated eight items (one for each II and IM and all items of MBE) and then conducted a second set of confirmatory factor analyses with five additional models to find the model that best represented the data. According to their results, the four-factor model obtained the best fit to the data, that was, the idealized influence and inspirational motivation items loaded on a one factor and the individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and contingent reward items loaded on the other three factors. In the second sample, Tepper and Percy only focus on the convergent and discriminant validity of the dimensions underlying the idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and contingent reward constructs. Similar to the findings of the first sample, the results indicated that the idealized influence and inspirational motivation scales converged to form a single latent construct and thus they argued that both scales should be treated as indicators of a single underlying dimension.

More recently, Hinkin and Tracey (1999) explored the measurement qualities and factor structure of the MLQ with two studies. In study one, a content adequacy assessment of the transformational items was conducted with the sample of 57 graduate business students who responded on the 39-item MLQ to find out the extent to which the respondents believed the items were consistent with each of the four factors of transformational leadership. The results revealed that 23 of 39 items were classified correctly and that provided some support for the four factors of transformational leadership.

Benefiting from the first study, Hinkin and Tracey (1999) conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses with the data obtained from 291 hotel managers by using only 23 items (study one) for further analysis. After running the first analysis, the results revealed that the proposed four-factor model was not supported. As suggested by the modification indices, they

eliminated items that loaded on multiple factors and found that the all remaining idealized influence items were eliminated. After conducting the second analysis to test the remaining three-factor model (IM, IC, and IS), the results from a confirmatory factor analysis provided convincing support for the three-factor model. These results could be interpreted as suggesting that idealized influence was not seen as an independent construct within the MLQ by the respondents in this study.

Given the extensive review above, it appeared that: (a) the transformational four factors were highly correlated with each other and thus researchers argued that the four factors might be best represented as a single transformational leadership scale (e.g. Yammarino and Dubinsky, 1994; Tracey and Hinkin, 1998; Carless, 1998); (b) in particular, the conceptual distinction between the idealized influence and inspirational motivation factors had not been clearly articulated (e.g. Tepper and Percy, 1994), and (c) the passive forms of leadership were also troublesome, that was, there was an unclear distinction between the management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire factors (Den Hartog et al., 1997).

Acknowledging the problems of the previous versions of the MLQ, Bass and Avolio (1997) conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses to justify its factor structure in a sample of 14 independent studies and argued that the latest form of the MLQ (5X) addressed many such criticisms. In their study, Bass and Avolio (1997) conducted the first confirmatory analysis to test the convergent and discriminant validities of nine MLQ scales using all items of the MLQ form 5X included: 8 for II, 10 for IM, 10n for IS, 9 for IC, 9 for CR, 8 for MBEA, 8 for MBEP, and 8 for LF. The results of the first test provided them with poor fit indices (GFI = .73 and RMSR = .10). As a result, Bass and Avolio (1997) employed the Modification Indices (MI) strategy to improve the

model by selecting four items for each leadership factor. After completing the item selection process, they conducted a second confirmatory factor analyses to test the five different models "to see which factor structure solution best represented the theoretical model underlying the MLQ (5X)" (p. 67).

The five models included one general factor model, a two correlated factor model (transformational and transactional), a three correlated factor model (transformational, transactional, non-transactional), a five correlated factor model tested by Bycio et al. (1995), and a nine correlated factor model (full leadership model). They found that the first four models did not meet the cut-off criterion but the full leadership model of nine factors had satisfactory levels of fit indices (GFI = .91, AGFI = .89, and RMSR = .04). Thus, these results could be interpreted that:

> *"there appeared to be some evidence to suggest that with further refinement of the MLQ (X), it may be possible to accurately profile with convergence and discrimination this wide range of nine leadership components. Nonetheless, the transformational leadership components were intercorrelated with each other. However, when we combined those components into a single factor, as shown in our test of the two and three-factor model of leadership, the resulting model fit was inadequate" (Bass and Avolio, 1997, p. 73).*

In summary, the unclear factor structure of the MLQ found in some previous research raised doubts about evaluating leadership behaviors as measured by the MLQ. Consequently, the further examination of the underlying structure of the MLQ, particularly the latest version of the MLQ (5X), was recommended.

2.3.3.3 SELF-OTHER RATINGS

Self-other appraisals had been examined in a number of previous leadership literatures (e.g. Yammarino and Atwater, 1997; Atwater, Ostroff, Yammarino, and Fleenor 1998; Atwater and Yammarino, 1992; Yammarino, Dubinsky, Comer, and Jolson, 1997). Generally, these studies involved surveying others' perceptions (such as peers, supervisors, or subordinates) of the leadership behaviors of a target leader and then comparing them to the leaders' self-ratings to find the differences and similarities (Yammarino and Dubinsky, 1994; Yammarino and Atwater, 1997). Some made further investigations of the influence of the raters' personal attributes on performance (Sosik and Megerian, 1999; Atwater et al., 1998).

The results of these studies typically suggested that ratings from other sources should be considered in attempts to predict leadership behavior and evaluate leader's performance (Yammarino and Atwater, 1997). In particular subordinates, who were influenced directly by the target leaders' behavior (Atwater and Yammarino, 1992), were more likely to rate the leaders from their "first-hand" experience (Atwater and Yammarino, 1993). The assumption behind using ratings from other sources was that self-ratings were often an unreliable indicator to predict behavior (Church and Waclawski, 1998). In other words, "we are not very good at evaluating ourselves or seeing ourselves as others see us" (Yammarino and Atwater, 1997, p.37) and thus other perceptions should be included to help and inform the leaders about the need for developing their behavior (Atwater et al., 1998).

Recent work by Yammarino and Atwater (1997), in their review of the development of a model for self-other rating agreement and its influence on

leadership performance and effectiveness, classified self-other ratings into four categories based on the comparison of self-ratings and the ratings provided by "significant others" including direct reports, co-workers, and superiors.

The four different self-other categories were over-estimators, in-agreement/good, in-agreement/poor, and under-estimators. Over-estimators were defined as people who produced self-ratings that were significantly higher than other ratings on the dimensions of interest. In-agreement/good was defined as self-ratings and other ratings were both favorable and in agreement (i.e. self-ratings were high and similar to ratings from others) while in-agreement/poor was self-ratings were low and similar to other ratings, which also were low. For under-estimators, raters tended to rate themselves significantly lower than other ratings.

According to their model of the relationship between these four categories and performance and effective outcomes, Yammarino and Atwater (1997) contended that over-estimators tended to be very negative with the outcomes, that was, over-estimators were expected to be poorer performers and less effective. The in-agreement/poor group was also expected to be poor performers and ineffective because they recognized their weaknesses but took few actions to improve their performance. By contrast, the in-agreement/good would be the successful and the best performers who, similar to other perceptions, viewed themselves as good performers. According to Yammarino and Atwater (1997), self-raters in this category were the "ideal employees", "good managers", and "effective leaders". The effectiveness and performance of under-estimator group could be mixed and there was a potential for improvement of the self-raters in this group.

The role of self-other ratings on transformational leadership was also reported in previous empirical studies (e.g. Atwater and Yammarino, 1992; Bass and Avolio, 1997; Church and Waclawski, 1998; Atwater and Yammarino, 1993; Sosik and Megerian, 1999). The results of these studies led to two general conclusions. First, leader's self-ratings tended to be less accurate when compared to the ratings from other sources (Atwater and Yammarino, 1992) because self-ratings tended to be more inflated than either superior or subordinate ratings (Church Waclawski, 1998; Bass and Avolio, 1997). Second, individual differences were likely to influence the raters' perceptions, both self and other perceptions, on leadership behavior (e.g. Atwater and Yammarino, 1993; Sosik and Megerian, 1999).

Bass and Avolio (1997) suggested that leaders self-ratings were often inflated, that was, they were found to rate themselves more highly on the transformational factors than rated by their associates such as peers, subordinates, and superiors. The inflation of self-ratings could relate to a rater's self-esteem (Farh and Dobbins, 1989) that motivated people to present themselves in a favorable light (Atwater and Yammarino, 1992).

Previous works on transformational leadership had supported this proposition (Church and Waclawski, 1998; Adamson, 1996; Atwater and Yammarino, 1992; Carless et al, 1996). For example, when Church and Waclawski (1998) investigated 253 senior executives and their direct reports from a global corporation, the results indicated that the leaders rated themselves, overall, as exhibiting more transformational leadership than their direct reports. In fact, while the leaders perceived themselves as being more transformational, the subordinates of these leaders provided ratings that were significantly more transactional in their estimations.

The inflation of self-rating was also found in a study by Carless et al. (1996) when they investigated 683 branch managers and 1439 subordinates from a large Australian bank. The results of a t-test indicated that manager and subordinate ratings were significantly different and that the managers were more positive than their subordinates in their own ratings of their leadership behavior. Similar results were obtained by Atwater and Yammarino (1992) who investigated self-others ratings agreement of 91 U.S. student leaders and 158 officers in Naval Academy. They found self-ratings of leaders were higher than either subordinates' or superiors' ratings in both samples. In addition, Adamson (1996) investigated the leadership behavior of 41 occupational therapy managers in Australia by using the MLQ found the managers generally rated themselves more highly on transformational factors than assessed by their nurse subordinates.

Regarding the effect of individual differences on self-other ratings toward leadership behavior, Yammarino and Atwater (1997) proposed five categories of influence that could relate to self-perception and perception of others. The five categories were; (a) bio-data included elements such as age, gender, and education; (b) individual characteristics such as intelligence, self-awareness, and ability; (c) job-relevant experiences such as success and failure; (d) cognitive processes such as beliefs and expectation; and (e) context/situation such as rater experience, job context, and organizational situation.

This proposition seemed to support Bass' (1985) assumption, when he suggested that there were personality traits which differentiated transformational leaders from those who were not. This hypothesis was later supported by the study of Church and Waclawski (1998) when they found leaders who were classified as inventors and motivators generally displayed more transformational leadership than those who classified as analytical

coordinators and implementers. If this was the case, since leadership behavior was perceived to be based on the information processing of individuals (Yammarino et al., 1997), individual differences of both self and other raters could be one of possible indicators to predict the ratings of transformational and transactional leadership.

Prior empirical studies on transformational leadership had found support for this perspective. For example, when Atwater and Yammarino (1993) assessed the relationship between U.S. military academy leader's personal attributes (i.e. intelligence, coping style, personal traits, decision style, and athletic experience) and others' ratings of transformational and transactional leadership, the results of regression analysis indicated that personal attributes significantly predicted leadership ratings, particularly in subordinates' ratings of both transformational and transactional leadership. Another example was provided by Yammarino and Dubinsky (1994). Although the study of Yammarino and Dubinsky (1994) did not examine directly the influence of individual differences on leadership ratings, the results also revealed that transformational leadership was determined to be an individual-level of analysis, that was, it was based on individual differences in perceptions and information processing.

In summary, although self-ratings were sometime less valid than other ratings (Yammarino and Dubinsky, 1994), "it does not mean that, in cases of disagreement, self-ratings are always "false" and other ratings are always "true"; nor is the opposite statement appropriate" (Yammarino and Atwater 1997 p. 39). Instead, self and other ratings reflected the different perspectives of the raters on the same leadership behavior that was influenced by the raters' individual differences. However, feedback from other sources, particularly subordinates, could increase the accuracy of self-evaluation

(Yammarino and Atwater, 1997), and provided leaders with information on what leadership behavior needed to be changed or improved (Atwater et al., 1998). As noted by Yammarino and Atwater (1997), "those who never receive feedback will tend to retain inaccurate self-perceptions and remain ignorant regarding perceptions from others" (p. 36). As a result, in consideration of an expected inflation of the self-ratings, subordinate-ratings are used to substantiate the Australian expatriates' reports of leadership behavior in this study.

2.3.3.4 AUSTRALIAN LEADERSHIP

Australia has what is perceived as a unique culture within the Pacific Rim, being low in power distance, medium on uncertainty avoidance, high in individualism, and considerably high in masculinity (Hofstede, 1984). This unique culture reflected the differences in values and beliefs of Australian managers that distinguished them from other countries (Wallace, Hunt, and Richards, 1999). Consequently, leadership could mean different things to Australian managers compared with other people in different countries.

As they were low in power distance, Australians did not treat people differently even when there were great differences in age or social standing (Mackay, 1993). In organizational contexts, the relationship between subordinates and leaders was likely to base on equal rights (Avery, Everett, Finkelde, and Wallace, 1999), whereas a hierarchy in organizations was set up for the convenience of managerial effectiveness (Hofstede, 1995a). Unlike other countries with high power distance, the leadership skill and effectiveness of Australian managers were not determined by positions in

organizations but rather by their personal attributes, such as being a good role model before having a "right to rule" (Parry, 1996). Yet, providing subordinates with decision-making responsibility and autonomy was also expected for effective Australian leaders (Sarros and Santora, 1994).

Australians believed in independence and freedom, that was, individuals had to shape and control their own destinies (MacKay, 1993). Australian managers, therefore, tended to place a much higher value on individual responsibilities rather than on collective efforts (Westwood and Posner, 1997). Not surprisingly, the results of a study by Sarros, Jones, and Miller (1992), which investigated Australian leadership based on two separate samples, indicated that poor teamwork was one of the Australian leadership weaknesses, whereas motivating and recognizing subordinates as individuals were expected for successful leadership behaviors in Australia (Parry, 1996). In addition, reflecting a high masculine value, Australian managers viewed their success in business by measuring it in terms of bank balances, profits, and market share (Sarros and Santora, 1994). They believed that a successful manager was the one who had the skill to create wealth for their shareholders by growing their businesses, increasing profits, and improving productivity at the same time.

Other excellent studies of Australian leadership could be found in several studies by Sarros and his associates (e.g. Sarros, Tanewski, and Santora, 1995; Sarros and Butchatsky, 1996; Sarros, 1993). A study by Sarros et al. (1995), examining the attributes and activities of business leadership from Australian perspectives, found that Australian key leadership functions focused on direction setting, team building, problem solving, and change agent responsibilities.

Another study by Sarros and his colleagues identified the fundamental skills required to be a successful Australian leader as having a view of the future, coaching and role modeling, rewarding achievement, respecting the contributions of all individuals, and understanding their own values and attitudes (Sarros and Butchatsky, 1996). Furthermore, Australian leadership strengths and weaknesses were presented in a study by Sarros et al. (1992). The leadership strengths included non-elitist/egalitarian attitudes, innovative work practices, responsiveness, open communication, and forthrightness, while short-term vision, indecisiveness, poor teamwork, image consciousness, and unempathic behavior were identified as the Australian leadership weaknesses.

According to Lewis (1996), the findings and conclusions about transformational leadership were confirmed in a study conducted in a large Australian organization between 1985 and 1990. Since then, transformational leadership had been used as a theoretical framework to investigate Australian leadership behavior in several organization areas for example political (Hede and Wear, 1996), business (e.g. Parry and Sarros, 1996; Carless et al., 1996), police workforce (Densten, 1999), health care (Adamson, 1996), and IT project leadership (Thite, 1999). Some Australian authors focused on the development of the concept of transformational leadership (e.g. Lewis, 1996) or compared the theory with another leadership theory (Carless et al., 1996), while another investigated the validity of its instrument (e.g. Carless, 1998).

Most of this research seemed to continue support for the validity of "The Full Range of Leadership Development Model" (Parry and Sarros, 1996; Thite, 1999; Adamson, 1996) although transactional leadership was identified as a predominant leadership behavior over transformational leadership in one specific organizational circumstance (Densten, 1999). Parry and Sarros (1996)

found the four factors of transformational leadership had a greater positive relationship with follower's satisfaction (r values ranged from 0.55 to 0.88) and leader's effectiveness (from 0.58 to 0.78) than transactional leadership (from −0.19 to 0.41 in effectiveness and from −0.29 to 0.41 in satisfaction). Similar results were found in a study which examined IT project managers (Thite, 1999). The results indicated that transformational leadership behavior was displayed more frequently by the managers with more successful projects than the managers with less successful projects. Another study also provided evidence to support these relationships when Adamson (1996) investigated 41 Australian occupational therapy managers and 83 of their staff. Those occupational therapy managers were rated more highly on transformational than transactional leadership and thus the staff seemed to respect and identify with these managers.

By contrast to most studies, Densten (1999) reported the transactional leadership of management-by-exception was the most frequently observed behavior of their leaders, and caused the most satisfaction among 480 senior officers in Australian police force, possibly as a consequence of the unique procedures and primary concerns of this kind of workforce.

Although, in general, the structure of transformational leadership and its frequency were similar in Australia and other countries (e.g. Singer and Singer, 1990; Den Hartog et al. 1997; Geyer and Steyrer, 1998), there were some differences that distinguished the Australian leaders from those in other countries. For example, role modeling was an essential characteristic of effective leaders in Australia (Parry, 1996). "Australian leaders can do a lot of things, but one thing they must do is to behave as they would want others to" (p. 99). Individualized consideration also meant something different in Australia. The transformational leadership factor of individualized

consideration was found to be a component of the charisma behavior in Australian leadership (Parry and Sarros, 1996). Therefore, "Australian workers are more likely to see their managers as being charismatic if the managers take an interest in the welfare of individuals" (Parry, 1996, p. 97).

In addition, Parry and Sarros (1996) also found that "management-by-exception" had different results in Australia when compared with the U.S. When leaders exhibit increasing monitoring and controlling behaviors, American followers perceived their leaders to be more effective than Australian followers did. In fact, Australian followers perceived their leaders to be ineffective and dissatisfied when their leaders displayed management-by-exception. To sum up, the effective leaders in Australia were those who presented a positive role model, considered followers based on a one to one relationship, and kept monitoring and controlling to a minimum.

2.4 CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP

Generally, it was believed that the ways people see their surrounding environment was strongly influenced by their cultural backgrounds (Hofstede, 1984). In terms of leadership study, it meant that followers hold implicit cognitive behaviors of leaders and these cognitive behaviors had a cultural component (Gerstner and Day, 1994; Ah Chong and Thomas, 1997). Therefore, it assumed that the content and complexity of leadership behaviors might differ across cultures. Lord, DeVader, and Alliger (1986) seemed to supported this belief when they proposed that the followers' perception tended to be consistent within the same culture while the perception was likely to be less consistent across cultures. This suggested that followers from different cultures might perceive different meaning of leadership behaviors from the same leader because of the differences in their cultures guiding their perceptions (Helgstrand and Stuhlmacher, 1999; DeCarlo, Rody, and DeCarlo, 1999).

Followers' perceptions of leadership behaviors were also related to performance outcome variables such as followers' satisfaction, effort, and effectiveness (DeCarlo et al., 1999). DeCarlo et al. (1999) believed that followers' effectiveness was mainly depended on the match between a follower' perceptions of his or her leader's behaviors and the follower's desired leadership behaviors. The basic relationship was that followers' effectiveness increased as the difference between the perceptions of leadership behaviors received and the perception of desired leadership behaviors was reduced. In other words, leaders' success was likely to depend on their followers' perceptions. Several authors in expatriate literatures also maintained that the differences in cultural perceptions could determine what or how

leadership behaviors exhibited by an expatriate leader were accepted to be effective or satisfying by their followers in the host country (e.g. Selmer, Kang, and Wright, 1994; Earley and Erez, 1997; Selmer, 1997). As Brodbeck et al. (2000) noted:

> *'The leadership perceptions of the perceivers in a host country (e.g. higher-level managers, colleagues and subordinates) determine whether a foreign manager is labeled a leader which, in turn, can determine the acceptance of his/her leadership traits and behaviours and the degree to which the foreign leader is perceived to be powerful, influential or efficient'* (p. 3).

2.4.1 THE INFLUENCE OF CULTURAL VALUES ON LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR

The influence of culture on leadership might be well explained in conjunction with Dorfman's model (1996). After reviewing several aspects of the study of cross-cultural leadership, Dorfman (1996) proposed a cross-cultural model of leadership, based on previous models addressed in literature (e.g. Erez and Earley, 1993; Yukl, 1989), to explain how culture influenced leadership processes (see Figure 2.2).
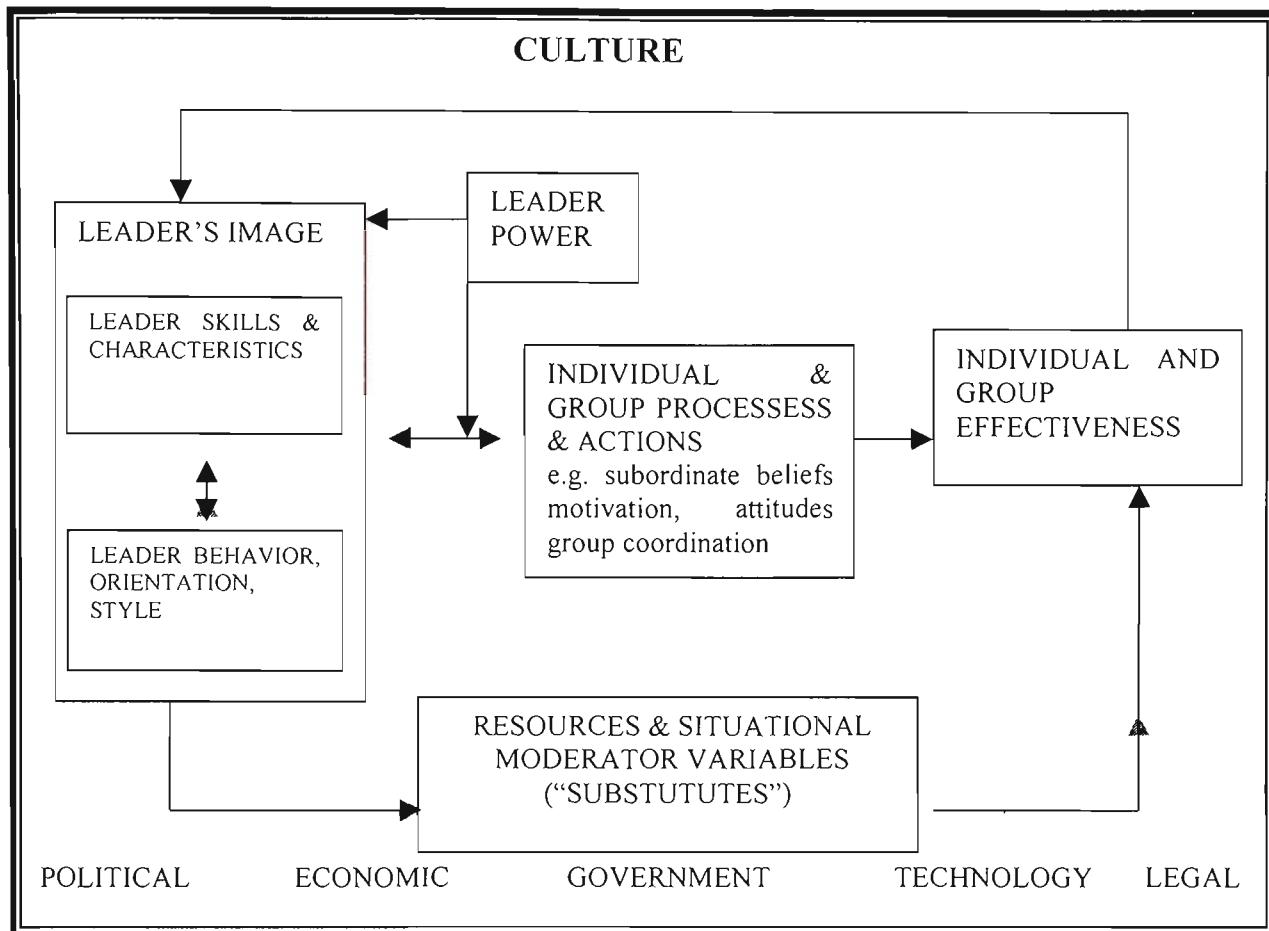
Figure 2.2: "Cultural Enveloping Model of Leadership" Source: Dorfman (1996), p 313.

In the model, three major leadership aspects were described as the leader's power, image, and interpersonal relationships between the leader-followers and leader-groups. All aspects, according to Dorfman (1996), were expected to be heavily culturally contingent. For the first aspect, the leader's power (capacity to influence others in the organization or group), a leader's potential capacity to influence others depended on to what extent a given society had a low/high power distance or masculine/feminine cultural values. Second, the leader's image was influenced by culture because a leader needed to create his/her image to fit the prototype of effective leadership perceived by followers in a given culture or country. Third, the model also suggested that the relationships between the leader and followers or groups in a specific culture were also culturally contingent. For example, participatory leadership was neither expected, nor likely to be effective in a high power distance culture.

In addition, Dorfman (1996) also included "substitutes for leadership" (e.g. leadership expertise) as a situational moderator variable in the model. The model also suggested that the ultimate outcomes of successful leadership-achievement of goals (individual and group effectiveness) were influenced by culture. For example, individual success resulting from high individual performance might not be viewed favorable in collectivistic cultures. However, Dorfman (1996) admitted that this model was only presented as a general framework to guide researchers on how some of the key leadership variables could be influenced by culture. Other leadership aspects or "macrovariables" besides culture (e.g. political and economic environment) were not the focus of this model.

The links between culture and leadership seemed to be a two-way relationship as some authors argued that leadership also influenced culture (e.g. Schein, 1992; 1996, Kotter and Heskett, 1992). As Schein (1992) pointed out 'the most important for cultural beginnings is the impact of founders' (p. 211). This implied that founders, as early leaders in an organization, had a major influence on how the organization should be initially defined. They often chose the basic mission based mostly on his/her own cultural personality.

Schein (1992) also proposed six primary mechanisms to explain how founders or leaders transmitted culture to the members in their organizations: (1) attention (what leaders encourage their employees to concentrate on), (2) reaction to crises (a crisis situation allowed employees to see what was valued by the leader because its emotionality brings these values to the surface), (3) allocation of resources (how budgets were created and located reflecting the leader's assumptions and beliefs), (4) role modeling (leader communicated strong beliefs though his or her own actions), (5) allocation of rewards (leader's values and assumptions were learned by employees when leader set

criteria for rewarding and punishing), and (6) criteria for selection and dismissal (how a leader's decisions about whom to recruit and dismiss signaled his or her values to all of the organization's employees).

Leaders not only crated cultures but also, according to Kotter and Heskett (1992), changed culture. Changing culture was a very difficult task. It requires a great effort, a lot of time and sometimes involves a big budget (Deal and Kennedy, 1982). Kotter and Heskett (1992) mentioned that a leader who wished to change cultures needed both an outsider's openness to new ideas and an insider's power base.

According to Kotter and Heskett (1992), leaders usually take four steps when changing cultures in the organization: first, they provided effective leadership by convincing employees a crisis was at hand; second, communicating in a simple word a new vision and a new set of strategies for the organization; third, motivating others to provide the leadership needed to implement the vision and strategies; and forth, the change must produce positive results otherwise the whole effort lost its critical credibility. However, it should be noted that the propositions given above tended to investigate the influence of leadership on the cultural values at the organizational level. For the culture at national level, it seemed that leadership of managers or expatriate managers was likely to be influenced by national cultures (Katz and Seifer, 1996; Gopalan and Rivera, 1997; Hofstede, 1984).

At the national level, some authors suggested that the extent to which leadership behaviors were influenced by culture depended mainly on the specific leadership behavior that was chosen to be investigated (e.g. Dorfman et al., 1997; Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson, and Bond, 1995; Chemers, 1997; Dorfman, 1996). Some types of leadership behaviors tended to be less effected

by followers' cultural backgrounds while others might vary from one culture to another. As a result, it raised a question of whether the attributes of leadership behaviors were culturally universal or culturally specific attributes.

2.4.2 CULTURE-SPECIFIC VERSUS CULTURE-UNIVERSAL

One of the main debated issues in the study of cross-cultural management was that of how well the application of management practices could be transferred across cultures or nations (Dowling et al., 1994; Adler, 1997; Lemak. and Arunthanes, 1997; Douglas and Wind, 1994). On the one hand, it was pointed out that although differences between countries might exist, the significant changes of technology, communication, transportation, and free-market capitalism had resulted in culture becoming more alike (e.g. Levitt, 1995; Ohmae, 1994; Kreutzer, 1990; Yip, 1995; Amine and Cavuscil, 1990). On the other hand, it was argued that culture was a deep value system of people that was unlikely to change and thus management practices needed to be tailor-made to fit diverse cultural backgrounds (Hofstede, 1995b; Baalbaki and Malhotra, 1993; Sandler and Shani, 1992; Swanson, 1993; Robinson, 1990; Morden, 1995; Kustin, 1993; Graig, Douglas, and Grein, 1992).

These conflicting viewpoints seem to be applied to the study of leadership when national culture was used to explain leadership behavior (Bass, 1990; Dorfman, 1996; Peterson and Hunt, 1997; Oghor, 2000; Smith and Peterson, 1988; Blunt and Jones, 1997). Two terms used by Triandis (1994b) to distinguish the different types of cross-cultural study were "emic" and "etic". Emics referred to ideas, behaviors, and concepts that were culturally unique

or specific, whereas, etics referred to ideas, behaviors, and concepts that were culturally universal. In terms of cross-cultural leadership studies, the culture-specific or emic approach reflected the view that certain leadership behaviors were likely to be unique to a given culture. The culture-universal or etic approach, on the other hand, took the view that certain leadership styles were comparable across cultures (Dorfman et al., 1997; Dorfman, 1996).

The culture-specific approach assumed that although leadership was a universal phenomenon (Dorfman, 1996) which could occur in any levels and by anyone in organizations or societies (Yukl, 1998), different leadership prototypes or characteristics would be expected to occur in societies that had different cultural profiles (Hofstede, 1984; 1995b; Bass, 1990, Smith and Peterson, 1988). In other words, "certain leadership constructs and behaviors are likely to be unique to a given culture" (Dorfman, 1996, p. 316).

This position was supported by Hofstede (1995b) when he pointed out that "leaders cannot choose their styles at will; what is feasible depends to a large extent on the cultural conditioning of a leader's subordinates" (p. 205). Hofstede (1995b) also demonstrated that several leadership techniques that were "made in the U.S.A." were unlikely to be successful when directly introduced in such countries as Germany, France, Japan, and the Scandinavian countries. These countries had different scores on the four dimensions compared to the U.S. and thus the leadership techniques needed to be well adapted before implementing them in such countries.

Consistent with the culture-specific approach, researchers had reported findings that showed leadership behaviors were likely to be influenced by varying cultures. For example, Ah Chong and Thomas (1997) examined followers' perceptions of the leadership behaviors between two ethic groups in

New Zealand. They found that leadership prototypes or behaviors held by members of the two ethic groups appeared to have culturally-based differences. In addition, Doktok (1990) also found culture played a strong role in determining the pattern of leadership behaviors between Asian and American CEOs.

Similar results were found when Dorfman et al. (1997) examined leadership behavior across five nations in North America and Asia. They found that three leadership behaviors, directive, participative, and contingent punishment, had a culture-specific base. A large recent study involved 45 leadership scholars provided additional evidence that leadership prototypes varied across cultures (Brodbeck et al., 2000). This study, specifically, examined leadership prototypes by using data from 6,052 middle level managers in 22 European countries and hypothesized that leadership prototypes varied as a function of cultural differences in Europe. After an extensive test, the hypothesis was supported by the results of their study, that was, leadership prototypes were culturally endorsed in Europe.

Contrary to the culture-specific approach, the assumption of the culture-universal approach was that although the differences between cultures still existed, there were certain underlying structures or behaviors that leaders had to perform to be effective leaders; such behaviors included motivation, inspiration, and role model. Consequently, "core functional leadership processes should be similar across culture" (Dorfman, 1996, p. 316).

Bass (1997b) seemed to agree with this proposition by maintaining that certain basic patterns of leadership behaviors, such as inspiring and elevating the interests of followers, should be effective in increasing effectiveness, extra effort, and satisfaction among followers regardless of countries or cultures.

Consistent with the culture-universal approach, Helgstrand and Stuhlmacher (1999) conducted a cross-cultural study to examine leadership prototypes between the Danish and American participants. They expected that the respondents would rate a leader candidate that matched their own culture as more effective than a leader that did not match. The results, on the other hand, indicated that the highest leader ratings were not in conditions with a cultural match rather both cultures saw the same leadership prototypes as most effective.

In addition, Smith et al. (1995) also found that the general leadership behavior patterns of "performance" and "maintenance" oriented behaviors were similarly effective in the study of four nations, namely Britain, Japan, the U.S., and Hong Kong. Dorfman et al. (1997) also found supportive, contingent reward, and charismatic to be culturally universal leadership behaviors among respondents in Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, Mexico, and the United States. Similarly, Selvarajah et al. (1995) found that the ability to motivate, give recognition, and create a sense of purpose were universal leadership patterns of behaviors within both private and public sector organizations in ASEAN countries.

While an acceptance of the universality of the leadership process is still blurred, Chemers (1997) suggested that the relative universality of a leadership theory depended on the level of analysis of each study. If a study examined cross-cultural leadership at the general functions of leadership, the results seemed to be consistent with the culture-universal approach. By contrast, when a finer grained analysis or specific leadership behavior was used, cultural differences became more prominent. In other words,:

> *"There may well be certain underlying universal structures to the way a leader's behavior is interpreted, which are 'general' or inherent in the nature of leader-subordinate relationships. However, the skilful leader will need to express these general structures in a variable manner, which is affected by numerous factors in the specific environment."* *(Smith et al., 1995, p. 135-136).*

2.4.3 TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND CULTURE: CULTURE-UNIVERSAL OR CULTURE-SPECIFIC

There were a limited number of studies examining the relationship between culture and transformational leadership theory (Dorfman, 1996). Many of those, however, were conceptual investigations (e.g. Jung et al., 1995; Dorfman, 1996; Bass, 1997b). Jung et al. (1995) reviewed the conceptual linkage between transformational leadership and collectivistic cultures and proposed that several characteristics of collectivistic cultures enhanced more easily for the emergence of transformational leadership than in individualistic cultures.

According to Jung et al. (1995), followers in collectivistic cultures were naturally group-oriented and had a high level of loyalty based on mutual agreement between followers and leaders. Therefore, an idealized influence leader might be effectively transmitting a mutual belief in a common purpose or vision into followers' values in such a culture. In addition, followers in collectivistic cultures were more easily motivated by leaders' inspirational behavior since followers shared mutual interests and a sense of a common fate with their organizations and thus were willing to put in a high level of extra effort on behalf of the organizations. Collectivistic followers also tended to

have long-term oriented commitment and involvement in continuous learning activities so transformational leaders' intellectual stimulation could be more easily accepted in the organizations.

Finally, a strong linkage between transformational leadership and collectivistic cultures was the relationships between leaders' individualized consideration and followers' collectivism. Jung et al. (1995) pointed out that leaders' individualized consideration was more easily facilitated in collectivistic than in individualistic cultures because the relationships between leaders and followers in collectivistic societies tended to be based on a high level of paternalism. Therefore, leaders in these societies were likely to focus on individual needs of their subordinates.

On the other hand, in a review of the influence of culture on several leadership theories, Dorfman (1996) stated that "Proponents of charismatic and transformational theories seem to come close to adopting a universalist position regarding cross-cultural transferability" (p. 297). Dorfman (1996) believed that the basic behaviors engaged in transformational leadership, such as inspiration, motivation, individual consideration and intellectual challenge, were seen as a "core function" of outstanding leaders that should be similar around the world. Nonetheless, Dorfman (1996) also acknowledged that it was difficult, at the present time, to specifically identify the nature of the relationships between cultures and transformational leadership since there was a lack empirical evidence provided by cross-cultural researchers on this issue.

Bass (1997b) is another leadership scholar who believed that transformational leadership behavior should travel well across countries or cultures by arguing that "whatever the country, when people think about leadership, their

prototypes and ideals are transformational" (p. 135). Bass (1997b) argued the universality of the transformational leadership paradigm based on the fact that there was a similar hierarchy of correlations between the various leadership behaviors in transformational leadership theory and leadership outcomes in many different countries. In fact, according to Bass (1997b), leaders who practiced transformational leadership were more effective than those who displayed transactional or non-leadership behaviors, regardless of cultures, countries and organizations.

This hierarchy of relationships seemed to be supported by the results of transformational leadership studies conducted in several countries or organizations. For example, in the United States, Sosik (1997) found that groups of subordinates working under a leader who practiced high transformational leadership reported higher levels of performance, extra effort, and satisfaction than groups working under a low transformational leader.

A similar pattern of results also found in number of other countries such as the U.K. (Coad and Berry, 1998), Austria (Geyer and Steyrer, 1998), Canada (Howell and Avolio, 1993), and Australia (Adamson, 1996). Furthermore, the correlational hierarchy was also found to apply in a variety of organizations such as in the military (Atwater and Yammarino, 1993), health (Medley and Larochelle, 1995), and informational technology organizations (Thite, 1999). Data even came from the study of leaders at different levels such as in sample of teachers (Ingram, 1997), middle managers (Carless et al., 1996), and executive leaders (Church and Waclawski, 1998).

In addition, Bass (1997b) proposed that the ability of transformational leadership to adapt to a variety of forms also enhanced the argument for

transformational leadership being a "culture free" theory. In this case, as several studies indicated, a directive leadership style could perform better in one culture while in another cultural environment a participative style might be preferred (e.g. Dorfman et al., 1997; Campbell et al., 1993; Schermerhorn and Bond, 1997; DeCarlo, Rody, and DeCarlo, 1999), Bass and Avolio (1993; Bass, 1997b) argued that transformational leadership could be either directive or participative depended on situational and personal conditions.

According to Bass and Avolio (1993), leaders could be intellectually stimulating to their followers when they authoritatively directed their followers' attention to a deeper understanding of the assumptions behind their leaders' thinking. Transformational leaders also could demonstrate participative and directive leadership by sharing their visions and ideas with their followers. Table 2.12 presents the statements that showing transformational and transactional leadership can be either directive or participative.

Table 2.12 Formulaic illustrations of participative and directive
leadership that are transactional and transformational.

Leadership behavior	Participative	Directive
Laissez-Faire	"Whatever you think is the correct choice is OK with me."	"If my followers need answers to questions, let them find the answers themselves."
Management-by-exception	"Let's develop the rules together that we will use to identify mistakes."	"These are the rules and this is how you have violated them."
Contingent reward	"Let's agree on what has to be done and how you will be rewarded if you achieve the objectives."	"If you achieve the objectives I've set, I will recognize your accomplishment with the following reward."
Individualized consideration	"What can we do as a group to give each other the necessary support to develop our capabilities."	"I will provide the support you need in your efforts to develop yourself in the job."
Intellectual stimulation	"Can we try to look at our assumptions as a group without being critical of each other's ideas until all assumptions have been listed?"	"You must reexamine the assumption that a cold fusion engine is a physical impossibility. Revisit this problem and question you assumption."
Inspirational motivation	"let's work together to merge our aspirations and goals for the good of our group."	"You need to say to yourself that every day you are getting better. You must look at your progress and continue to build upon it over time."
Idealized Influence	"We can be a winning team because of our faith in each other. I need your support to achieve our mission."	"*Alea icta est*" (i.e. "I've made the decision to cross the Rubicon, so there's no going back." "You must trust me and my direction to achieve what we have set out to do."

Source: Bass, B. M. and Avolio, B. J. (1993) 'Transformational leadership: A response to critiques', M.
M. Chemers and R. Ayman (eds.), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions*, San
Diego, CA, Academic Press, 49-80.

Bass (1997b) maintained that universal in his meaning was a universally applicable conceptualization. That was, although the concept of transformational leadership appeared to be universally valid, the specific behaviors associated with each leadership factor might vary to some extent, particularly from one country to another. As noted by Bass (1997b), "Variations occur because the same concepts may contain specific thought processes, beliefs, implicit understanding, or behaviors in one culture but not another" (p. 132). For example;

> *"In Indonesia, inspirational leaders boast about their own competence to create pride and respect in themselves. In so doing, such transformational leaders aim to reduce subordinates' feelings of fear and shame. But if would be unseemly for leaders to be so boastful in Japan" (Bass, 1997b, p. 136).*

Parry and Sarros' (1996) study seemed to support this proposition when they found that Australian subordinates perceived their leaders to be more effective than American leaders when the leaders displayed idealized influence and individual consideration while American leaders were perceived as more effective than Australian leaders when they exhibited management-by-exception.

Some scholars suggested that the discussion of culture-universal and culture-specific could be explained in terms of different types of universals (e.g. Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, and Dorfman, 1999; Bass, 1997b). The first type of universal was a *simple universal* that referred to a phenomenon that was seen similarly by people around the world. It was the most simple and a general type to describe "one thing" similarly across cultures. The second type was a *variform universal* that defined a general or principle aspect that could be held across cultures, but the specific components of this principle could vary across cultures. The third type was a

functional universal that concerned the constancy of relationships between variables across different cultures. A *systematic behavioral universal* was the final type which was a concept of relationships that explained "if-then" outcomes across cultures.

Considering the universality of transformational leadership and incorporating the different types of universals, transformational leadership tended to be consistent with the simple universal because the attributes of transformational leadership were seen as contributing to outstanding leadership worldwide (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Regarding the variform universal, it was implied that the principle concept of transformational leadership should be "culture-free" (Dorfman, 1996; Bass, 1997b) but the specific behaviors representing transformational leadership might differ across cultures (Jung et al., 1995; Bass, 1997b).

In addition, the correlations between laissez-faire and leadership outcomes represented the functional type of universal (Bass, 1997b). That was, leaders who exhibited non-leadership behavior were perceived constantly to be ineffective and dissatisfying by their followers across cultures or countries. For the systematic behavioral universal, Bass maintained that the "Full Range of Leadership Model" seemed to represent this form of universal. This was because, the same pattern of results can be expected when examining the relationships between leadership factors and leadership outcomes, regardless of cultures. A large study by Den Hartog et al. (1999) seemed to provide empirical evidence supporting the universality of transformational leadership. Their study tested the simple and variform universal of transformational leadership by hypothesizing that charismatic/transformational leadership attributes should be universally endorsed as contributors to outstanding leadership. This hypothesis was tested in 62 cultures as part of the GLOBE

research program. The results of the study, supporting the hypothesis, revealed that specific aspects of charismatic/transformational leadership were strongly and universally endorsed across cultures. In other words, the charismatic/transformational leadership dimension was prototypical of outstanding leadership in all cultures.

In summary, it is possible to say that the nature of relationships between cultures and transformational leadership is still unclear because of the limited numbers of studies conducted to examine these relationships. However, it seemed that, based on the evidence given above, transformational leadership theory tended to consist of several types of universals. Therefore, the principle concept of transformational leadership tended to be desired by followers around the world although the specific behaviors might vary from one to another cultures.

2.5 SUMMARY

This chapter presented a critical evaluation of the relevant literature and the results found in previous studies. Various definitions of culture and leadership were reviewed; the underlying theoretical models used in this study, the Hofstede cultural dimensions and the Bass transformational leadership, were introduced, the influence of culture on transformational leadership was discussed, and criticisms of both theories addressed. Based on this extensive review, the theoretical framework is developed and presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The first chapter provided the research purposes and questions. The second chapter reviewed previous literature related to the subject area of the research questions. This chapter aims to build a theoretical framework for this research based on the findings of previous literature presented in the second chapter.

3.2 THE AIMS OF THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework that is presented in the next section is designed to meet the purposes of the study which are to: (a) identify the cultural values of Thai subordinates who work with Australian expatriates, (b) investigate the leadership behavior of Australian expatriates, and (c) examine the relationships between the cultural values of Thai subordinates and the leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian expatriate managers. Consequently, the theoretical framework is specifically developed to focus on the relationships among variables being related to the two groups of population, including Australian expatriate managers and Thai subordinates.

There are a variety of meanings and roles to explain the term theoretical framework and model (see, for example, Blaikie, 2000; Punch, 1998; Dooley, 1995). Blaikie (2000) argued that a discussion of the role of models and theoretical framework in research was complicated because the concepts were sometimes used interchangeably. Furthermore, Sekaran (2000) saw some researchers describe models as stimulations, whereas others viewed a model as a representation of relationships between and among concepts.

In the current study, the term theoretical framework is used in the latter sense as a type of "diagrammatic representation" (Blaikie, 2000) to indicate the patterns of relationships or connections among a set of variables. Consequently, the theoretical framework in this study is aiming to provide a schematic diagram of interconnections among the variables interested in the current study so that the research purposes can be achieved and research questions can be answered by using appropriate statistical analysis.

Leadership behavior of managers is one of major key roles contributing to organizational success. Several studies have indicated that different types of leadership behaviors produced different levels of performance outcomes among subordinates such as job outcomes (Sarros, 1993), learning ability (Coad and Berry, 1998), loyalty (Gopalan and Rivera, 1997), and idea generation (Sosik, 1997). When leadership behavior is investigated at the cross-national level, it seems to be more complicated by the involvement of national cultural differences. This is because, differences in the cultural values held by subordinates from different countries may lead to different perspectives of effective leadership prototypes (Hofstede, 1984; Katz and Seifer, 1996).

Australia and Thailand are described as having national cultural differences (Hofstede, 1984). Therefore, when Australian manages are assigned to lead Thai subordinates, it is interesting to see what styles or behaviors of leadership are employed by Australian managers and how these leadership behaviors relate to Thai subordinates' performance outcomes. More importantly, it would be useful to find out whether the cultural values of Thai subordinates play an important role in the leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian managers. The theoretical framework in the current study, therefore, is designed to address these questions.

The framework illustrated the relationships between three sets of variables. The first consisting of the nine components of transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1997) is used to capture the leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian expatriate managers. The second is a set of leadership outcomes used to measure the performance of those leadership behaviors. The third is the four culture dimensions (Hofstede, 1984) describing the cultural values of Thai subordinates.

3.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Figure 3.1 presents a diagrammatic picture of the relationships between three sets of variables in the current study: (a) the nine leadership behaviors as perceived by Australian managers and Thai subordinates; (b) the three measurements of leadership outcome; and (c) the four cultural dimensions of Thai subordinates. The arrows represent the various relationships among them.

Figure 3.1: Proposed theoretical framework

Australian managers' ratings of
leadership behaviors/outcomes
(Self-ratings)

Over-estimator

In-agreement estimator

Under-estimator

Self-Subordinate Rating Comparison

Leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian expatriates

Transformational Leadership
II-A&B, IS, IM, IC

Transactional Leadership
CR
MBE (A)
MBE (P)

Non-Leadership
LF

Leadership outcomes

Extra Effort

Effectiveness

Satisfaction

**Thai subordinates' ratings of leadership behavior/outcomes
(Subordinate-ratings)**

Universality of Three major leadership

No

Yes

| Power distance | Uncertainty avoidance | Masculinity | Individualism |

The four cultural dimensions of Thai subordinates

Nuttawuth Muenjohn
The effect of culture on the leadership behavior of Australian expatriate managers in Thailand

The theoretical framework in the current study focuses on three dimensions (Figure 3.1). First, it describes the nature of relationships between the leadership behaviors of Australian managers and performance outcomes among Thai subordinates. The pattern of these relationships are based on the assumption that transformational leadership is related to higher levels of followers' effectiveness, extra effort, and satisfaction compared to transactional leadership which in turn is higher than laissez-faire (Bass and Avolio, 1997).

Second, it represents an evaluation of the differences between Australian managers' and Thai subordinates' perceptions of leadership behaviors and its performance outcomes. The comparison of both the variables, Australian managers' and Thai subordinates' perceptions, may enhance an assessment of accuracy of Australian managers' self-evaluation and provide recommendations on how to improve their leadership behaviors (Yammarino and Atwater, 1997).

Third, the theoretical framework outlines the relationships between the cultural values of Thai subordinates and the leadership behaviors demonstrated by Australian managers. The concept of this dimension is influenced by the "emic" and "etic" approach of the cross-cultural study on leadership (Dorfman, 1996).

In the first dimension, the theoretical framework identifies a set of dependent variables as three factors of leadership outcomes: (1) extra effort; (2) effectiveness; and (3) satisfaction and a set of independent variables, the nine components of leadership behaviors: (1) idealized influence attributed, (2) idealized influence behavior, (3) inspirational motivation, (4) intellectual stimulation, (5) individualized consideration, (6) contingent reward, (7)

management-by-exception-active, (8) management-by-exception-passive, and (9) non-leadership (laissez-faire). The arrow from the set of independent to the set of dependent variables in the framework indicates that the three leadership outcomes are explained by the nine leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian managers.

The expected relationships between the independent and dependent variables in the framework are based on the underlying assumption of "The Full Range of Leadership Development Model" (Bass and Avolio, 1997). In other words, the first dimension intends to determine that whether the patterns of relationships between the leadership factors and leadership outcomes, proposed by Bass and Avolio (1997) as "The Full Range of Leadership Development Model", exist in the Australian manager and Thai subordinate samples in this study.

According to Bass and Avolio (1997), transformational leadership is a high level of leadership behavior. Transformational leaders increase their subordinates' effectiveness, effort, and satisfaction by providing more challenging goals, expanding subordinates' personal ability and development, developing mutual relationships, stimulating leaning experience. Subordinates having this kind of leaders are encouraged to try harder to achieve higher performance, feel more confident to make their own decision and take greater responsibility. Therefore, it is expected that the five factors of transformational leadership will create a high positive relationship with the performance outcomes.

Leaders who show contingent reward leadership behavior, according to Bass and Avolio (1997), are also expected to produce a positive relationship with the performance outcomes, but to a lesser degree than the five factors of

transformational leadership. Leaders who provide rewards or recognitions for good performance tend to improve subordinates' effectiveness, extra effort, and satisfaction (Bass and Avolio, 1997; Singer and Singer, 1990; Densten, 1990). However, transactional exchange-based leaders only attempt to satisfy the current needs of their subordinates rather than focusing attention on subordinates' long-tern development (Bass and Avolio, 1997). Subordinates' performance tended to be tied to specific rewards. When rewards are not provided or motivated, subordinates' performance could be limited.

The relationships between management-by-exception-active and the performance outcomes are not clear. Although management-by-exception-active seems to be in an active form by continuously monitoring and controlling subordinates' performances and mistakes, this kind of leadership behavior is unlikely to enhance subordinates' learning opportunity (Bass and Avolio, 1997). Furthermore, subordinates' satisfaction may be reduced when leaders are continuously searching for their mistakes (Comer et al., 1995). Therefore, management-by-exception-active is expected to have no relationship with the set of outcomes.

Finally, leaders who display inactive forms of leadership behaviors are expected to produce a negative relationship with effectiveness, extra effort, and satisfaction. These leadership behaviors involve avoiding making decisions and responsibility (laissez-faire) and passive waiting for problems and/or correcting only when the standards are not met (management-by exception-passive).

The second dimension in the framework focuses on a comparison between Australian managers' and Thai subordinates' perceptions of leadership behaviors and outcomes. It is based on an assumption that the relationships

between the set of independent and dependent variables in the first dimension might be less accurate when considering only the data from Australian managers and overlooking the feedback information from their direct-reporting subordinates.

Furthermore, previous research has already indicated that how leaders perceived themselves was unlikely to be "in-agreement" with subordinates' perceptions (e.g. Church and Waclawski, 1998; Adamson, 1996; Atwater and Yammarino, 1992; Carless et al, 1996). Therefore, in order to give an accurate explanation of the relationships between the independent and dependent variables, the information on leadership behaviors and outcomes in this study are obtained from two important sources: (1) Australian managers (self-ratings), and (2) Thai subordinates (subordinate-ratings). By obtaining information from the two sources, the study not only compares the pattern of relationships between the independent and dependent variables between two samples but is also able to provide recommendations for Australian managers who wish to improve their leadership self-evaluation.

On the left-hand side of Figure 3.1, the theoretical framework includes a comparison between self and subordinate ratings by providing three measured variables, namely over-estimator, in-agreement estimator, and under-estimator. The three variables reflect how Australian managers rate their leadership behaviors and outcomes when compared with their Thai subordinates.

The measured variables of self-subordinate ratings are based mainly on the self-other rating agreement model of Yammarino and Atwater (1997). An over-estimator in the framework is applied when Australian managers produce self-ratings that are significantly higher than Thai subordinate

ratings on leadership factors and outcomes. An in-agreement estimator results when Australian managers rate their leadership behaviors and outcomes insignificantly differently from their Thai subordinates. An under-estimator occurs when Australian managers rate themselves on leadership factors and outcomes significantly lower than Thai subordinates.

As previously noted, leaders' self-ratings on transformational leadership were often inflated. Leaders tended to rate themselves higher on transformational leadership than they were rated by their peers, subordinates, and superiors (Bass and Avolio, 1997). The evidence from transformational leadership studies conducted in the past confirmed that most leaders tended to rate themselves higher than the ratings from other sources (e.g. Bass and Avolio, 1997; Church and Waclawski, 1998; Atwater and Yammarino, 1992), with no exception for Australian leaders (Carless et al., 1996; Adamson, 1996). The inflation of leaders' self-ratings could result from leaders' high self-value (Westwood and Posner, 1997), self-esteem (Farh and Dobbins, 1989), and attempts to avoid and discount negative feedback (Yammarino and Atwater, 1997). It, therefore, is predicted that Australian managers in this study will rate themselves more highly than will Thai subordinates on the variables of interest (over-estimator).

The final dimension in the framework is a concern for the relationships between the cultural values of Thai subordinates and the leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian managers. The theoretical framework presents the four cultural dimensions of Thai subordinates as a group of independent variables (power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, and individualism) and identifies the three major leadership behaviors demonstrated by Australian managers as dependent variables (transformational, transactional, and non-leadership).

Reviews of cross-cultural leadership (e.g. Dorfman, 1996; Bass, 1990; Hofstede, 1995a) as well as individuals' studies (e.g. Dorfman et al., 1997; Smith et al., 1995; Brodbeck et. al., 2000; Den Hartog et al., 1999) had raised the basic question: were there universally endorsed prototypes of ideal leaders, regardless of culture? In relation to this question, some researchers suggested that subordinates from different cultures hold a different meaning of effective leadership and thus effective leaders must display a specific leadership style or behaviors that fit the culture in that society or country (e.g. Hofstede, 1995b; Ah Chong and Thomas, 1997; DeCarlo et al., 1999). However, others argued that although cultures may differ, "core functions" of leadership behaviors such as motivation, role model, and inspiration, were required to be effective leaders, regardless of cultures (e.g. Smith et al., 1995; Selvarajah et al., 1995).

Given above discussion, the theoretical framework presents two alternative relationships between the independent and dependent variables in the third dimension. As can be seen at the bottom of Figure 3.1, the arrow is linked from the four cultural values of Thai subordinates to two measured variables (Yes and No). The two measured variables represent two different patterns of the relationship between the cultural values of Thai subordinates and the leadership behaviors of Australian managers. Basically, the two measured variables in the framework reflect the conflict viewpoints between "emic" ("Yes") and "etic" ("No") approaches in the study of cross-cultural leadership (Dorfman, 1996). In the first relationship pattern ("Yes"), it proposed that if the four cultural values of Thai subordinates can significantly explain the large amount of variance in each of the three leadership behavior exhibited by Australian managers, then the "emic" approach seems to be valid. Otherwise, the second relationship pattern ("No"), the universality of the three leadership behaviors, is likely to be confirmed.

However, a theoretical framework that presents only the nature of relationships among variables might be less useful without indicating what relationships between the variables are expected to be and why it would expect the kind of relationships (Sekaran, 2000). At this stage, it might be difficult to conclude whether the three major leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian managers are either culture-specific (emic) or culture-universal (etic). This is not only because of the limited number of studies exploring the relationships between transformational leadership and culture, but also because most of previous literatures linking transformational leadership and culture were based mainly on proposed concepts rather than statistical results (see, for example, Bass, 1997b; Jung et al., 1995; Dorfman, 1996).

Therefore, the expected relationships between the variables in the third dimension is based on their supposition (Dooley, 1995) that the four cultural dimensions of Thai subordinates assessed in this study are not expected to significantly explain the variance in each of the three leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian managers.

The arguments supporting the supposition are drawn from previous literature. Firstly, since the framework in this study examines the leadership behaviors at the general levels (transformational, transactional, and non-leadership), rather than investigated the specific leadership factors, the universal perspective is likely to be applied (Chemers, 1997). In particular, the Chemers (1997) proposition seems to be consistent with the previous literature investigating the influence of culture on transformational leadership. That is, the literature proposed that culture was likely to have a very limited role in the transformational-transactional paradigm at the general level (Dorfman, 1996; Bass, 1997b) while specific behaviors might vary across cultures (Jung et al., 1995). Secondly, the transformational-

transactional leadership paradigm seems to be "culture-free" when it is explained incorporating with different types of universals such as simple, functional, and variform universal (Bass, 1997b; Den Hartog et al., 1999).

In summary, the three dimensions of investigation presented in the theoretical framework were designed to explore the five research questions. The cultural values of Thai subordinates and the leadership behaviors of Australian managers were addressed, the nature of the relationships between the leadership behaviors and the outcome performance were explained, the ratings of leadership behaviors and outcomes obtained from Australian managers and Thai subordinates were compared, and the linkages between Thai subordinates' cultural values and the leadership behaviors of Australian managers were indicated in the framework. In addition, the relationships among the variables in the framework were described along with a discussion of why these relationships were expected. As a result of this, it is believed that the research questions can be answered by using appropriate statistical methods. In the next section, the contributions of the theoretical framework are discussed in terms of how the framework contributes to the body of knowledge in the leadership area.

3.4   CONTRIBUTIONS   OF   THE   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The examination of the relationships among the variables presented in the theoretical framework provides contributions to the body of knowledge in the leadership study in three major areas. Firstly, the framework would be important to guide future research in the area of cross-cultural leadership by questioning whether the cultural values of subordinates play a strong role in the leadership behaviors of their managers. In particular, the investigations of the relationships between the cultural values of subordinates from one country and the leadership behavior of managers from another country, such as in the current study, are still limited in previous literature (Selmer, 1997; Ralston et al., 1995). Furthermore, providing a framework for understanding the influence of culture on leadership behaviors could enable expatriate managers to demonstrate leadership behaviors that would be accepted by their subordinates in the host country.

Secondly, as noted by Harris (1994), the study of the leadership behavior of managers alone might be meaningless without relating it to performance measurements. Consequently, the theoretical framework in this study offers a theoretical foundation for evaluating the effective leadership behavior when the possible relationships between leadership behaviors and performance outcomes are investigated. The theoretical linkages among leadership behaviors and performance outcomes would be important for understanding a leader's role in maintaining the effectiveness of his/her group.

Finally, an attempt to predict leadership behavior and evaluating the leadership performance of a target leader might be less accurate when the

feedback information from other sources was ignored (Yammarino and Atwater, 1997; Atwater et al., 1998). The theoretical framework, therefore, includes a comparison of self-subordinate ratings to provide a potential answer to the question of why a feedback appraisal system, such as from subordinates in this study, needs to be considered when conducting a study relating to the leadership evaluation.

The theoretical framework in the current study not only makes contributions to the study of general leadership but also provides a significant testing of the concept of transformational leadership theory in two ways: (a) it tests the validity of the universal application of the transformational leadership model (Bass, 1997b) when the cultural values are used as explanatory factors for the three major transformational leadership behaviors in the theoretical framework; (b) by examining the relationships between the nine components of leadership theory and three performance outcomes, it allows to test that whether the concept of "The Full Range of Leadership Model" (Bass and Avolio, 1997) is existed in the framework when using the data from the Australian expatriate and Thai subordinate samples.

Punch (1998) believed that a conceptual or theoretical framework was a representation, either graphically or in narrative form, of the main idea of what each research study is about. It, therefore, could be implied that the contributions of a study and its theoretical framework are closely related to each other. Based on this proposition, the significant contributions to knowledge of the current study as it represented by the theoretical framework are given in full details, both for theoretical and practical uses, in the last chapter (section 7.3 and 7.4).

3.5 SUMMARY

This chapter provided a theoretical framework based upon the relevant literature and previous studies in the areas of interest. The next chapter will describe the research design, methodology, and statistical analysis of the data employed in the present study.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the methodology used to collect and analyze the research data that leads to answering the research questions. The chapter is organized into six major sections. The first section aims to justify the methodology employed in this research, while the second section provides information about the population and sampling procedure. The third section identifies the instruments used to collect data and provides detail of how the variables are measured. The fourth section describes data analysis procedures both for the quantitative and qualitative methods used, followed by the strategies used in this study regarding the ethical issue mentioned in the fifth section. The last section presents limitations of the methodology that emerged during the collection of the research data.

4.2 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE METHODOLOGY

Two traditional approaches for conducting research in a social or behavioral science area are qualitative and quantitative approaches (Bryman, 1988; Locke, Silverman, and Spirduso, 1998). Qualitative research is an interpretative approach (Hedrick, 1994) viewed as an empirical strategy for answering questions about how people make sense of their lives, experiences, and their structures of the world (Creswell, 1994). In a qualitative research,

significant attention is paid to the research assumptions and the subjective views of respondents because the collective thinking and actions of people, as believed by qualitative researchers, have their own meaning which can be made intelligible (Merriam, 1988). The role of researchers, in this approach, is likely to be a "the primary instrument" for data collection and analysis (Creswell, 1994). That is, research data are often mediated through human instrument (researchers) rather than through questionnaires or machines.

Contrary to a qualitative research, quantitative research is defined as a solution of social or human problems, based on testing a theory which consists of variables, measured with numbers and analyzed using statistical procedures (Punch, 1998; Creswell, 1994). Thus, research data and results in quantitative research are mainly in the form of numbers or figures. The role of quantitative researchers is different from qualitative ones. While a qualitative researcher is expected to interact with their respondents through such methods as interview, a quantitative researcher is strongly recommended to remain distant and independent of those being researched (Bryman, 1988).

Although qualitative and quantitative approaches have their own underlying assumptions and different formats of research designs (see for example Creswell, 1994; Bryman, 1988), each approach often held unflattering views of the work within the other approach. One approach offers criticisms to another and vice versa. Each approach often views its criticisms for the other as accurate but at the same time feels unfairly criticized by the other (Smith, 1994).

The qualitative researchers often criticize quantitative studies for being limited by rigid constructed questions or for misrepresenting socially relevant

reality. By contrast, quantitative researchers suspect qualitative studies for their unreliability resulting from both the researchers' and respondents' unconscious bias and self-interest.

An outgrowth of the debates about the advantages and disadvantages of the two approaches has raised a question of whether these research approaches can coexist within the same study. In the extreme idea, the answer may be no. 'Neither approach recognizes the legitimacy of the other, and attempts to combine them are illogical' (Hedrick, 1994, p 47).

However, some authors believe that there is still a room to combine both approaches (Bryman, 1988; Creswell, 1994). A general reason for combining the two approaches is to capitalize on the strengths of the two approaches, and to compensate for the weaknesses of each approach. In other words, it is believed that all research methods are biased and thus the use of a combination of methods would reduce the biases and increase the validity and reliability of research data (Blaikie, 2000).

Combining of the two approaches had been recommended by several authors (e.g. Punch, 1998; Creswell, 1994; Bryman, 1988; Blaikie, 2000). Some of these authors suggested several approaches or models that combine the quantitative and qualitative approaches. For example, Bryman (1988) proposed eleven combining approaches:

(a) "Logic of triangulation" where the results of one approach can be checked against the results of another approach.

(b) "Qualitative facilitates quantitative research" where qualitative research helps to provide background information for quantitative research.

(c) "Quantitative facilitates qualitative research" where quantitative research provides an aid to the collection of qualitative data.

(d) "Quantitative and qualitative research are combined in order to produce a general picture" when quantitative research is used to fill the gaps in a qualitative study that occurs for a variety of reasons such as the inaccessibility either of particular people or of particular situations.

(e) "Structure and process" where the two approaches are combined when quantitative research focuses on the 'structural' features and qualitative research emphasizes the 'processual' aspects.

(f) "Researchers' and subjects' perspectives" where quantitative research driven by the researcher's concerns is combined with the subject's perspective taken by qualitative research.

(g) "Problem of generality" is employed when quantitative findings helps to mitigate the fact that it is often not possible to generalize (in a statistical sense) the results deriving from qualitative research.

(h) "Qualitative research may facilitate the interpretation of relationships between variables" where a qualitative study can be used to explain the assumptions underlying the broad relationships among variables in a quantitative study.

(i) "Relationships between macro and micro levels" which based on the belief that quantitative research often tap large-scale, structural features of social life while qualitative research tends to address small-scale, behavioral aspects.

(j) "Stage in the research process" where both approaches may be taken in different stages in a study.

(k) "Hybrids" is often employed when qualitative research is conducted within a quasi-experimental research design.

Creswell (1994) seems to provide simpler approaches of combining when the author proposes three combined models: (a) "two-phase design" in which the researcher conducts a separate phase of the two approach in the same study; (b) "dominant-less dominant design" in which the researcher presents the study within a single dominant approach with one small component drawn from another approach; and (c) "mixed-methodology design" that represents the high degree of mixing approaches existed at all or many stages in the same study. Therefore, there are many ways for combining the two approaches. How the approaches are combined or the degree to which one approach is used over another should be determined by several factors such as particular circumstances, the nature of research problems or questions, and characteristics of the sample involves in the study (Punch, 1998; Creswell, 1994).

Given the circumstances, it is essential to justify the methodology employed in the current study. It is obvious that the research purposes and questions in this study are designed for a quantitative research study. This is because: (a) it focuses on gaining an understanding of the relationships between two variables, leadership behavior and cultural variables, drawn from the theoretical framework; (b) it employed the questionnaire instruments from existed leadership and cultural theories and these instruments measured the variables in terms of numeric figures: and thus (c) the statistical methods were mainly used to analyze research data in the current study.

Although the use of quantitative research would be adequate to answer research questions in this study, the researcher believes that it would be useful to collect qualitative data to help the researcher better understand how participants come to have particular points of view regarding the research questions, where quantitative data is limited in this feature. Thus, it was

decided to employ the "dominant-less dominant design" model (Creswell, 1994) for collecting research data in the current study.

With this method, 'a major quantitative study is undertaken, supplemented by a few qualitative interviews, the researcher may hope to elaborate, enhance, or illustrate the results from one method by using another method' (Creswell, 1994, p. 184). More specifically, a quantitative questionnaire survey was used as the main method to address and answer the research questions while a qualitative interview method was employed as a small role to extend the findings of the quantitative results.

4.3 POPULATIONS AND SAMPLING PROCEDURE

Two target populations were chosen regarding the theoretical framework and research purposes in the current study. The criteria of the first population were Australian managers who worked in Thailand during the period when this research was conducted. This population was chosen in order to measure their leadership behaviors. The second population, Thai subordinates, was surveyed in order to identify the four cultural dimensions and provide the perceptions of leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian managers. In order to gain the accurate perception of leadership behaviors, the second population in this study was defined as the "direct-reporting" Thai subordinates who worked under the Australian managers at the time of conducting this research.

Australian managers and Thai subordinates were chosen as the samples in this study for a number of reasons. Firstly, although Australia is located in

Asia-Pacific, it has a British historical background and is heavily influenced by Western cultures (Harris and Moran, 1996). Thailand, on the other hand, shares a common background from Eastern cultures. This suggests that the two cultures would tend to diverge away from a common model of leadership behavior. Thus, it would make research in the area of cross-cultural leadership valuable and interesting.

Secondly, trading between Australia and Thailand reached almost $AUD 3 billion in 1998/1999 and it has continued to grow steadily (Australian-Thai Chamber of Commerce, 1999), which suggested that Australian multinational companies considered Thailand an important investment country. As a result of this, there was an increase of the number of Australian expatriate managers working in Thailand (Australian-Thai Chamber of Commerce, 1999). Thus, research in the field of cross-cultural leadership is necessary to provide guidance for Australian expatriates to lead Thai subordinates effectively in a Thai cultural environment. Finally, Australia and Thailand were chosen because the researcher is personally familiar with and interested in both countries.

4.3.1 AUSTRALIAN EXPATRIATE MANAGERS

In the preparatory step, the researcher was advised that the database of the first population could be obtained from three public and private organizations: (a) the Australian Embassy in Thailand; (b) the department of Thai immigration; and (c) the Australian-Thai Chamber of Commerce (ATCC) in Bangkok. Consequently, the initial inquiries were made by sending letters to the three organizations asking for their assistance in accessing the potential

database of the first population. The letter explained the aim of the study and how the results would be expected to benefit both Australian expatriates and Thai subordinates in terms of managerial and leadership skills.

After waiting about two weeks, there was no response from the three organizations. At this stage, it was believed that a personal contact was necessary to follow up the initial inquiry made by the researcher. Therefore, the researcher decided to travel to Thailand. During his stay in Thailand, the researcher first approached the authority of the department of Thai immigration. With this organization, both a formal inquiry (letter from the University) and a personal connection, which was usual in Thailand, were used in attempting to obtain the database. However, it was revealed that the department could not supply the information for outsiders due to the strict government regulations. It only provided information for the government's interests and if only requested by an authority in the upper level. This was out of reach for the researcher.

The second attempt was to contact the Australian Embassy in Bangkok. Similar to the first organization, the Embassy informed that there was no systematic database of the target population requested by the researcher in the Embassy. Neither Australian travelers nor workers were registered with the Embassy. However, the researcher was recommended to contact the Australian-Thai Chamber of Commerce as previously recommended for other researchers by the Embassy.

The third attempt with the Australian-Thai Chamber of Commerce (ATCC) was successful. The ATCC provided its 1998/99 directory of members yearbook that consisted of names, addresses, and contact telephone numbers of its members. There were 234 individual members displayed in the directory

but not all of them, according to the manager of ATCC, were Australians. Consequently, it was decided to use the directory as a population frame. Basically, the directory yearbook of ATCC was used as source of research data because of three reasons: (a) it was used as a main data source by most previous studies on Australian expatriates in Thailand (e.g. Edwards et al., 1995; Fisher and Hartel, 1999), (b) it was the only organization that could supply a population database for conducting research in Thailand, and (c) the member list was updated every year.

According to their addresses, the 234 potential participants worked across the country, from the northern, central, eastern, western, to southern Thailand. Sekaran (2000) suggested that when a population frame was used as a research database, it was recommended for the researcher to carefully update it, particularly, as previously noted, knowing that some members might not be Australians. Therefore, 234 members were contacted individually by telephone calls.

It was realized that the use of telephone calls could take time and expenses, particularly long distant calls. This method, however, was worthwhile because the researcher was able to gather the real number of Australian managers and Thai subordinates who existed in the directory. Initially, the major objectives of the telephone calls were to: (a) identify the members' nationalities; and (b) ask for, if they were Australians, the number of their direct-reporting Thai subordinates.

However, after the contacts were made with around 50 individual members, it was surprising to find that many of them were not Australians. Furthermore, some Australian managers did not have any direct-reporting Thai subordinates. As a result of this, the initial criteria of the first population

were needed to be reviewed. The population, therefore, was restricted to those members who: (a) hold Australian nationality; (b) worked in Thailand during conducting this research; and (c) had at least one direct-reporting Thai subordinates.

The unexpected concern was shared with the researcher's supervisor. Another method to enhance the number of elements of the first population was discussed. That was, the members were asked to nominate other Australian managers, if any, to be included in the populations frame. Therefore, another objective of the telephone calls was added to locate other Australian managers who were not included in the member directory.

This method was known as a snowball or network sampling method (Blaikie, 2000; Babbie, 1998; Dillon, Madden, and Firtle, 1993). The snowball sampling was defined as a method that involved 'first locating the respondents who have the necessary qualifications to be included in the sample and then using these respondents as informants to identify still others ... who belong to the target population' (Dillon et al., 1993, p. 230).

The snowball method was successful since nine Australian managers were nominated by the potential participants. After spending weeks to identify the nationalities of the members, it was determined that 95 members and non-members, who were Australian, still worked in Thailand, and had at least one Thai subordinate, met the criterion for participation in the study. The members who were excluded from the population frame were those such as British, Americans, Asians, Europeans, and 13 Australians who did not meet the criterion (1 died, 8 returned home, 4 did not have Thai direct-reports). Due to the relatively small number of elements in the first population, all of the 95 Australian managers were surveyed in this study.

4.3.2 THAI SUBORDINATES

Another benefit of the telephone contacts made with Australian managers was that it allowed this study to gather the number of elements for the second population. It was revealed that there were 221 Thai subordinates who "directly reported" to 95 Australian managers at the time. As a result, the member of 221 was treated as the population size of Thai subordinates in this study. This suggested that the ratio of 2 Thai subordinates per 1 Australian manager (221 divided by 95 = 2.3) should be used in the study. Consequently, the ratio produced the sample size of 190 direct-reporting Thai subordinates. This sample size, therefore, represented 86 per cent of the Thai subordinate population.

Initially, this study attempted to calculate a suitable sample size of the second population by considering other formulas or methods. For example, the formula for calculating the sample size based on a know population size developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). With in this formula, a 95 per cent level of confidence and a 5 per cent degree of error were adopted. The formula was:

$$n = \chi^2 \, NP \, (1-P) \, / \, [\, d^2 \, (N-1) + \chi^2 \, P \, (1-P) \,]$$

where n = sample size

χ^2 = chi-square statistic for one degree of freedom at the desired confidence level

N = population size

P = population proportion; d = degree of accuracy

$n = 3.841 \times 221 \times 0.2 \, (1-0.2) \, / \, [\, 0.05^2(221-1) + 3.841 \times 0.2 \, (1-0.2) \,]$

$n = 115.86$

or the sample size would be consisted of 115 Thai subordinates.

Considering the sample size above, it meant that the ratio of Thai subordinates per one Australian manager would be 1:1 (115 divided by 95 = 1.2) which was not recommended for the lower level raters evaluating a leader (Bass and Avolio, 1997). Bass and Avolio (1997) suggested that a minimum of three rates at the level below the leader (e.g. subordinates) was recommended to protect the anonymity of the raters. However, when the Bass and Avolio (1997) ratio was adopted, the sample size of Thai subordinates would be 285, that is in excess the Thai subordinate population size in this study.

4.4 INSTRUMENTS

4.4.1 QUESTIONNAIRE

There were two types of questionnaires used in this study. Questionnaire A was used with Australian managers (see Appendix A) and questionnaire B was answered by Thai subordinates (see Appendix B and C). The demographic questions, such as the participants' age, gender, education, and managerial level, were included in the initial part of the both questionnaires.

For questionnaire A, Australian managers were asked to evaluate their leadership behaviors and performance outcomes by completing the Bass and Avolio (1997) 45-items of the "Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire" (MLQ). In this questionnaire, Australian managers were also asked if they wish to receive a copy of the highlights of final report. This technique might help to enhance the response rate (Sekaran, 2000). In the questionnaire B, Thai subordinates were asked to respond on the MLQ and the "Value Survey Module" (VSM) (Hofstede, 1984). The MLQ, in the Thai subordinate questionnaire, was used to gain the perception of Thai subordinates on the

leadership behavior exhibited by their Australian managers and the VSM was employed to examine their four cultural dimensions.

Since the MLQ and VSM were both used in the same questionnaire (sent to Thai subordinates), there might be a concern for "order effects" where the Thai respondents answer one section (either the MLQ or VSM) before another. However, a review of survey literature revealed that this concern seemed to focus on the sequence of questions or items within one instrument (e.g. Judd, Smith, and Kidder, 1991; Sekaran, 2000; Dooley, 1995). Dooley (1995) addressed this problem by suggesting that different respondents would get the same items but in randomly different orders. 'However, this approach does not guarantee "true" responses to the items in their different orders' (p. 143).

Sekaran (2000) recommended placing questions that were relatively easy to answer before those that were progressively more difficult. By contrast, Judd, Smith, and Kidder (1991) argued that this problem was out of control of researchers. 'With a written questionnaire, the respondents are likely to glance through the entire questionnaire before starting to answer, so there is no way to control question order' (p. 217). Given this different opinions, the Thai subordinate questionnaire in this study was designed in the same order to keep the procedure standard, that was, providing the questions of the cultural dimensions (VSM) first and then followed by the leadership questions (MLQ).

4.4.1.1 MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (MLQ)

The leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian managers in this study were measured by the "Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire" (MLQ) developed by Bass and Avolio (1997). The MLQ permission used in this study was given by O.E.Consultancy/MLQ Pty.Ltd (see Appendix K for the permission document). It should be noted that for both research and commercial application enquiries regarding the MLQ permission in Australia, one should contact the Australia Distributor for publisher Mind Garden Ins (USA) – O.E.Consultancy/MLQ Pty. Ltd., PO BOX 199, Hawthorn, Victoria, Australia.

Hinkin and Tracey (1999) believed that most of the previous research on transformational leadership involved the use of the MLQ to measure various aspects of transformational, transactional, and non-leadership behaviors. The latest version of the MLQ is the MLQ-5x version can be used for research purpose (MLQ-5x, 45 items) and for organizational training and coaching purposes (MLQ-5x, 63 items).

In this study, the "the MLQ 5x-short version" (45 items) was employed because it was an appropriate version for using for research purposes. There were two forms of "the MLQ 5x-short version" used in this study; (a) the Leader Form, in which the leader rated him or herself as a leader, used with Australian managers, and (b) the Rater Form, in which followers rated their leaders, used to gain the Thai subordinates' perceptions of their Australian leadership behaviors. Since this was the first time the MLQ was used in Thailand[1], the MLQ was first translated formally from English to Thai by a

---

[1] According to Bass and Avolio (1997), Thailand was not named in 23 countries in which the MLQ was used.

Thai native translator from the Royal Thai Consulate General in Melbourne, and then independently re-translated back to English by the researcher.

The MLQ 5x-short contained 45 items tapping nine conceptually distinct leadership factors and three leadership outcomes. Five scales were identified as characteristic of transformational leadership (Idealized influence attributed and behavior, Inspirational motivation, Individual consideration, and Intellectual stimulation). Three scales were defined as characteristic of transactional leadership (Contingent reward, Management-by-exception-active, and Management-by-exception-passive). One scale was described as non-leadership (Laissez-faire). Leadership outcomes were measured by the Effectiveness, Satisfaction, and Extra effort with the leadership behaviors.

Participants were asked to judge how frequently Australian expatriate managers displayed the behaviors in the questionnaire, using a five-item scale from 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, to 4 = frequently, if not always. Sample items from each factor and outcome are given in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Sample items from leadership factors and outcomes of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Leader Form (MLQ 5x-short)

Factor/outcome	Sample Item
Idealized Influence Attributed (4 items)	"I (He/She) act/s in ways that builds my respect."
Idealized Influence Behavior (4 items)	"I (He/She) specify/ies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose."
Inspirational Motivation (4 items)	"I (He/She) talk/s optimistically about the future."
Intellectual Stimulation (4 items)	"I (He/She) seek/s differing perspective when solving problems."
Individual Consideration (4 items)	"I (He/She) treat/s others as individuals rather then just as a member of a group."
Contingent Reward (4 items)	"I (He/She) provide/s others with assistance in exchange for their efforts."
Management-by-Exception (Active) (4 items)	"I (He/She) focus/es attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards."
Management-by-Exception (Passive) (4 items)	"I (He/She) wait/s for things to go wrong before taking action."
Laissez-faire leadership (4 items)	"I (He/She) avoid/s making decisions."
Effectiveness (4 items)	"I (He/She) am/is effective in meeting others' job-related needs."
Satisfaction (2 items)	"I (He/She) use/s methods of leadership that are satisfying."
Extra Effort (3 items)	"I (He/She) get/s others to do more than they expected to do."

4.4.1.2 VALUES SURVEY MODULE (VSM)

The Values Survey Module (VSM) was a product of an international attitude survey program held between 1967 and 1973 using about 117,000 survey questionnaires from 66 countries. It produced the scores of the four cultural

dimensions, namely Power Distance (PDI), Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI), Individualism (IDV), and Masculinity (MAS).

For measuring the power distance score, Hofstede (1984; 1997) presented three questions used to develop a formula of the power distance score of each country. The three survey questions used for composing the power distance score were: (1) "employees afraid"[2] indicating how frequently employees were afraid to express disagreement with their manager, (2) "perceived manager" indicating subordinates' perception of their superiors' "actual" decision-making style[3], and (3) "prefer manager" indicating subordinates' preference for their superiors' decision-making style.

According to Hofstede (1984), the conceptual relationship among the three questions was that in a low power distance country employees did not usually appear as very afraid of their superiors and superiors did not often use "autocratic" or "paternalistic" styles while employees normally preferred a "consultative" style of decision-making. On the other hand, employees in a high power distance country were seen as frequently afraid of disagreeing with their superiors, and superiors tended to be "autocratic" or "paternalistic". In addition, the employees in this country were less likely to prefer a "consultative" superior, instead they tended to prefer a superior who was decidedly autocratic or paternalistic.

The uncertainty avoidance score was measured by three key questions (Hofstede, 1984): (1) "stress" indicating how often employees felt stress at their work, (2) "rule orientation" indicating whether the employees agreed or disagreed with the statement "company rules should not be broken, even

---

[2] See the full question in Appendix E.

[3] Manager's decision-making styles also are showed in Appendix E

when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest", and (3) "employment stability" indicating whether the employee intended to stay with the current company for a long-term career. The conceptual link between the three items, according to Hofstede (1984), was that a higher mean "stress" went together with strong "rule orientation" and greater "employment stability". In other words, people in a high uncertainty avoidance country tended to feel under more stress at work, they were likely to want rules to be respected and more people wanted to have a long-term career, and vice versa.

The IBM data allowed Hofstede (1980; 1984) to construct a mean score of the fourteen "work goals" questions. The questions using the format "How important is it to you...?" were computed to measure a masculinity and individualism score. Table 4.2 showed the fourteen work goal questions and their short names. The first eight questions were used to measure the masculinity score and another six questions were computed for the individualism score.

Table 4.2: The fourteen work goal questions.

Number	Short name	Question: How important is it for you to...?
1	Earnings	Have an opportunity for higher earnings
2	Recognition	Get the recognition you deserve when you do a good job
3	Advancement	Have an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs
4	Challenge	Have challenging work to do-work from which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment
5	Manager	Have a good working relationship with your direct superior
6	Cooperation	Work with people who cooperate well with one another
7	Living area	Live in an area desirable to you and your family
8	Employment security	Have the security that you will be able to work for your company as long as you want to
9	Personal time	Have a job which leaves you sufficient time for your personal or family life
10	Freedom	Have considerable freedom to adopt your own approach to the job
11	Challenge	Have challenging work to do-work from which you can achieve a personal sense of accomplishment
12	Training	Have training opportunities (to improve your skills or lean new skills)
13	Physical conditions	Have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space etc.)
14	Use of skills	Fully use your skills and abilities on the job

Note: Source Hofstede (1984, p. 155)

The work goal questions from (1) to (8) were used to produce the masculinity score because "...the men and the women among the IBM employees scored consistently differently" (Hofstede, 1997, p. 82). In particular, men attached greater importance to the work goals "earnings" and "advancement", while

women considered work goals "manager" and "cooperation" more important than men. In measuring the individualism score, Hofstede (1997) stated that employees in the countries which scored work goal "personal time" as relatively important were also likely to score "freedom" and "challenge" as important so such countries were considered as individualistic (see Table 4.2). On the other hand, employees in the countries which considered work goal "training" as more important also considered "physical condition" and "use of skills" as important, so these countries were labeled as collectivistic.

The original VSM is consisted of 33 questions (Hofstede, 1984). As previously noted, Thai subordinates were asked not only to complete the VSM but also 45-item MLQ. Therefore, the current study employed the short version of "Values Survey Module" (VSM) adapted by Singh (1990). The short version was used in this study because of acknowledging the weakness of mailing questionnaire regarding its low response rate (Babbie, 1998; Sekaran, 2000; Judd et al., 1991). By providing the questionnaire with fewer items, the respondents would spend a fewer time with the questionnaire and thus the response rate was expected to be increase.

Similar to the original VSM but shorter, the VSM used in this study was consisted of 14 items. The three questions of power distance and three questions represented uncertainty avoidance were kept in the short version. The difference was that the 14 work goal items were reduced to 8 items in this version. Four work goal items represented the masculinity dimension and another four items measured the individualism dimension (see the questions and its measurement in Appendix E). Sample items used in this study are shown in Table 4.3. Once again, in order to minimize cultural and language problems, the questionnaire was first translated formally from English to

Thai by a Thai native translator from the Royal Thai Consulate General then back translated by the researcher.

Table 4.3: Sample items of the Values Survey Module

Dimension	Sample item
PDI (3 items)	"How frequently, in your work environment, are subordinates afraid to express disagreement with their superiors?"
UAI (3 items)	"How often do you feel nervous or tense at work?"
IDV (4 items)	"How important is it to you to have sufficient time for personal or family life?"
MAS (4 items)	"In choosing an ideal job, how important is it to have the opportunity for high earnings?"

4.4.2 INTERVIEWS

As mentioned earlier, a qualitative interview method was used as a small part to collect data in the current study. The supplementary interview method would help to extend the findings of the main quantitative questionnaire survey in answering what were the perceptions of Australian expatriate managers on the Thai working cultures and their leadership behaviors.

An interview is a conversation with a purpose (Dane, 1990) in which the interviewer attempts to access the respondent's perceptions, meanings, definitions of situations and constructions of reality (Punch, 1998). Interviews could be in a structured or unstructured format. The degree of structure in the interview is depended on how deep the interview tries to go and the degree to which the interview is standardized across different respondents and situations (Punch, 1998). In structured interview, every respondent receives

the same questions in the same order, delivered in a standardized manner. A list of interview questions is planed and standardized in advance, pre-coded categories are used for responses, and the interviewer does not attempt to go beyond the predetermined questions (Sekaran, 2000).

Structured interviews are usually conducted when it is known what information is needed. Although structured interviews might be effective in obtaining a high level of reliable response (Dane, 1990), there are several disadvantages of this type of interview. For example, because of its predetermined response categories, there is a little room for the interviewer to be flexible in determining feelings, attitudes, and perceptions of the respondents beyond the standardized questions. In addition, the development of trust and rapport between the interviewer and the respondents could be prevented by the detachment and impersonal approach required by this method (Punch, 1998; Burns, 1994).

Contrary to structured interviews, an unstructured interview is defined as an interaction between an interviewer and respondent in which the interviewer has a general plan of inquiry but not a specific set of questions that must be asked in particular words and in a particular order (Babbie, 1998). By using unstructured interviews, the interviewer poses general questions or a few predetermined questions but also gives their concerns on follow-up questions arise in between the conversation.

Within the unstructured interview format, the researcher focuses on the respondent's perception of themselves, of their environment, and of their experiences (Burns, 1994). Dane (1990), Burns (1994), and Punch (1998) caution that unstructured interviews should be used prudently. However, there are several advantages of unstructured interviews. The major

advantage of this method is its flexibility. The flexibility enables the interviewer to explore more fully the opinions, perceptions, and behaviors of the respondents. In addition, trust and rapport between the interviewer and the respondent could be enhanced because of its informal conversational style. Finally, the respondent has the opportunity to express themselves in their natural language rather than being forced to fit their language within the context of fix interview questions.

In the case of the current study, unstructured interviews were used because of several reasons. Firstly, it was appropriate when general perceptions and experiences of the respondents were important in the specific issue, such as cultural values, assessing in this study. Secondly, unstructured interviews appeared to be effective when using with a specific group of respondents who familiar with the research topic (Dane, 1990). Finally, its flexibility would allow the researcher to explore more on the respondent's opinions and perceptions and that served the objective of using the qualitative approach in this study.

As supplementary role, unstructured interviews were conducted to capture the general perspectives of Australian expatriate managers on three major issues: (a) their perceptions of the Thai subordinates' cultural background and the differences, if any, between Australian and Thai subordinates' cultural values, (b) recommendations on the effective leadership behaviors for expatriates who intended to work with Thai subordinates, and (c) opinions on adaptation of their leadership behaviors, if any, regarding the subordinates' cultural values.

Initially, the intended interview questions were reviewed by two qualified persons (an academic staff member and a former Australian expatriate

manager who used to work in Thailand). In this instance, they were asked to comment on whether or not they felt that the intended interview questions addressed the study's purposes and questions. In addition, the two assessors recommended an open format so that other questions could be added, if relevant. Some questions were removed due to: (a) its irrelevance to the research questions; and (b) its similar meaning to another question. Question 7 was recommended to be more specific by giving guide examples for the respondents. Question 9 was added to obtain the perceptions of Australian managers of their relationships as a leader and their Thai subordinates. Finally, there were 10 interview questions used in the current study (see interview questions in Appendix D).

4.5 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE
4.5.1 QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Once the sizes of both populations were confirmed, the data collection proceeded. The Australian managers were formally contacted by an introductory letter from the researcher (see Appendix F). The aims of the letter were to: (a) formally invite the Australian managers to participate in the study by providing overview information, such as the aims and the significance of the study; and (b) provide an overview instruction if they decided to participate in this study.

After two weeks, the research packages were distributed by using EMS mail delivery to the addresses of Australian managers. Each research package contained three separate envelops, one for Australian manager and other two for Thai subordinates. The envelope for Australian manager contained a

covering letter (see Appendix G), a copy of questionnaire A for an Australian manager (see Appendix A), a copy of consent form (see Appendix I), and a postage-paid return envelops addressed directly to the researcher.

The covering letter explained more details of the current study. The aims and confidentiality were informed to Australian managers. Furthermore, it asked Australian managers to select their two Thai subordinates to complete the research questionnaires provided in another two envelops. To ensure that Thai subordinates were rating the same manager, Australians were asked to only select their Thai direct-reports. Similar to the Australian envelop, each of the two Thai subordinates' packages contained a covering letter in Thai language (see Appendix H), a copy of translated questionnaire B (see Appendix C) for Thai subordinates, a consent form (see Appendix I), and a postage-paid return envelope.

In the waiting period, 25 questionnaires form Australian managers and 63 questionnaires from Thai subordinates were returned to the address of the researcher in Thailand. Conscious of the small size of both populations, the researcher gave a lot of attempts to ensure as high a response rate as possible. That was, 95 Australian managers were reminded by telephone calls from the researcher due to the anonymity of the respondents. By making the reminded calls, some Australian managers were excluded from the reminded list since they had already returned the research questionnaires.

One difficulty when conducting the reminded calls was that many Australian managers could not take the telephone calls and they did not respond to the messages left. On average, two or three calls were made to the majority of Australian managers. Several Australian managers promised to complete and return the questionnaires as soon as possible and help to remind their Thai

subordinates. Non-response reasons were also obtained from some Australian managers such as lack of time, simply not interested, and wished to re-contact after three months.

At this stage, it was noted that several techniques recommended by previous literature were used in this study in attempting to increase the response rate (e.g. Kanuk and Berenson, 1975; Sekaran, 2000; Babbie, 1998). The techniques include:

- Cover letter (Labrecque (1978) reported higher response rates from questionnaires accompanied by cover letters).
- Stamped and self-addressed return envelope.
- Mailing out of questionnaires by special delivery.
- Follow-up telephone call.
- Providing summary report for Australian respondents (see Appendix A).

After completing the follow-up telephone calls, it revealed that the total of 47 useable questionnaires were obtained for a response rate of a 50 per cent of the total population of Australian manager. For Thai subordinates, 91 useable questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of approximately 48 per cent of the total sample of 190 Thai subordinates. In fact, 52 Australian questionnaires and 97 Thai questionnaires were returned but some of them were excluded from the final analysis due to their incompletion. Therefore, the 47 Australian manager questionnaires and 91 Thai subordinate questionnaires were used in the final analysis in this study.

4.5.1.1 JUSTIFICATION OF THE SAMPLE SIZES

There was a concern of the percentage response rate for a mail survey that discussed in research literature. It believed that response rate was one guideline to the representativeness of the sample respondents. That was, if a high response rate was achieved, there was less chance of significant response bias than in a low rate (Babbie, 1998). The question is that what is a high response rate? What percentage should the response rate be adequate and accepted?

In this regard, a review of the survey literature uncovered a wide range of appropriate response rate for a mailed survey. For example, Babbie (1998) suggested that a response rate of 50 percent was adequate for analysis and reporting. Sekaran (2000) believed that a 30 percent response rate of mail questionnaires was considered acceptable. Singleton Jr., Straits, and Straits (1993) did not give a particular percent but guided 'moderate response rates are considered satisfactory' (p. 265).

When considering the response rate of previous studies using the instrument employed in this study, Bass and Avolio (1997) discovered that the response rates for mailed surveys using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) ranged from 90 percent to as low as 20 percent in previous research.

In addition, it seemed that the sample sizes using the MLQ in previous studies were also varied. For example, when Bass and Avolio (1997) analysed the correlations among the leadership factors and outcomes by gathering data from 14 different studies, various sample sizes could be found among these studies ranging from $N = 9$ in a sample of Vice presidents of Fortune 500, to N

= 45 of New Zealand professionals and managers, to as large as N = 341 of the U.S. army officers (NATO). Two main studies conducted by Edwards et al. (1995) and Thompson (1981) also reflected a small number of Australian expatriate manager population in Thailand. Seventeen Australian expatriate managers were interviewed in the Edwards et al. (1995) study, while Thompson (1981) reported sixteen Australian organizations as the study's sample size.

4.5.1.1.1 AUSTRALIAN EXPATRIATE MANAGERS

As previously mentioned, the entire population of Australian expatriate managers was selected and approached with a request to participate. Questionnaires were sent to each on. After two weeks, 25 questionnaires had been returned. This represented about 26% of those sent out. It is known that an empirically expected rate of return for well-prepared questionnaires should not be less than 30% (Sekaran, 2000). In order to improve the response rate, telephone contact was made with the Australian managers. This was done to a maximum of three times, after which the case was abandoned out of concern not to be seen to be a nuisance.

This extra effort by phone was a supplemented by a visit to Thailand. As a result of this, double pursuit the response rate was improved to 47, which is a response rate of 50%. Considering the circumstances, the travel, and the busy-ness of the Australian managers involved this was regarded as a substantial response.

The sample size is satisfactory but possible bias because of the usual problems of response rate was checked. Both the sample and the population record at least some characteristics. These were sex and the managerial levels of the Australian respondents. Table 4.4 and Table 4.5 present the examination by using Chi Squared test. Chi Squared test was chosen to see if there was a significant deviation between the observed and expected frequencies for sample and population respectively. The formula is:

$$X^2 \text{ Chi Squared} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$

Where O_{ij} = observed number of cases categoried in ith row of jth column

E_{ij} = number of cases expected to be categorized in ith row of jth colum

$$\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{k} = \text{sum over all (r) rows and all (k) column}$$

Table 4.4 gives a breakdown of numbers for sex. The derived Chi Squared value for sex was 0.23 with three degrees of freedom. Therefore, it concludes that there is no significant difference between the sample and the population frequencies based on sex.

Table 4.4: Sex by population and sample

	Male		Female		Total
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Population	85	84.3	10	10.7	95
Sample	41	41.7	6	5.3	47
Total	126		16		142

Table 4.5 gives a breakdown by managerial level. There are the three major groupings broken down by level. As before, and with same comments, a Chi

Squared calculated from this Table yielded a value of 0.11 with five degrees of freedom. It is clear that there is no significant difference between the sample and the population based on managerial levels. It is noted that Chi Squared is a robust non-parametric test and therefore gives us some confidence in the result.

Table 4.5: Managerial levels by population and sample

	Top Level		Executive Level		Middle level		Total
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Population	36	36.8	29	28.8	30	29.4	95
Sample	19	18.2	14	14.2	14	14.6	47
Total	55		43		44		142

Given the response rate of 50%, and the congruity of the sample and population on known characteristics, it is concluded that it should have some confidence that the results have generalisability.

4.5.1.1.2 THAI SUBORDINATES

As there were 95 Australian expatriate managers, and information was required from two of their subordinates a total of 190 (2 X 95) questionnaires were sent. On the first occasion a total of 63 were returned. As before, this response rate was lower than acceptable; and again, as before, follow up was done by phone and by a personal visit to Thailand. This resulted in an increase in the response rate from 33 to 48%. A close match to the response rate from Australian expatriate managers.

Since each of the Australian expatriate managers nominated their subordinates, it prevents the researcher to test whether there is a significant deviation between the observed and expected frequencies for sample and population. However, given that the response rate was improved to better that average level, and that a close watch was kept on data collection by a visit to Thailand, there is some justification for having reasonable confidence in the sampling procedure and in the respective response rates.

In summary, the data from 47 Australian managers represented 50 percent of the first population and 91 Thai subordinates represented 48 percent of its sample should be considered as adequate sample sizes for further analysis.

4.5.2 QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

In recruiting respondents to participant in research interview, the respondents were invited to enclose their business cards or complete their contact addresses in the blank provided in the last section of the questionnaire (see Appendix A). This section was separated from the questionnaire before processing the results in order to ensure anonymity of the responses was maintained.

Initially, there were seven respondents accepted the interview invitation. However, when the telephone calls were made, two of them had to decline the invitation due to unexpected circumstances. Therefore, there were five Australian respondents who were willing and available to be involved in the research interview in this study.

All of respondents were contacted by telephone calls to arrange the potential place and time for the interviews. Appointments were made for the interviews in the two provinces in Thailand (4 in Bangkok and 1 in Songkla, southern Thailand). All of interviews were conducted at the participants' offices in working hours.

The same procedure was followed in each interview. That was, after an exchange of greetings, the respondents were advised of the research purposes. Then, the researcher asked the respondents for permissions to tape-record the conversation. The tape-recording method was recommended when an unstructured interview was conducted with open-ended questions (Punch, 1998). This was because, the method allowed researchers to participate fully in the conversational interview without being distracted by having to write at the same time as listening. In addition, it allowed researchers to listen repeatedly during the data analysis stage of the study.

Each respondent was told that his or her confidentially was a primary consideration for the researcher. His or her name was not on the cassette and the researcher would be the only person listening to the tape-recording. Furthermore, when the research was written, the conversation from the interview would be handled in a way to minimize the risk of respondent identification.

Each respondent was encouraged by the researcher to treat the interview as a relaxed meeting and feel free if they had any concerns or feeling of discomfort with the conservation, particularly a discussion of sensitive issue such as their subordinates' cultural background. By adopting the strategy, it would allow the respondents to develop confidence in the researcher and thus the questions would be answered truly (Dooley, 1995). Once taping started, the

unstructured interview questions were begun. On average, the interview's length was approximately half an hour.

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS
4.6.1 QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS
4.6.1.1 DATA TREATMENT

At this stage, the raw data obtained through the questionnaires were processed to ensure that the information on the questionnaires was ready for further analysis. In the data treatment processes, a coding system was developed for every question or item in the questionnaires. Code sheets were used to define the meaning of the codes for each question. The format of codes in this study was both in numerical and abbreviation forms. For example, the responses to the demographic variables were coded from 1 to 2 for variables of sex, from 1 to 5 for variables of education, 9 for missing data, and from IDV 1 to IDV 4 for variables of the individualism dimension.

After the coding system was established, data in every questionnaire were checked for completeness by the researcher and then edited if required. However, it should be noted that the researcher could not follow up to get the correct data with the participants since the participants completed the questionnaires anonymously. The questionnaires were checked for: (a) multiple answers to single questions; (b) response inconsistencies in terms of conflicting answers; and (c) incomplete questionnaire.

If an incomplete questionnaire was found, the questionnaire was treated in two ways. First, the questionnaire was excluded from the data set for analysis

if 25 percent or more, as suggested by Sekaran (2000), of the items in the questionnaire, were left unanswered. Second, if the unanswered items were less than 25 percent, the data were treated as missing data by the computer program. When the editing process was completed, the data were manually keyed into a computer program. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer program was used to analyze the quantitative data in this study. After the data had been entered into the computer files, the data in the files was re-checked to find: (a) "blank spot" in each case; and (b) "wild-code" that defined as any codes that were not legitimate (Singleton Jr. et al., 1993). Once the data were entered into the computer program and checked for errors, the data analysis process was performed.

4.6.1.2 MAIN QUANTITATIVE TECHNIQUES

The selection of appropriate analysis techniques is considered as one of the most important parts when conducting a research. The techniques must be compatible with the research design and its purposes. In addition, the nature of data, either quantitative or qualitative, also determines the choice of those techniques. In quantitative research, statistical techniques can be classified as univariate, bivariate, or multivariate, depending on whether they are applicable to data for one, two, more variables.

The univariate techniques are adopted to describe the statistical aspects of a single variable. These techniques include such measures as mode, median, mean, standard deviation, and percentile. When the relationships between two variables are the interests of the study, bivariate approach would be an appropriate technique to employ. The bivariate techniques are often applied to

situations in which each individual in a group has scores on two different variables. Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient and Spearman's rank correlation coefficient are statistical techniques used for this classification. Multivariate statistical techniques are used when the relationships of more than two variables, or more than two groupings are being analyzed. The multivariate statistics include such techniques as simple regression, multiple regression, and factor analysis.

Principally, one formula and four statistical techniques were employed at various stages of this study, including the four cultural dimensions formula, Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient, t-test, multiple regression analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis. Each technique is discussed as follows.

4.6.1.2.1 THE FOUR CULTURAL DIMENSION FORMULA

In obtaining the four cultural dimensions scores, the scores of each dimension were calculated based on the formula provided by Hofstede (1984). According to the Hofstede (1984) formula, the scales for the four dimensions calculated by weighting the means and adding the percentages of some answers to specific items, provided calculated scores ranging from 1 (low) to 100 (high) on the four dimensions (see Appendix E: Measurement of scores on the four dimensions). Within this formula, the univariate mean and percentile techniques were used.

4.6.1.2.2   PEARSON'S   PRODUCT   MOMENT   CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

Among the bivariate techniques of correlations, the most widely used technique is Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, often referred to as Pearson's **r** (Punch, 1998). The Pearson's **r** indicates the direction, strength, and significance of the bivariate relationships of all the variables in a study. The correlation is derived by assessing the variations in one variable as another variable also varies.

Theoretically, there are two major correlations between the two variables. The relationships may be either positive or negative in direction. A positive relationship between the variables exists if an increase in the value of one variable is accompanied by an increase in the value of the other, or if a decrease in the value of one variable is accompanied by a decrease in the value of the other. In short, the two variables consistently change in the same direction. By contrast, a negative relationship between variables exists if a decrease in the value of one variable is accompanied by an increase in the value of the other. Therefore, when one variable is changing, the other variable is also changing but in the opposite direction.

In the Pearson's **r**, the value of correlation can be rang from −1.00 (negative) to +1.00 (positive). The closer the value is to 1 (either positive or negative), the stronger the relationships between the two variables. When the value close to 0, it indicates that the variables are not substantially related to each other. To interpret the strength of the relationships, Cohen and Holliday (1982) guided that if the value below 0.19 was very weak; 0.20 to 0.39 was weak; 0.40 to 0.69 was modest; 0.70 to 0.89 was strong; and 0.90 to 1.00 was very strong.

In the current study, Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was employed to test the bivariate relationships among the variables in the first dimension proposing in the theoretical framework. By adopting this technique, it will be able to determine whether the relationships with in "The Full Range of Leadership Development Model" (Bass and Avolio, 1997) is supported by the results in this study.

4.6.1.2.3 T-TEST

T-test is also one of bivariate analysis techniques used to explore the differences between two mean scores of one or two groups of samples. There are a number of tests to determine whether a difference between two or more groups is significant. The selection of a technique for testing differences is determined by several criteria such as the nature of criterion variable (ordinal or interval), the number of comparison groups (two or more), and the relationships between the comparison groups (related or unrelated).

However, t-test can be used in several mixed criteria (see for example Bryman and Cramer, 1990). For example, t-test (also known as t-test test Val) is used for one sample to determine if the mean of a sample is similar to that of the population. In addition, t-test is also conducted for two unrelated (t-test Groups) or related samples (t-test Pairs). In the former test, it determines if the means of two unrelated samples differ while it compare the means of the same subjects in two conditions or at two points of time in the later test. Each of them has its own formula.

The particular type of t-test used in the current study is the t-test for two unrelated samples (t-test Groups) since the means of the interested variables are obtained from the different sources: the Australian manager and Thai subordinate samples. The t-test formula for this purpose is:

$$t = \frac{\text{sample one mean} - \text{sample two mean}}{\text{standard error of the difference in means}}$$

This formula produces the t value by comparing the difference between the two means with the standard error of the difference in the means of different samples.

However, when t-test Groups is conducted using the statistical software such as SPSS, two types of t values are provided: one for "Equal variance not assumed" and another for "Equal variance assumed". Which t value can be used for the further interpretation depending on whether the difference in the variances of the two samples is statistically significant. This information is provided by the F test. If the F test is significant, then the variances are different and thus the t value from the "Equal variance not assumed" is used. By contrast, if the variances are not different (the F test is not significant), then the t value from the "Equal variance assumed" is adopted.

The t-test Groups was used to test the differences in perceptions on the leadership behaviors and outcomes between Australian managers and their Thai subordinates, that was, testing the second dimension in the theoretical framework in this study. The results of the t-test would provide information to determine that Australian managers in this study should be classified as Over-Estimator, In-Agreement Estimator, or Under-Estimator and that could subsequently help Australian managers to improve their leadership self-evaluation.

4.6.1.2.4 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

As described previously, the correlation coefficient "r" indicated the direction and strength of relationship between two variables. However, it provides no idea of how much of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained when several independent variables are examined. Multiple regression analysis provides such information. Multiple regression analysis determines the linear associations between two or more independent variables and a dependent variable. However, there is no implication that such relationships are of a causal nature (Punch, 1998). In fact, the analysis is conducted to examine how well two or more independent variables are able to explain the variance in the dependent variable. The general model for a multiple regression equation takes the following form:

$$Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + ... + e$$

Where Y = predicted value of the dependent variable

   a = value of the dependent variable when all the independent variables are zero

   b = regression coefficients

   X = independent variables

   e = the prediction error

In the multiple regression equation, various values for the dependent variable are predicted by the corresponding values for the independent variables when the intercept and regression coefficients are constants. In addition, the analysis also statistically computes the estimate effect of each independent variable on the dependent variable while simultaneously controlling for the effects of other independent variables (Singleton, Jr. et al., 1993). The overall

fit of a regression model can be examined through the multiple correlation coefficient R, also known as Multiple R, and its square R^2. Multiple R is the multiple correlations among the independent variables and the dependent variable. When the Multiple R is squared, R^2 give a direct estimate of the amount of variation in the dependent variable which is explained, or accounted for, by the group of independent variables. Similar to the value of Multiple R, R^2 value also varies between 0 and 1. The closer it is to 1, the more of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variables.

Another useful statistical test that is related to R^2 is the F statistic and its significance level. These three statistic values provide a direct answer to the central question when conducting the multiple regression analysis. For example, if the R^2 is .762 with an F value, assumingly, of 25.5 at a significant level of $p < .001$, then it is interpreted that 76 percent of the variance of the dependent variable is significantly explained by the set of independent variables, only .001 percent chance of this not holding true.

Although R^2 tells how much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the group of independent variables, it does not explain how much each independent variable is in accounting for the variance. The regression weights in the regression equation give a direct estimate of this. There are two types of regression weights: raw weights, suitable for use with raw scores; and standardized weights, suitable for use with standardized scores. The standardized weight is also known as Beta (ß) weights. Its interpretation, for example, is that the Beta weight for independent variable X_1 indicates how much of a change it would make in the dependent variable by making a one-unit change in the variable X_1, while keeping all other variables constant.

In the current study, a series of multiple regression analyses was adopted to test the third dimension proposing in the theoretical framework in this study. In the third dimension, the power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, and individualism cultures were presented as the group of independent variables while transformational, transactional, and non-leadership behavior was treated separately as the dependent variable. The statistical results obtained from a series of multiple regression analyses could determine the extent to what the variance in the three leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian managers can be explained by the four cultural values of Thai subordinates.

4.6.1.2.5 CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Since several previous researches examining the validity of the factor structure of the MLQ provided mixed results, either positive or negative, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to measure whether the data from this study confirm the structural validity of the MLQ (5X) proposed by Bass and Avolio (1997).

A primary goal of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is to evaluate the factor structure within a measurement theory or model and to determine how well the measurement theory/model fits to its data (Bollen, 1989). This feature of CFA is seen as a tool for theory or model testing. Within CFA model, each measure in a data set is considered to be an observed indicator (or variable) of one or more underlying latent constructs (or factor). Multiple factors may be expected to underlie a single set of measures, and individual items may load on one or more factors (Bryant and Yarnold, 1995).

The CFA model assumes that there are two sources of variation in responses to observed indicators. That is, observed indications are assumed to be influenced by latent underlying factors and by unique measurement error (e.g. the influence of unmeasured variables). Unlike Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), in CFA, one or more models are built and the prediction of the interrelationships between the latent and observed variables within the model is given before the analysis. The difference between each of these predicted interrelationships and the actual interrelationships are referred to as a "fitted residual". To evaluate that how well the model fits its data or which model, in the case of more than one model are constructed, best fit the data (refer to "goodness of fit"), the value of the fitted residual in the particular model is assessed. The closer these residuals are to zero, the better the model fits the data.

The relative fit of a proposed model can be assessed by using several goodness of fit indices. For example, the ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom (χ^2/df) (Hoelter, 1983). As this ratio decreases and approaches zero, the fit of the model improves. In particular, the values of 3.00 or less indicated an adequate fit (Byrne, 1989). In addition, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is another fit index often used to evaluate a given model. Brown and Cudeck (1993) suggested that the RMSEA value of .05 or less indicated a close fit between data and the model. Joreskog and Sorbom's (1989) goodness of fit index (GFI) and the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) are also usually adopted when conducting CFA. The values greater than 0.9 for GFI and greater than 0.8 for AGFI indicate a good fit of the model.

One of major concerns when conducting CFA is the effect of the sample size on the goodness of fit indices. According to Bryant and Yarnold (1995), the chi-square statistic is sensitive to sample size and thus small samples may

provide less power to detect a model's true lack of fit. In this regard, Bentler
(1985) guided an appropriate sample size by comparing the number of
subjects per estimated parameter. However, it should be noted that there are
no definitive recommendations when it comes to the adequate sample size to
obtain reliable results.

For example, Bentler and Chou (1987) suggested that the ratio of sample size
to the number of parameters should not less than five to one. Bryant and
Yarnold (1995) guided the minimum number of subjects should be 5-10 times
to the number of "observed indicators". By contrast, Tabachnick and Fidell
(1996) argued that fewer than 10 subjects per estimated parameter might be
adequate if the measured variables were normally distributed. When using
the "AMOS" statistical program, Arbuckle (1997) gave a number of examples
with sample sizes smaller than 100 cases. Furthermore, Gerbling and
Anderson (1985) found simulations with N's from 50 to 300 were unbiased.
Ultimately, Bryman and Cramer (1990) pointed out 'although there is no
consensus on what this (sample size) should be. There is agreement, however,
that there should be more subjects than variables' (p. 255). Since there is no
clear agreement on the appropriate sample size, Pillai, Scandura, and
Williams (1999) suggested that a range of fit indices, such as chi-square
(dependent on sample size) and GFI (independent of sample size), should be
taken into account.

In the current study, the sample size consisted of 138 cases obtained from
combining the data from the Australian managers and Thai subordinates (N
47 and N 91). The multi-data source was used in order to: (a) avoid a single-
source bias (Tracey and Hinkin, 1998), and (b) increase the size of sample.
The new sample size of 138 cases is considered as a 'small to moderate sample
size' (Bollen, 1989, p. 262). However, Bryant and Yarnold (1995) warned that

if the separate samples showed significant mean difference across the indicators, simply combining the raw data from these different groups could produce spurious correlations for the pooled sample. 'Before pooling the data from separate groups, researchers should first standardize the raw data separately within each group and then pool these data' (p. 119). Consequently, the standardized processing of the raw data was conducted separately before combining the data from both samples in this study.

Three factor models were tested in this study. First, one general factor model (global leadership) in which all items load on the same factor. Second, a three correlated factor model (transformational, transactional, and non-leadership) in which the 20 items measuring transformational leadership load on the first factor, the 12 items measuring transactional leadership load on the second factor, and the 4 items measuring laissez-faire load on the third factor. Third, a nine correlated factor model (full leadership model) in which the items measuring each leadership dimension load on nine separate factors.

4.6.2 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS
4.6.2.1 CONTENT ANALYSIS

When conducting the unstructured interviews, all conversations were taped, as agreed by the respondents, and subsequently transcribed 'word for word' onto a computer database for further analysis purposes.

Content Analysis was employed to analyze the qualitative data in this study. Reaves (1992) defined content analysis as the systematic analysis of the content or meaning of a recorded message. Holsti (1969) referred content

analysis to 'any technique for making inferences by systematically and objectively identifying specified characteristics of messages' (p. 601). Singleton Jr. et al. (1993) viewed the goal of content analysis as to develop systematic and objective criteria for transforming written text into highly reliable quantitative data. Qualitative research, such as historical comparisons, observation, structured, and unstructured interviewed, often employs content analysis for analyzing its data.

The objective for using content analysis in this study was to obtain a set of categories, based on the research purposes, derived from the total content of the interview transcript and to use those categories to extend the findings of the questionnaire quantitative survey. In order to identify the possible categories, a coding process needed to be performed. Coding is the important part of content analysis (Judd et al., 1991). Polgar and Thomas (1991) defined coding as a process in which data obtained from interviews was systematically organized and classified. Punch (1998) viewed coding as the process of putting tags, names, or labels against pieces of the data to get the data ready for subsequent analysis.

There are two main types of codes: descriptive codes and pattern or classifying codes (see Blaikie, 2000; Punch, 1998). The descriptive code is used at the early stage of coding by broadly reviewing the interview content and enabling the researcher to get a 'feel' for the data. This type of code is useful in summarizing segments of data and provides the basic for later coding. The pattern or classifying code is a higher-order coding that requires some degree of inference beyond the data. The data is then pulled together into smaller and more meaningful units or categories. Coding activities in this stage include creating categories, assigning categories to the data, and splitting and splicing categories.

In the current study, the interview transcript was at first broadly reviewed to gain a general familiarity of the data. At this stage, concepts, themes, and issues were noted in order to crate broad categories – a type of descriptive code. These categories were broad and inclusive, rather than specific and selective. The purpose of this initial coding was to reduce data from the raw interview transcripts. Then, the broad categories were combined according to their similar themes to produce specific categories. Once the specific categories were identified, the information given by the respondents was carefully studied again. Similar concepts or themes emerging from the conversation were grouped into those specific categories.

There were three finalized categories in this study. They were: (a) "Thai working cultures" referred to the Australian managers' perceptions of their Thai subordinates' working cultural values (the code was THAI-CUL); (b) "Culture and Leadership" referred to the relationships between Thai cultural values and the leadership behaviors of Australian managers (the code was CUL-LEAD); and (c) "Recommendation" referred to the Australian managers' opinions and recommendations on how to lead Thai subordinates effectively (the code was REC). The information from these categories was subsequently used as a supplementary role for extending the findings of quantitative research in the discussion chapter. The following table provides an example of how the coding process was operated. The examples demonstrated how information from the interview data were identified as "concepts or themes" (descriptive code) and subsequently classified into the three categories (pattern code).

Table 4.6: Example of coding

Interview data	Concepts or themes	Coding
• *In Australia, nobody wouldn't want to go to somebody that is the same level as them. Because they wouldn't want somebody to think that they couldn't do the work or something like that. So I see my Thai staff work much better with each other in terms of getting something done.* • *In Thailand, I think a long-term relationship is very important unlike probably in Western countries where two people can come to the negotiation table and just negotiate.*	"Australian and Thai cultures" "Characteristics of Thai culture"	**THAI-CUL**
• *For me,..., I understand that here, in order to get things done well you also have to [be ..what.. you also have to] think more about your subordinates and how things effect them, where in Australia we don't have leaders and subordinates as strict as here. So everybody works together and they all have the same goals to get the job done.* • *Managing Thai staff here, I often don't really know what they're thinking. I may say something and they may agree with me or say yes. But I'm not sure that they really mean yes or no...here, when I say something they may agree with me whether they agree with me or not. You never know.*	"Managing in Thailand" "Leading Thai subordinates"	**CUL-LEAD**
• *Here, in order to be the good leader, your subordinates have to trust you and believe in you and that sorts of things.* • *The most important thing probably is to show that you are a good person who thinks about them a lot. So, you have to show a lot of consideration toward them and things like let them know that the things that you do are to try to help them overtime.*	"Recommendations and suggestions for managing or leading in Thailand."	**REC**

4.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Because of the sensitive nature of the data requested, confidentiality was promised and explained to all participants in the covering letters attached with the questionnaires (see Appendix G and H). In this study, confidentiality was maintained not only to respect the privacy of the participants but also to ensure that the participants would provide honest answers, particularly from the Thai subordinates who were evaluating their superiors' leadership behaviors. There were a number of confidential strategies taken in this study:

- All participants completed the questionnaires anonymously without adding their name in the questionnaires, with the exception of Australian participants who wished to be interviewed by the researcher.

- The researcher separately provided self-addressed envelopes to all participants so the participants could complete the questionnaires independently and return them directly to the researcher.

- To ensure that the data could not be accessed by any unauthorized individuals, the data gained from all participants was kept in a locked place, only the researcher and supervisor could access the data.

In addition, the researcher also provided information about the aims of the study and the right of participants to withdraw from the research at any times and ensured that the participants fully understood the purposes of the research (see Appendix G and H). Furthermore, after completing the questionnaire or interview, the participants were given a consent form indicating that their responses would be used only as part of the research data and the data would be aggregated so that individual responses could not be recognized (see Appendix I consent form).

4.8 LIMITATIONS

Similar to any research, it is necessary to acknowledge the limitations regarding the system of data collection and analyses used. Although this study employed a combination of quantitative and qualitative research, it was clear that this study relied mainly on the findings obtained from the quantitative techniques in answering the research questions. The interview qualitative data was employed as an additional role to the quantitative data to provided a broader view of the respondents' opinions and perceptions. Consequently, it may introduce the possibility of single source method effects.

In addition, since the two instruments, as mentioned previously, was added in the same questionnaire, the researcher had no control over the order in which the instruments were answered. Another limitation related to the difficulty of accessing a database for the target population. The unsuccessful attempts to access the target population database from two other public organizations might prevent the researcher from identifying a larger population.

Finally, the length of time available in which to conduct the research interview was another limitation. Since all of the interviewees holding positions at the executive levels, they seemed to have a busy time schedule. Furthermore, the interviews were sometimes interrupted by the respondents' incoming works. As a result, it was felt that if the interviews had taken more time and were conducted outside working areas, the researchers would have had the opportunity to conduct a deeper interview and gain more in depth perceptions of the respondents.

4.9 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the methodology employed to collect the research data in order to answer the research questions. It justified the methodology and identified the population and sampling procedure used in this study. Then, the research instruments were presented, the method of data analysis was described, and the ethics and limitations were considered. The results are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

RESEARCH RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The first four chapters provided information on research purposes, relevant literature, theoretical frameworks, and the methodology used in this investigation. Chapter five aims to present the patterns of research results provided by the analysis of the questionnaires from the forty-seven Australian expatriate superiors and ninety-one Thai subordinates. The chapter is segmented into four major sections. The first section reports the analysis of respondent demographics of both Australian superiors and Thai subordinates. The second section presents the findings of the four cultural dimensions of the Thai respondents. The results on: (a) the leadership behavior of Australian managers; (b) the differences in perceptions of leadership behavior between Australian superiors and Thai subordinates, and (c) the relationships between leadership factors and their outcomes are given in the third section. The final section provides the results of the relationships between four cultural dimensions and the three major leadership behaviors (transformational, transactional, and non-leadership behaviors).

5.2 PARTICIPANT ANALYSIS

5.2.1 AUSTRALIAN EXPATRIATE MANAGERS

As previously noted, a total of 47 useable questionnaires were obtained for a response rate of 50 per cent of the total population. The majority of the Australian participants were male, (41, 87.2%) and six (12.8%) were female Australian managers. Most participants were aged between 30 and 49 years (76.3%) and well educated (80.9%), and had at least a Bachelor higher degree. The mean level of age was 40 – 49 years old (SD = 0.87) and the mode education level of participants was a Bachelor degree (SD = 1.12).

With regard to differences in the sample associated with the participants' sexes, the majority group of male Australian expatriates in this study came from a group of people aged between 40 and 49 years old who had graduated with bachelor degrees (10 males: 24.4%). Most of the male expatriates were aged greater than 40 years old (26 males: 63.4%). Approximately 78% (32 males) of the male expatriates graduated with at least some bachelor or higher degree (see Table 5.1). The sample of female Australian participants was relatively young, (aged 30-39: 66.7%, none of them were aged more than 50 years old), and well educated (100.0% had some university degrees). The largest group of female expatriates was aged between 30 and 39 years and also held bachelor degrees (3 females: 75.0%).

Table 5.1: Number and percentages of Australian expatriates participating by sex, age, and education

SEX				Educational Level							
				High School	Technical School	Diplomas	Bachelors	Masters	Doctorate	Other	Total
Male	Age	Less 30	Number	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
			% Age	0%	0%	0%	100%	0%	0%	0%	100%
			% Education	0%	0%	0%	4.8%	0%	0%	0%	2.4%
		30-39	Number	0	0	1	6	5	2	0	14
			% Age	0%	0%	7.1%	42.9%	35.7%	14.3%	0%	100.0%
			% Education	0%	0%	25.0%	28.6%	55.6%	100.0%	0%	34.1%
		40-49	Number	1	0	2	10	4	0	0	17
			% Age	5.9%	0%	11.8	58.8%	23.5%	0%	0%	100.0%
			% Education	50.0%	0%	50.0%	47.6%	44.4%	0%	0%	41.5%
		50-59	Number	1	2	1	4	0	0	0	8
			% Age	12.5%	25.0%	12.5%	50.0%	0%	0%	0%	100.0%
			% Education	50.0%	100.0%	25.0%	19.0%	0%	0%	0%	19.5%
		60+	Number	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
			% Age	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	100.0	100.0%
			% Education	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	100.0%	2.4%
	Total		Number	2	2	4	21	9	2	1	41
			% Age	4.9%	4.9%	9.8%	51.2%	22.0%	4.9%	2.4%	100.0%
			% Education	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Female	Age	Less 30	Number	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
			% Age	0%	0%	0%	100.0%	0%	0%	0%	100.0%
			% Education	0%	0%	0%	25.0%	0%	0%	0%	16.7%
		30-39	Number	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	4
			% Age	0%	0%	0%	75.0%	25.0%	0%	0%	100.0%
			% Education	0%	0%	0%	75.0%	50.0%	0%	0%	66.7%
		40-49	Number	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
			% Age	0%	0%	0%	0%	100.0%	0%	0%	100.0%
			% Education	0%	0%	0%	0%	50.0%	0%	0%	16.7%
		50-59	Number	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
			% Age	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
			% Education	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
		60+	Number	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
			% Age	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
			% Education	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
	Total		Number	0	0	0	4	2	0	0	6
			% Age	0%	0%	0%	66.7%	33.3%	0 %	0%	100.0%
			% Education	0%	0%	0%	100.0%	100.0%	0%	0%	100.0%

Based on the management levels and length of experiences in Thailand of the participants (see Table 5.2), 33 Australian participants (70.2%) were at the executive level of management (Director, Vice President, or Board level) or higher (Top management: CEO) in their organizations. The remaining 14 expatriates (29.8%) came from the level of middle management (Department manager, Senior staff, or Supervisor). Most participants (83.0%) had worked in Thailand longer than 1 year (less than 1 year: 17.0%, 1-3 years: 36.2%, more than 3 years: 46.8%). The mode number of years of participants working in Thailand was more than 3 years (SD = 0.75) and top level of management was the mode of the participants (SD = 0.84).

For the male Australian participants, approximately 73.2% held positions at the executive level of management or above; 46.3% had worked in Thailand more than 3 years. For female participants 3 were at the middle management level (50.0%), similarly, 3 females (50.0%) had more than 3 years experience working in the country.

Table 5.2: Number and percentages of Australian expatriates participating by sex, organizational level, and length of time working in Thailand

				Length of working in Thailand			
SEX				< 1 Yr	1-3 Yrs	+ 3 Yrs	Total
Male	Organizational Level	TOP (CEO)	Number	1	6	10	17
			% Org. Level	5. 9%	35.3%	58.8%	100.0%
			% Lenght	14.3%	40.0%	52.6%	41.5%
		EXECUTIVE	Number	2	5	6	13
			% Org. Level	15.4%	38.5%	46.2%	100.0%
			% Length	28.6%	33.3%	31.6%	31.7%
		MIDDLE	Number	4	4	3	11
			% Org. Level	36.4%	36.4%	27.3%	100.0%
			% Length	57.1%	26.7%	15.8%	26.8%
TOTAL			Number	7	15	19	41
			% Org. Level	17.1%	36.6%	46.3%	100.0%
			% Length	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Female	Organizational Level	TOP (CEO)	Number	0	0	2	2
			% Org. Level	0%	0%	100.0%	100.0%
			% Lenght	0%	0%	66.7%	33.3%
		EXECUTIVE	Number	0	1	0	1
			% Org. Level	0%	100.0%	0%	100.0%
			% Length	0%	50.0%	0%	16.7%
		MIDDLE	Number	1	1	1	3
			% Org. Level	33.3%	33.3%	33.3%	100.0%
			% Length	100.0%	50.0%	33.3%	50.0%
TOTAL			Number	1	2	3	6
			% Org. Level	16.7%	33.3%	50.0%	100.0%
			% Length	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

5.2.2 THAI SUBORDINATES

Ninety-one useable questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of approximately 48 per cent. As the results presented in Table 5.3 show, there were a similar number of male and female Thai subordinates participating in this study. The participants were 44 (48.4%) male and 47

(51.6%) female, aged relatively young (aged below 39 years: 82.4%) and the majority had university experience (83.5% had at least Bachelor degree or better). The average age of Thai participants was between 30 and 39 years, similar to the age range of their superiors. A Bachelor degree was the mode level of their education.

Focusing on differences in demographic characteristics of the sexes of the subordinates given in Table 5.3, the majority group of both male and female subordinates in this study were similar, that was, they came from a group of people aged between 30 and 39 years old and had graduated with bachelor degrees (15 males: 34.1%, 20 females: 42.5%). All of the female and 95.4% of male subordinates were aged less than 49 years old. Approximately 84% (37 males) of male subordinates gained at least some bachelor degree or better. There were 39 (82.9%) female subordinates who had graduated with either a Bachelor or Master degree.

Table 5.3: Number and percentages of Thai subordinates participating by sex, age, and education

SEX				Educational Level							
				High School	Technical School	Diplomas	Bachelors	Masters	Doctorate	Other	Total
Male	**Age**	Less 30	Number	0	0	3	6	0	0	0	9
			% Age	0%	0%	33.3%	66.7%	0%	0%	0%	100%
			% Education	0%	0%	60.0%	24.0%	0%	0%	0%	20.5%
		30-39	Number	0	2	0	15	6	1	0	24
			% Age	0%	8.3%	0%	62.5%	25.0%	4.2%	0%	100.0%
			% Education	0%	100.0%	0%	60.0%	54.5%	100.0%	0%	54.5%
		40-49	Number	0	0	2	3	4	0	0	9
			% Age	0%	0%	22.2%	33.3%	44.4%	0%	0%	100.0%
			% Education	0%	0%	40.0%	12.0%	36.4%	0%	0%	20.5%
		50-59	Number	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2
			% Age	0%	0%	0%	50.0%	50.0%	0%	0%	100.0%
			% Education	0%	0%	0%	4.0%	9.1%	0%	0%	4.5%
		60+	Number	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
			% Age	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
			% Education	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
	Total		Number	0	2	5	25	11	1	0	44
			% Age	0%	4.5%	11.4%	56.8%	25.0%	2.3%	0%	100.0%
			% Education	0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	0%	100.0%
Female	**Age**	Less 30	Number	1	0	2	5	3	0	1	12
			% Age	8.3%	0%	16.7%	41.7%	25.0%	0%	8.3%	100.0%
			% Education	50.0%	0%	66.7%	18.5%	25.0%	0%	50.0%	25.5%
		30-39	Number	1	1	1	20	6	0	1	30
			% Age	3.3%	3.3%	3.3%	66.7%	20.0%	0%	3.3%	100.0%
			% Education	50.0%	100.0%	33.3%	74.1%	50.0%	0%	50.0%	63.8%
		40-49	Number	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	5
			% Age	0%	0%	0%	40.0%	60.0%	0%	0%	100.0%
			% Education	0%	0%	0%	7.4%	25.0%	0%	0%	10.6%
		50-59	Number	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
			% Age	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
			% Education	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
		60+	Number	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
			% Age	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
			% Education	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
	Total		Number	2	1	3	27	12	0	2	47
			% Age	4.3%	2.1%	6.4%	57.4%	25.5%	0%	4.3%	100.0%
			% Education	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	0%	100.0%	100.0%

The results from table 5.4 indicated that there were 49 (53.8%) Thai subordinates who held positions at the middle management level (11 executives: 12.1%, 31 staff: 34.1%). Most participants (88.0%) had been working for their present organizations for longer than 1 year (less than 1 year: 12.1%, 1-3 years: 38.5%, more than 3 years: 49.5%). The mode employment with their present companies was more than 3 years.

For the male subordinates, approximately 63.3% (28 males) held positions at the middle level of management; 81.8% had been employed with their present companies for more than 1 year. The majority of female subordinates were at the middle level or lower (89.4%). Approximately half of female respondents had been with their companies longer than 3 years (see Table 5.4).

Table 5.4: Number and percentages of Thai subordinates participating by sex, organizational level, and length of service

SEX					Organizational Level			
					Executive	Middle	Staff	Total
Male	Length of Service	Less 1 Yr		Number	0	5	3	8
				% Length	0%	62.5%	37.5%	100.0%
				% Org. Level	0%	17.9%	30.0%	18.2%
		1-3 Yrs		Number	4	8	6	18
				% Length	22.2%	44.4%	33.3%	100.0%
				% Org. Level	66.7%	28.6%	60.0%	40.9%
		More 3 Yrs		Number	2	15	1	18
				% Length	11.1%	83.3%	5.6%	100.0%
				% Org. Level	33.3%	53.6%	10.0%	40.9%
TOTAL				Number	6	28	10	44
				% Length	13.6%	63.6%	22.7%	100.0%
				% Org. Level	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Female	Length of Service	Less 1 Yr		Number	0	2	1	3
				% Length	0%	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%
				% Org. Level	0%	9.5%	4.8%	6.4%
		1-3 Yrs		Number	0	9	8	17
				% Length	0%	52.9%	47.1%	100.0%
				% Org. Level	0%	42.9%	38.1%	36.2%
		More 3 Yrs		Number	5	10	12	27
				% Length	18.5%	37.0%	44.4%	100.0%
				% Org. Level	100.0%	47.6%	57.1%	57.4%
TOTAL				Number	5	21	21	47
				% Length	10.6%	44.7%	44.7%	100.0%
				% Org. Level	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

5.3 THE FOUR DIMENSIONS OF THAI CULTURE

In order to explore the four cultural dimensions of a Thai culture, the Value Survey Module (Hofstede, 1984) was added in section B of the Thai subordinate questionnaire. Thai subordinates were asked to identify their own values on the 14-item VSM questionnaire to produce the Thai culture scores ranging from 1 (low) to 100 (high) on the four dimensions: namely Power Distance (PDI), Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI), Masculinity (MAS), and Individualism (IDV).

However, since the original works of Hofstede (1980; 1984) not only provided the interpretation of the results at the four dimension levels but also analyzed and discussed the results in the details at the item level. Therefore, this study also provided the analysis of the items comprising each dimension and that would allow the study to make further discussion in terms of comparison between the both studies in the next chapter. A reliability check for the VSM instrument for all items was conducted and produced the value of reliability coefficient (alpha) = 0.60. This reliability value was slightly below Nunnally's (1978) standard of 0.70. As previously noted, a low reliability value was one of the major concern for the VSM instrument (e.g. Helgstrand and Stuhlmacher, 1999; Kuchinke, 1999; Newman and Nollen, 1996; Harvey, 1997).

Table 5.5 presents the four cultural dimension scores reported by Thai subordinates in the present study compared with the original scores of Thailand obtained from the Hofstede study (1984). It can be noticed that the greatest difference between the scores of this study and the Hofstede study was on the power distance dimension, from 64 to 93 (the Hofstede and current study, respectively). Moderate differences in the scores were found on the

scores of the uncertainty avoidance and masculinity dimensions, from 64 to 47 for UAI and from 34 to 17 for MAS respectively. The least difference was found on the individualism dimension, only from 20 to 19.

Table 5.5: The four cultural dimensions scores: Comparison between the present study and the Hofstede study of Thai cultural dimensions

Dimensions	Hofstede Study	Current Study	Gap (point)	Overall mean score (Hofstede, 1984)
Power Distance (PDI)	64	93	+29	51
Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)	64	47	-17	64
Masculinity (MAS)	34	17	-17	51
Individualism (IDV)	20	19	-1	51

5.3.1 POWER DISTANCE

The comparison on the scores of power distance given in Table 5.5 showed that the PDI score obtained from the Thai sample in this study was higher than the Hofstede score norm (the difference was 29 points). However, both scores were higher when compared with the PDI overall mean score provided by Hofstede (1984).

Table 5.6 shows the results of three items used for measuring the power distance dimension. On the "employees afraid" item, a central item for exploring the power distance index (Hofstede, 1984), the Thai respondents believed that subordinates were frequently (36.3%) or sometimes (34.1%) afraid to express disagreement with superiors in their organizations. For the "perceive manager" and "prefer manager" items, the respondents were asked to identify their actual and preferred managers based on a description of four types of decision-making: namely autocratic, paternalistic, consultative, and participative styles.

The results of the "perceive manager" item indicated that the majority of the Thai respondents perceived their Australian superiors consulted with subordinates before making any decisions ("consultative" = 35.2%). In contrast, 40.7 percent of Thai subordinates preferred to work under a superior who used a paternalistic style, that was, making decisions solely but also trying to explain or giving the reasons for making that decision ("prefer manager"). Only 1.1 percent of Thai subordinates preferred a superior who made decisions without asking subordinates and expected them to loyally carry out the decisions without question ("autocratic").

Table 5.6: Means and Percentages of each item representing the Power Distance Dimension

PDI Question and Short name	Scale	Percent
PDI Q1 "Employees afraid"	Very frequently	20.9%
	Frequently	36.3%
	Sometimes	34.1%
	Seldom	7.7%
	Very seldom	1.1%
PDI Q2 "Perceived manager"	"Autocratic"	19.8%
	"Paternalistic"	26.4%
	"Consultative"	35.2%
	"Participative"	9.9%
	Not any of them	8.8%
PDI Q3 "Prefer manager"	"Autocratic"	1.1%
	"Paternalistic"	40.7%
	"Consultative"	29.7%
	"Participative"	28.6%

Note: PDI Q1: How frequently, in your work environment, are subordinates afraid to express disagreement with their superior?
PDI Q2: To which one of the above four types of managers would you say your own superior most closely corresponds?
PDI Q3: Now for the above types of manager, please make the one which you would prefer to work under?

5.3.2 UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE

The uncertainty avoidance score in this study was lower when compared with the Hofstede norm (see Table 5.5). The difference in score on the UAI in this study compared with the Hofstede norm was 17 points. When the UAI overall mean score across 40 countries obtained from the Hofstede study (1984) was compared, it might be said that the Thai sample in the present study was still considered as having a medium uncertainty avoidance value. The results of the three items discovering the uncertainty avoidance dimension are given in

Table 5.7. The results of the "stress" item revealed that the Thai respondents sometimes felt nervous or tense at work (62.6%), while nobody felt free from stress (0%). More than half of the Thai subordinates in this study intended to leave their current companies within five years (62.2%), while only a few of them wished to work for the companies until they retried (6.7%). On the item of "rule-orientation", most of the Thai respondents agreed or strongly agreed that company's rules should not be broken, not even when they thought it was in the company's best interest (65.9%), while only a 22.0 percent disagree or strongly disagreed with the question.

Table 5.7: Means and Percentages of each item representing the Uncertainty Avoidance Dimension

UAI Question and Short name	Scale	Percent
UAI Q1 "Stress"	I always feel this way	8.8%
	Usually	12.1%
	Sometimes	62.6%
	Seldom	16.5%
	I never feel this way	0%
UAI Q2 "Employment stability"	2 years at the most	20.0%
	From 2 to 5 years	42.2%
	More than 5 years	31.6%
	Until I retire	6.7%
UAI Q3 "Rule orientation"	Strongly agree	4.4%
	Agree	61.5%
	Undecided	12.1%
	Disagree	19.8%
	Strongly disagree	2.2%

Note: UAI Q1: How often do you feel nervous or tense at work?
        UAI Q2: How long do you think you will continue working for the organization or company you work for now?
        UAI Q3: *Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statement*: "A company or organization's rules should not be broken – not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest."

5.3.3 MASCULINITY

Similar to the uncertainty avoidance score, the masculinity score gained from the Thai sample was lower than the Hofstede norm (see Table 5.5). When the MAS scores of both studies were compared with the MAS overall mean score, the MAS scores obtained from these studies also lower than the overall mean score (see Table 5.5). The results of the four items representing the masculinity dimension, namely "employment security", "cooperation", "earnings", and "advancement", are given in Table 5.8. The findings suggested that Thai subordinates considered "cooperation", working with people who cooperated well, was the most important (mean = 1.63) and as almost equal to "security" of employment (mean = 1.68). The opportunities for higher earnings and advancement to higher level jobs were slightly lower in the degrees of importance reported by the Thai respondents (mean 2.05, 1.85 respectively)

Table 5.8: Means and Percentages of each item representing the Masculinity Dimension

MAS Questions and Short names	Mean
MAS Q1 "Security"	1.68
MAS Q2 "Cooperation"	1.63
MAS Q3 "Earnings"	2.05
MAS Q4 "Advancement"	1.85

Note: MAS Q1: Have security of employment?
         MAS Q2: Work with people who cooperate well with one another?
         MAS Q3: Have an opportunity for high earning?
         MAS Q4: Have an opportunity for advancement to higher-level jobs?
Each scale ranged from 1.Of utmost important, 2.Very important, 3.Of moderate importance, 4.Of little importance, 5.Of very little importance

5.3.4 INDIVIDUALISM

For the final dimension, individualism, the scores of the present and Hofstede studies were very much closer than on the other dimensions (see Table 5.5). The individualism score presented in this study was 19, close to a score of 20 provided by the Hofstede norm (the difference was 1 point). The similarity of the score on the individualism dimension reported in both studies confirmed that the Thai subordinates in this study lived in a collectivism culture.

When the four items associated with the individualism dimension presented in Table 5.9 were examined, the results showed that Thai subordinates, again, considered working with cooperative colleagues, was the most important item for them (mean = 1.68), followed by the "personal time" and "physical condition" items (mean = 2.20, 2.20 respectively). The "desirable area" item was seen by the Thai respondents as the least important (mean = 2.79).

Table 5.9: Means and Percentages of each item representing the Individualism Dimension

IDV Questions and Short names	Mean
IDV Q1 "Personal time"	2.20
IDV Q2 "Physical condition"	2.20
IDV Q3 "Cooperation"	1.68
IDV Q4 "Desirable area"	2.79

Note: IDV Q1: Have sufficient time left for your personal or family life?
         IDV Q2: Have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)?
         IDV Q3: Work with people who cooperate well with one another?
         IDV Q4: Live in an area desirable to you and your family?
Each scale ranged from 1.Of utmost important, 2.Very important, 3.Of moderate importance, 4.Of little importance, 5.Of very little importance

5.3.5 THE FOUR CULTURAL DIMENSIONS SCORE BY SEX, AGE, EDUCATION AND MANAGERIAL LEVELS

Hofstede (1984) argued that the four cultural dimensions were closely related to the respondents' demographic backgrounds. Therefore, the Thai sample data was classified into the four demographic criteria: sex, age, education, and managerial level. For analysis of sex, the differences in the scores of each dimension between the male and female respondents were presented. Then, an examination of the four dimension scores based on ages of the respondents was conducted.

The survey data were computed into three sub groups of age: respondents who were aged below 30, aged between 30 and 39, and aged over 39 years old. Next, the Thai sample data was classified into the three educational level groups in order to produce the four dimensional scores for the respondents who were educated below bachelor degree (high school, technical school, and diplomas), had a bachelor degree, and gained a degree higher than bachelor (Masters, Doctorate, and Professional). Last, the three management level groups of respondents were examined to find whether there were any differences in the four dimension scores among the respondents who were at staff, manager (Department Manager, Senior Staff, Supervisor), and executive levels (Vice President, Director, Chief Executive or Operating Officer).

5.3.5.1 THE FOUR DIMENSIONS AND SEX

Table 5.10 presents the cultural dimension scores for the Thai male and female respondents in this study. The results showed that there were few differences between the male and female reports on the power distance and uncertainty avoidance dimensions. Power distance was scored high in the both groups, especially in the female respondents (male = 91, female 95). On the other hand, the female group rated a slightly lower score than males on uncertainty avoidance (male = 54, female = 41).

The major differences on the dimension scores between the two gender groups can be found on the cultural aspects associated with the masculinity and individualism dimensions. Not surprisingly, on the masculinity dimension, females appeared to have a much more "feminine" value than their counterparts (male = 32, female = 2). By contrast, the male respondents in this study tended to have more collective relationships with others, than the female respondents (male = 12, female = 25).

Table 5.10: The four cultural dimensions classified by sex

Sex	PDI	UAI	MAS	IDV
Male	91	54	32	12
Female	95	41	2	25

An examination of the pattern of responses on the VSM items regarding gender of the respondents was given in Table 5.11. On the power distance items, the results did not show any differences on the "perceived managers" and "prefer manager" items between the responses of male and female

groups. When their managers had to make a decision, the majority of both groups perceived their actual managers used the "consultative" style (male = 38.6%, female = 31.9%), while the "paternalistic" style was voted as a preference style in decision-making by both groups (male = 38.6, female = 42.6%).

The only difference between the male and female respondents in this study was found on the "employee afraid" item. The results indicated that male employees in this study were more afraid to express disagreement with their superiors than the female counterpart (male, frequently = 50.0%; female, sometimes = 40.4%).

Similar to the results of power distance items, the responses of the male and female groups on the uncertainty avoidance items did not show any differences on two out of the three items. Most of male and female respondents in this study "sometimes" felt stress under their working life (male = 63.6%, female = 61.7%), while a 54.5 percent of male and 68.1 percent of female respondents agreed that company's rules should not be broken even it was best for the company. The differences between the responses of the two genders can be found under the "employment stability" item. The results indicated that the majority of male employees (45.5% = more than 5 years) in this study wanted to have a longer–term career with their present companies than did females (30.4 %).

The results of the four masculinity items showed that the differences in masculinity between the male and female groups were related to the relative importance of "security" and "cooperation" items. The concern for cooperative colleagues was highest in the male respondents (mean = 1.73), while the female respondents considered having security of employment was the

most important for them (mean = 1.47). However, the male and female groups agreed that having opportunities for higher "advancement" and "earning" were less important compared with those two items above (male = 1.86, 1.95; female = 1.91, 2.15 respectively).

The data from the individualism items showed similar results on the "cooperation" and "desirable area" items between the male and female respondents. Both groups showed their interest in "cooperation" among colleagues was the most important (male = 1.73, female = 1.64), while "desirable area" of living was least important (male = 2.86, female = 2.72). However, female employees tended to place more importance than males on having "personal time" (male = 2.23, female = 2.17), while the later group considered having good physical working conditions was more important than the former group (male = 2.14, female = 2.26).

Table 5.11: Means and Percentages of each item representing the four dimensions classified by sex

Item	Short name	Scale/given answer	Male	Female
PDI Q1	"Employees afraid"	Very frequently	11.4%	29.8%
		Frequently	50.0%	23.4%
		Sometimes	27.3%	40.4%
		Seldom	11.4%	4.3%
		Very seldom	0.0%	2.1%
PDI Q2	"Perceived manager"	Autocratic	20.5%	19.1%
		Paternalistic	27.3%	25.5%
		Consultative	38.6%	31.9%
		Participative	9.1%	10.6%
		Not any of them	4.5%	12.8%
PDI Q3	"Prefer manager"	Autocratic	0.0%	2.1%
		Paternalistic	38.6%	42.6%
		Consultative	31.8%	27.7%
		Participative	29.5%	27.7%
UAI Q1	"Stress"	I always feel this way	11.4%	6.4%
		Usually	11.4%	12.8%
		Sometimes	63.6%	61.7%
		Seldom	13.6%	19.1%
		I never feel this way	0.0%	0.0%
UAI Q2	"Employment stability"	2 years at the most	20.5%	19.6%
		From 2 to 5 years	34.1%	50.0%
		More than 5 years	36.4%	26.1%
		Until I retire	9.1%	4.3%
UAI Q3	"Rule orientation"	Strongly agree	4.5%	4.3%
		Agree	54.5%	68.1%
		Undecided	13.6%	10.6%
		Disagree	25.0%	14.9%
		Strongly disagree	2.3%	2.1%
MAS Q1	"Security"	1.Of utmost important 2.Very important 3.Of moderate importance 4.Of little importance 5.Of very little importance	Mean 1.80	Mean 1.47
MAS Q2	"Cooperation"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.73	Mean 1.64
MAS Q3	"Earnings"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.95	Mean 2.15
MAS Q4	"Advancement"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.86	Mean 1.91
IDV Q1	"Personal time"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.23	Mean 2.17
IDV Q2	"Physical condition"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.14	Mean 2.26
IDV Q3	"Cooperation"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.73	Mean 1.64
IDV Q4	"Desirable area"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.86	Mean 2.72

5.3.5.2 THE FOUR DIMENSIONS AND AGE

Figure 5.1 presents the four dimension scores classified by three age sub groups. The results of power distance score (PDI) showed a U-shape with both youngest and oldest age groups scoring higher on power distance than the middle age group (less 30 = 125[4], 30-39 = 82, 40 up = 90). On the masculinity scores (MAS), there was a decline, from the group of respondents who were aged under 30 years to the group of 30-39 years of age, while it continued to decrease in the oldest group (less 30 = 35, 30-39 = 13, 40 up = 6). Considering the uncertainty avoidance scores (UAI), the results did not indicate any clear differences among the three age groups on this dimension (less 30 = 50, 30-39 = 52, 40 up = 57). The results of the individualism dimension (IDV) showed that there were no significant differences between the groups of respondents who were aged below 30 and 30-39 years (less 30 = 20, 30-39 = 21) although there was a decline on individualism scores in the oldest group (40 up = 10).

---

[4] According to Hofstede (1984), power distance scores, theoretically, can range from − 90 (no one afraid, no manager 1+2, everyone prefer manager 3) to +210 (everyone afraid, all managers 1+2, no one prefers manager 3) (see measurement of PDI in appendix E).

	less 30	30-39	40 up
—♦— PDI	125	82	90
—■— UAI	50	52	57
—▲— MAS	35	13	6
—✳— IDV	20	21	10

age
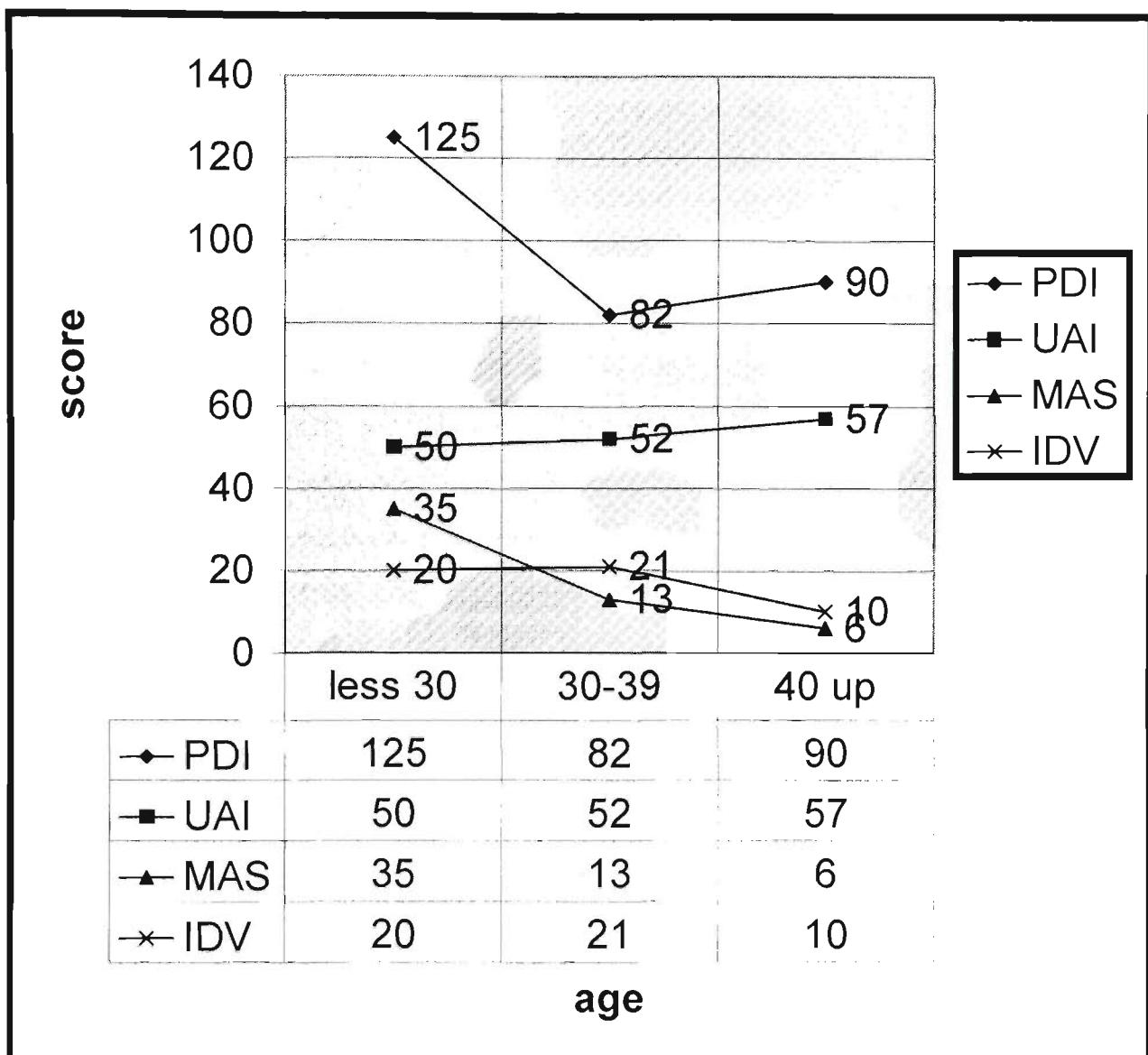
Figure 5.1: The four dimension scores classified by age

The results of the analysis of the fourteen items comprising the four cultural dimensions, examined separately and based on the three age groups, is given in Table 5.12. On the power distance items, the results indicated that there were no clear differences on the three power distance items between the middle age and oldest groups but differences can be found in the youngest group. The respondents who were aged over 29 years old perceived that their actual managers tended to use the "consultative" style (30-39 = 35.2%, 40 up = 43.8%), while the Thai subordinates among the youngest group perceived

their actual managers employed the "paternalistic" style in making a decision (less 30 = 38.1%).

A similar pattern of results also can be found on the "employees afraid" item. The middle and oldest groups reported that they were "frequently" afraid of disagreeing with their boss (30-39 = 38.9%, 40 up = 43.8%), while the youngest group seemed experience disagreement more frequency in the same situation (very frequently = 33.3%). On the "prefer manager" item, however, the three groups showed no difference on this item, that was, the "paternalistic" was the most popular style among them (less 30 = 47.6%, 30-39 = 38.9%, 40 up = 37.5%).

The results of uncertainty avoidance items did not showed any clear differences among the three groups of age, with the exception of the results on the "employment stability" item in the youngest group. The majority of the three groups admitted to being "sometimes" nervous at work (less 30 = 61.9%, 30-39 = 57.4%, 40 up = 81.3%) and agreed with the "rule orientation" question (less 30 = 57.1%, 30-39 = 59.3%, 40 up = 75.0%). On the "employment stability" item, 42.9 percent of the youngest group did not wanted to work for their current companies more than two years, while the two older groups intended to work for a longer time, another two to five years (30-39 = 49.1%, 40 up = 43.8%).

The results given in Table 5.12 indicated that there were differences in the level of importance on the masculinity items among the three age groups. For the youngest group, the opportunity for "advancement" in career was the most important (mean = 1.76), while the "security" of employment was the most important for the middle age group (mean = 1.59). Interestingly, the pattern of responses on the "cooperation" item showed that there was an increase

in the importance of this item along with age. This meant that while the two younger groups considered working with cooperative colleagues was the third and second most important for them respectively (less 30 = 1.86, 30-39 = 1.69), the respondents who aged over 39 years considered it was the most important (mean = 1.44). However, the mean results showed that the opportunity for higher "earning" was the least important among the three groups (less 30 = 2.10, 30-39 = 2.07, 40 up = 1.49).

The pattern of responses on the individualism items showed the similarities of the relative importance of the "cooperation" and "desirable area" items among the three age groups. The mean results indicated that every group concerned for cooperative colleagues was the highest (less 30 = 1.86, 30-39 = 1.69, 40 up = 1.44) and for desirable area of living was lowest important (less 30 = 3.10, 30-39 = 2.75, 40 up = 2.50). However, the differences in responses on the individualism items were that the oldest group tended to place more importance on "personal time" than the other two groups (less 30 = 2.33, 30-39 = 2.31, 40 up = 1.63).

Table 5.12: Means and Percentages of each item representing the four dimensions classified by age

Item	Short name	Scale/given answer	Less 30	30-39	40 up
PDI Q1	"Employees afraid"	Very frequently	33.3%	16.7%	18.8%
		Frequently	23.8%	38.9%	43.8%
		Sometimes	28.6%	38.9%	25.0%
		Seldom	9.5%	5.6%	12.5%
		Very seldom	4.8%	0.0%	0.0%
PDI Q2	"Perceived manager"	Autocratic	28.6%	14.8%	25.0%
		Paternalistic	38.1%	24.1%	18.8%
		Consultative	28.6%	35.2%	43.8%
		Participative	0.0%	14.8%	6.3%
		Not any of them	4.8%	11.1%	6.3%
PDI Q3	"Prefer manager"	Autocratic	0.0%	1.9%	0.0%
		Paternalistic	47.6%	38.9%	37.5%
		Consultative	19.0%	33.3%	31.3%
		Participative	33.3%	25.9%	31.3%
UAI Q1	"Stress"	I always feel this way	14.3%	7.4%	6.3%
		Usually	19.0%	13.0%	0.0%
		Sometimes	61.9%	57.4%	81.3%
		Seldom	4.8%	22.2%	12.5%
		I never feel this way	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
UAI Q2	"Employment stability"	2 years at the most	42.9%	15.1%	6.3%
		From 2 to 5 years	23.8%	49.1%	43.8%
		More than 5 years	33.3%	30.2%	31.3%
		Until I retire	0.0%	5.7%	18.8%
UAI Q3	"Rule orientation"	Strongly agree	4.8%	5.6%	0.0%
		Agree	57.1%	59.3%	75.0%
		Undecided	14.3%	13.0%	6.3%
		Disagree	14.3%	22.2%	18.8%
		Strongly disagree	9.5%	0.0%	0.0%
MAS Q1	"Security"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.81	Mean 1.59	Mean 1.50
MAS Q2	"Cooperation"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.86	Mean 1.69	Mean 1.44
MAS Q3	"Earnings"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.10	Mean 2.07	Mean 1.94
MAS Q4	"Advancement"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.76	Mean 1.94	Mean 1.88
IDV Q1	"Personal time"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.33	Mean 2.31	Mean 1.63
IDV Q2	"Physical condition"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.33	Mean 2.28	Mean 1.75
IDV Q3	"Cooperation"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.86	Mean 1.69	Mean 1.44
IDV Q4	"Desirable area"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 3.10	Mean 2.75	Mean 2.50

5.3.5.3 THE FOUR DIMENSIONS AND EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Figure 5.2 presents the cultural scores for the three education sub-groups. The overall results suggested that the respondents from the lowest educational background appeared to score higher on the power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism indexes compared with the other two groups. On the power distance index, the results showed that there was a constant decrease in the power distance score along with the educational levels of the respondents. That was, the power distance score decreased moderately from the lowest to medium educational and continued to drop in the highest educational group (below bachelor = 122, bachelor = 93, higher bachelor = 80).

The UAI line graph displayed the significant decline on the uncertainty avoidance score from the lowest to medium education then slightly fell in the highest educational group (below bachelor = 70, bachelor = 45, higher bachelor = 42). Similarly to the PDI and UAI line graph, there was a dramatic decrease on the individualism score from the lowest to medium educational level then little increase in the highest educational group (below bachelor = 55, bachelor = 11, higher bachelor = 16). Unlike the other three dimensions, the respondents from the lowest educational group appeared to score lowest on the masculinity index, while the other two educational groups scored equally on this dimension (below bachelor = 5, bachelor = 18, higher bachelor = 18).

	below bachelor	bachelor	higher bachelor
PDI	122	93	80
UAI	70	45	42
MAS	5	18	18
IDV	55	11	16
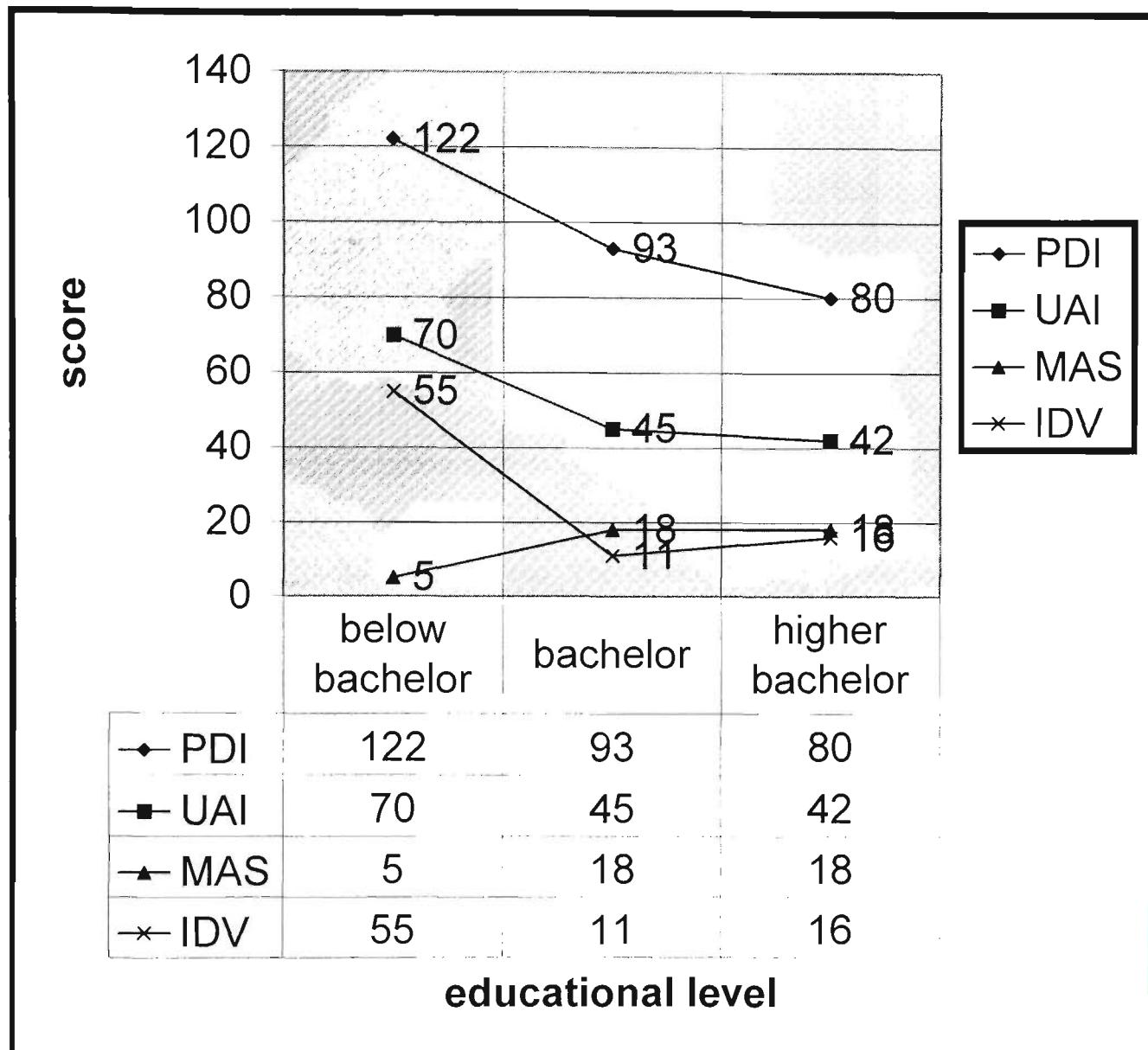
educational level

Figure 5.2: The four dimension scores classified by educational level

Analysis of the responses on the cultural dimension items were examined based on the three levels of the respondents' educational background and the results are given in Table 5.13. The results on the "employees afraid" item indicated that Thai subordinates who had a high educational background in this study were more likely to contradict their superiors than the other groups (higher bachelor, sometimes = 42.3%; below bachelor and bachelor, frequently = 38.5% and 40.4% respectively). The results on the "perceived manager" item

showed that the medium educational group perceived its experienced management style to be "consultative" (38.5%) but the other two groups reported "paternalistic" as the most popular style among their managers (below bachelor = 46.2%, higher bachelor = 34.6%). In addition, while a 46.2 percent of highly educated respondents preferred a manager who employed a "consultative" style, only 15.4 percent of the lowest and 25.0 percent of the medium educated respondents preferred so.

The examination of the uncertainty avoidance items showed that there were no differences on the "stress" and "rule orientation" items among the responses of three educational groups. The majority of respondents from the three educational backgrounds felt "sometimes" under stress at work (below bachelor = 61.5%, bachelor = 57.7%, and higher bachelor = 73.1%) and agreed that the company rules should be strictly followed (below bachelor = 46.2%, bachelor = 71.2%, and higher bachelor = 50.0%). However, the results on the "employment stability" item indicated that the respondents who had the lowest educational background tended to have the longest-term career compared with the other two groups (below bachelor = 43.9 %, bachelor = 33.4%, and higher bachelor = 38.4% for more than 5 years or retired respectively).

When the masculinity items were examined, the "security" and "cooperation" items were identified as the first two important working goals by all groups. While the "earnings" and "advancement" items were considered to be at the same level of importance by the medium and high-educated respondents. There were no clear differences on the results from the respondents of the medium and highest education groups when the individualism items were examined. The relative importance of the four items was put in the same order by the two groups. That was, the medium and highest education

groups rated the "cooperation" item as the most important (bachelor = 1.69, higher bachelor = 1.62), followed by the "physical condition", "personal time" and "desirable area" items (bachelor = 2.10, 2.17, 2.84; higher bachelor = 2.19, 2.23, 2.73 respectively). Although the lowest education group placed the "cooperation" and "desirable" items in the same orders of importance as the others, the respondents of this group voted differently on the "personal time" item which was more important than the "physical condition" compared with the other two groups (personal time = 2.23, physical condition = 2.62).

Table 5.13: Means and Percentages of each item representing the four dimensions classified by educational level

Item	Short name	Scale/given answer	Below bachelor	bachelor	Higher bachelor
PDI Q1	"Employees afraid"	Very frequently	23.1%	19.2%	23.1%
		Frequently	38.5%	40.4%	26.9%
		Sometimes	23.1%	32.7%	42.3%
		Seldom	7.7%	7.7%	7.7%
		Very seldom	7.7%	0.0%	0.0%
PDI Q2	"Perceived manager"	Autocratic	15.4%	23.1%	15.4%
		Paternalistic	46.2%	17.3%	34.6%
		Consultative	30.8%	38.5%	30.8%
		Participative	7.7%	9.6%	11.5%
		Not any of them	0.0%	11.5%	7.7%
PDI Q3	"Prefer manager"	Autocratic	0.0%	1.9%	0.0%
		Paternalistic	61.5%	42.3%	26.9%
		Consultative	15.4%	25.0%	46.2%
		Participative	23.1%	30.8%	26.9%
UAI Q1	"Stress"	I always feel this way	23.1%	9.6%	0.0%
		Usually	7.7%	13.5%	11.5%
		Sometimes	61.5%	57.7%	73.1%
		Seldom	7.7%	19.2%	15.4%
		I never feel this way	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
UAI Q2	"Employment stability"	2 years at the most	23.1%	25.5%	7.7%
		From 2 to 5 years	23.1%	41.2%	53.8%
		More than 5 years	38.5%	27.5%	34.6%
		Until I retire	15.4%	5.9%	3.8%
UAI Q3	"Rule orientation"	Strongly agree	7.7%	0.0%	11.5%
		Agree	46.2%	71.2%	50.0%
		Undecided	15.4%	9.6%	15.4%
		Disagree	23.1%	17.3%	23.1%
		Strongly disagree	7.7%	1.9%	0.0%
MAS Q1	"Security"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.62	Mean 1.63	Mean 1.62
MAS Q2	"Cooperation"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.77	Mean 1.69	Mean 1.62
MAS Q3	"Earnings"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.15	Mean 2.04	Mean 2.04
MAS Q4	"Advancement"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.15	Mean 1.88	Mean 1.77
IDV Q1	"Personal time"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.23	Mean 2.17	Mean 2.23
IDV Q2	"Physical condition"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.62	Mean 2.10	Mean 2.19
IDV Q3	"Cooperation"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.77	Mean 1.69	Mean 1.62
IDV Q4	"Desirable area"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.69	Mean 2.84	Mean 2.73

5.3.5.4 THE FOUR DIMENSIONS AND MANAGERIAL LEVEL

Figure 5.3 presents the results of the four dimension scores when the respondents were grouped by managerial levels. The pattern of responses on the power distance index showed that there was a constant decrease on the power distance scores with an increase in managerial levels of the respondents. The respondents who were at the staff level seemed to score highest (109) followed by the manager level (90). The respondents from executive level scored lowest on the power distance dimension (69). By contrast, the scores on the uncertainty avoidance index gained from the executive group were high when compared with the other two groups (90).

Whereas, the uncertainty avoidance scores obtained from the staff and manager groups showed only slightly differences (staff = 47, manager = 39), the shape of the MAS and IDV line graphs given in figure 5.3 were similar. The results of masculinity and individualism scores showed a ∩-shaped pattern with both the staff and executive groups reporting extreme low scores on the masculinity and individualism dimensions (staff MAS = 9, IDV = 9; executive MAS = 4, IDV = 2), while the manager group scored highest on the two dimensions (MAS = 36, IDV = 29).

	staff	manager	executive
—◆— PDI	109	90	69
—■— UAI	47	39	90
—▲— MAS	9	36	4
—✳— IDV	9	29	2
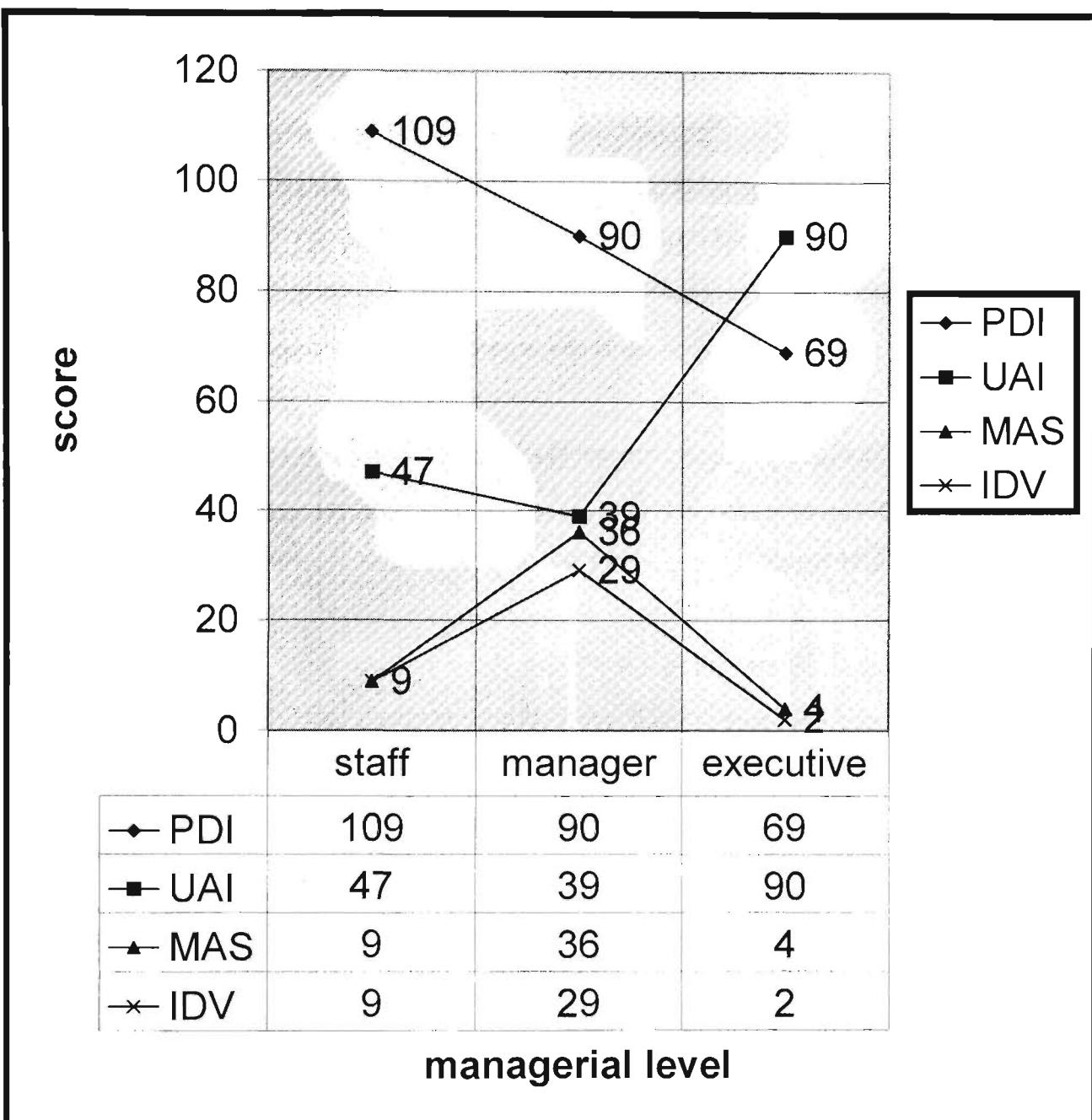
managerial level

Figure 5.3: The four dimension scores classified by managerial level

Table 5.14 shows the results of the VSM items measuring the four cultural indexes classified by the managerial levels of the respondents. On the power distance items, the majority of respondents who were at the staff level tended to be less afraid of disagreeing with their superiors than the manager group (staff = "sometimes", manager = "frequently"), while the executive group was

"sometimes" or "frequently" afraid so (36.4% equally). The results on the "perceived manager" item showed that the manager and executive groups perceived their superiors acted as "consultative", while the staff group reported that its manager employed the "autocratic" style in making a decision. There were no differences were found on the "prefer manager" item. Among those three groups, the "paternalistic" style gained the most votes (staff = 51.6%, manager = 32.7%, executive = 45.5%).

When the three uncertainty avoidance items were examined, the results showed no differences on the "stress" and "rule orientation" items among the three managerial groups. The majority of respondents from the three groups reported "sometimes" under stress at work (staff = 58.1%, manager = 61.2%, executive = 81.8%) and agreed with the "rule orientation" question (staff = 67.7%, manager = 53.1%, executive = 81.8%). The results on the "employment stability" item indicated that while the respondents from the staff and manager levels intended to work for their current companies another two to five years (staff = 35.5%, manager = 49.1%), a 40 percent of respondents from the executive level intended to continue working more than five years.

When the masculinity questions were examined separately, the results from the respondents who were at the staff and executive levels showed no differences in the relative orders of importance on the four items. The staff and executive groups considered the "cooperation" item was the most important (staff and executive = 1.45), followed by the "security" and "advancement" items (staff = 1.52, 1.97; executive = 1.82, 2.00 respectively).

Unlike the other two groups, the respondents who were at the manager position seemed to place more important on the "security" item than other items (1.65), while the "advancement" and "cooperation" items were

considered to be similar in level of importance by the manager group (advancement = 1.82, cooperation = 1.88). The "earning" item was identified as the least important working goal by the three groups (staff = 2.15, manager = 1.98, executive = 2.18). On the four individualism items, the respondents from the three managerial levels agreed that the most important working goal was the "cooperation" item (staff = 1.45, manager = 1.88, executive = 1.45), while the "desirable area" item was the least important among them (staff = 2.81, manager = 2.79, executive = 2.72). However, contrary to the staff and executive groups, the manager group considered having personal time was more important than providing a good physical condition in workplace.

Table 5.14: Means and Percentages of each item representing the four dimensions classified by management level

Item	Short name	Scale/given answer	Staff	Manager	Executive
PDI Q1	"Employees afraid"	Very frequently	29.0%	18.4%	9.1%
		Frequently	22.6%	44.9%	36.4%
		Sometimes	35.5%	32.7%	36.4%
		Seldom	9.7%	4.1%	18.2%
		Very seldom	3.2%	0.0%	0.0%
PDI Q2	"Perceived manager"	Autocratic	32.3%	16.3%	0.0%
		Paternalistic	22.6%	26.5%	36.4%
		Consultative	29.0%	34.7%	54.5%
		Participative	6.5%	12.2%	9.1%
		Not any of them	9.7%	10.2%	0.0%
PDI Q3	"Prefer manager"	Autocratic	0.0%	2.0%	0.0%
		Paternalistic	51.6%	32.7%	45.5%
		Consultative	22.6%	32.7%	36.4%
		Participative	25.8%	32.7%	18.2%
UAI Q1	"Stress"	I always feel this way	9.7%	10.2%	0.0%
		Usually	22.6%	6.1%	9.1%
		Sometimes	58.1%	61.2%	81.8%
		Seldom	9.7%	22.4%	9.1%
		I never feel this way	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
UAI Q2	"Employment stability"	2 years at the most	32.3%	16.3%	0.0%
		From 2 to 5 years	35.5%	49.0%	30.0%
		More than 5 years	29.0%	30.6%	40.0%
		Until I retire	3.2%	4.1%	30.0%
UAI Q3	"Rule orientation"	Strongly agree	0.0%	6.1%	9.1%
		Agree	67.7%	53.1%	81.8%
		Undecided	9.7%	16.3%	0.0%
		Disagree	16.1%	24.5%	9.1%
		Strongly disagree	6.5%	0.0%	0.0%
MAS Q1	"Security"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.52	Mean 1.65	Mean 1.82
MAS Q2	"Cooperation"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.45	Mean 1.88	Mean 1.45
MAS Q3	"Earnings"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.15	Mean 1.98	Mean 2.18
MAS Q4	"Advancement"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.97	Mean 1.82	Mean 2.00
IDV Q1	"Personal time"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.23	Mean 2.16	Mean 2.27
IDV Q2	"Physical condition"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.19	Mean 2.22	Mean 2.09
IDV Q3	"Cooperation"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 1.45	Mean 1.88	Mean 1.45
IDV Q4	"Desirable area"	From 1."Of utmost important" to 5."Of very little importance"	Mean 2.81	Mean 2.79	Mean 2.73

5.4 TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ANALYSIS

A reliability check for both the English MLQ and Thai MLQ was conducted in this study to provide evidence that the leadership instruments, especially after translating from English to Thai, produced the data for which it was designed. As Cronbach's coefficient alpha was provided as a standard measure of reliability, 45 items were included in the calculations to identify reliability coefficients for the English and Thai MLQ. The values of Cronbach alpha produced, were alpha = 0.86 for the original MLQ and alpha = 0.87 for the translated MLQ. The reliability values gained from both MLQs were greater than 0.70 indicating an acceptable statistic testing level (Nunnally, 1967). It also indicated that the scales were highly reliable and that the reliability of the Thai translated version was similar to that of the English version.

Cronbach alphas were then computed for the nine leadership factors and three leadership outcomes. As reported in Table 5.19, Cronbach alphas for the leadership factors ranged from 0.52 for management-by-exception (passive) to 0.77 for individual consideration of the original MLQ's and from 0.40 for management-by-exception (passive) to 0.68 for individual consideration of the translated MLQ. With respects to the leadership outcomes, Cronbach alphas were found between 0.54 and 0.68 for the former and alphas between 0.72 and 0.75 for the later MLQ.

5.4.1 ANALYSES OF THE MLQ (5X) CONSTRUCTS

The preliminary statistics of the MLQ (5x) scales were reported in table 5.19. The correlation results suggested that the five transformational leadership factors were generally more significantly positively correlated with each other than with transactional and non-leadership factors in both samples. The results showed the significant positive relationship among the five transformational factors, in which, "r" values ranged from 0.42 to 0.71 (p < 0.01) in the Australian sample and from 0.46 to 0.68 (p < 0.01) in the Thai sample. However, the intercorrelations among the five transformational factors found in this study were lower than the average intercorrelation values of 0.83 observed by Bass and Avolio (1997).

The correlation results between the transformational factors and contingent reward were in line with Bass' assumption (Bass and Avolio, 1997), that was, the transformational factors were still significantly positively related to contingent reward. In the current study, the significant correlations of contingent reward with the transformational factors ranged from r equaled 0.51 (p < 0.01) to 0.59 (p < 0.01) in the Australian results and from 0.47 (p < 0.01) to 0.73 (p < 0.01) in the Thai reports.

As expected, based on previous research on the MLQ, there was either none or small significant relationships between management-by-exception (active) and the five factors of transformational leadership. The non-significant correlations were mostly found in the Australian sample while a significant but small relationship was found in the Thai ratings. With regard to the inactive leaderships, the correlation results showed that the management-by exception (passive) and laissez-faire scores significantly positively correlated

with each other (r = 0.55; p < 0.01 in the Australian sample and r = 0.42; p < 0.01 in the Thai sample). On the other hand, these patterns of inactive leaderships were each either non or negatively significantly correlated with the transformational factors.

To examine the construct validity of the MLQ (5X), confirmatory factor analysis was performed with AMOS using the maximum likelihood estimation method. In particular, the three separate models were tested to determine whether the data from the combined sample in this study confirmed the underlying factor structure of the MLQ (5X) proposed by Bass and Avolio (1997). Based on the results shown in table 5.15, it is suggested that none of the models obtained a particularly good fit to the data, that was, GFI values ranged from .65 to .71 (see diagrammatic outputs from AMOS 4.0 of the models in Appendix J).

However, Modification Indices (MI) provided by AMOS suggested that the fit of the tested models could be improved by correlating selected parameters within the models. This modified strategy was used in this study rather than eliminating any items because it helped to increase the overall structural validity of the MLQ without any changes to the original factor models (Bass and Avolio, 1997) and that was consistent with the primary interest of the current study. The results from the second analysis shown in table 5.15 indicated that all of the fit measures and the chi-square tests improved as the model progressed from a one-factor model to a nine-factor model. Consequently, it was suggested that the nine-factor model was the best model that fitted the data represented in this study.

In particular, the overall chi-square of the nine factor model was statistically significant (x^2 = 540.18; df = 474; p < .01), the ratio of the chi-square to the

degrees of freedom (x^2/df) was 1.14, the root mean square error of
approximation (RMSEA) was 0.03, the goodness of fit index (GFI) was .84, and
the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) was .78. Given the results of the fit
indices, it should be noted that while the values of the "x^2/df" and "RMSEA"
were within the range of conventionally accepted values (3.0 or less and .05 or
less respectively), the GFI of .84 and AGFI of .78 were slightly lower than the
good overall fit criterions recommended in the literature (0.9 for GFI and 0.8
for AGFI). Therefore, by taking all the fit indices into account and comparing
them with the results of previous studies, it might be said that the nine-factor
model was regarded as a "reasonable fit" to the data in this study (see e.g.
Bycio et al., 1995).

**Table 5.15: Comparison of overall fit measures among the three
separate factor models**

Model	X^2	df	x^2/df	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA
First Analysis						
One factor model	1271.21	594	2.14	.65	.60	.09
Three factor model	1228.65	591	2.08	.66	.62	.08
Nine factor model	1060.99	558	1.90	.71	.65	.08
Second Analysis	X^2	df	x^2/df	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA
One factor model	916.85	570	1.61	.73	.69	.06
Three factor model	924.62	569	1.62	.74	.69	.07
Nine factor model	540.18	474	1.14	.84	.78	.03

Note: All models were significant at $p < .01$.

5.4.2 AUSTRALIAN LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

The statistical results (means, standard deviations, and t-values) of transformational and transactional leadership behavior were presented in Table 5.16 for the Australian manager self-ratings and Table 5.17 for the Thai subordinates ratings.

Table 5.16: Australian manager self-ratings: The mean, standard deviation and t - test analysis comparing scores of transformational and transactional leadership

Leadership Behavior	Australian Expatriate self-ratings N = 47		T-Test Analysis	
	Mean	SD	t-value	(two tailed)
Transformational Leadership (20 items)	3.05	0.44	12.71	0.001
Transactional Leadership (12 items)	2.08	0.33		

Note Each scale varied from 0 = "Not at all"; 1 = "Once in a while"; 2 = "Sometimes"; 3 = "Fairly often"; to 4 = "Frequently, if not always."

Table 5.17: Thai subordinate ratings: The mean, standard deviation and t - test analysis comparing scores of transformational and transactional leadership

Leadership Behavior	Thai Subordinate ratings N = 91		T-Test Analysis	
	Mean	SD	t-value	(two tailed)
Transformational Leadership (20 items)	2.43	0.55	7.63	0.001
Transactional Leadership (12 items)	2.01	0.44		

Note Each scale varied from 0 = "Not at all"; 1 = "Once in a while"; 2 = "Sometimes"; 3 = "Fairly often"; to 4 = "Frequently, if not always."

These results from Table 5.16 and 5.17 indicated that Australian managers, as perceived by themselves and Thai subordinates, displayed transformational significantly more frequently than transactional leadership behavior (t = 12.17; p < 0.01 in Australian self-ratings and t = 7.63; p < 0.01 in Thai subordinate ratings).

The majority of Australian managers in their ratings of themselves demonstrated transformational behavior "fairly often" (mean = 3.05, SD = 0.44), whereas transactional behavior was displayed only "sometimes" (mean = 2.08, SD = 0.33). Results gained from the 91 Thai subordinates went in the same direction, that was, their Australian leaders exhibited transformational patterns of behavior between "sometimes" and "fairly often" (mean = 2.43, SD = 0.55), while transactional patterns of behavior was seen only "sometimes" (mean = 2.01, SD = 0.44).

As expected, the results shown in Table 5.18 indicated that laissez-faire leadership was reported by both groups as the least frequent behavior displayed by Australian managers (Australian managers mean = 0.53, SD = 0.45; Thai subordinates mean = 0.94, SD = 0.70).

With regard to the leadership factors, the mean scores of the five transformational factors, rated by Australian managers and Thai subordinates[5] (see Table 5.18), were 2.89 (2.58) for idealized influence attributed, 2.95 (2.51) for idealized influence behavior, 3.09 (2.42) for intellectual stimulation, 3.07 (2.69) for inspirational motivation, and 3.13 (2.05) for individualized consideration. The mean scores of the three transactional factors were 2.94 (2.33) for contingent reward, 2.12 (2.40) for

---

[5] Mean scores obtained from the Thai subordinates are presented in parentheses.

management-by-exception (active), and 1.18 (1.31) for management-by-exception (passive).

Considering the leadership outcomes, the results indicated that Australian managers perceived themselves as effective leaders (mean = 2.99, SD = 0.46), "fairly often" used extra effort (mean = 2.80, SD = 0.58), and were satisfied with their leadership styles (mean = 2.93, SD = 0.49). Similar conclusions were drawn from the responses of Thai subordinates although there were some differences in that the ratings were lower for each of the three outcomes (mean = 2.55, SD = 0.69 for effectiveness; mean = 2.40, SD = 0.82 for extra effort; mean = 2.60, SD = 2.60, SD = 0.81 for satisfaction).

Table 5.18: The mean, standard deviation and t-test for MLQ mean scores comparing Australian self-ratings with Thai subordinates ratings classified by transformational leadership, transactional leadership, non-leadership, and leadership outcomes.

Leadership Factors/ Outcomes	Australian Managers N = 47		Thai Subordinates N = 91		t-value	p (two tailed)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	2.89	.55	2.58	.65	3.35	0.001
Idealized Influence (Behavior)	2.95	.63	2.51	.74	2.91	0.004
Intellectual Stimulation	3.09	.52	2.42	.67	5.93	0.001
Inspirational Motivation	3.07	.56	2.69	.63	3.47	0.001
Individualized Consideration	3.13	.56	2.05	.75	8.64	0.001
Contingent Reward	2.94	.63	2.33	.68	5.12	0.001
Management-by-Exception (Active)	2.12	.68	2.40	.69	-2.23	0.027
Management-by-Exception (Passive)	1.18	.61	1.31	.75	-1.04	0.296
Laissez-Faire	.53	.45	.94	.70	-4.15	0.001
Effectiveness	2.99	.46	2.55	.69	4.42	0.001
Extra Effort	2.80	.58	2.40	.82	3.33	0.001
Satisfaction	2.93	.49	2.60	.81	2.97	0.004

Note Each scale ranged from 0 = "Not at all"; 1 = "Once in a while"; 2 = "Sometimes"; 3 = "Fairly often"; to 4 = "Frequently, if not always."

5.4.3 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AUSTRALIAN MANAGER SELF-RATINGS AND THAI SUBORDINTE RATINGS

T-tests were conducted to compare Australian managers' and Thai subordinates' perceptions of the leadership factors and the set of outcome performances. The results shown in Table 5.18 were calculated from Australian managers' ratings of themselves and their Thai subordinates' ratings. The t values for the five factors of transformational leadership were idealized influence attributed, $t = 3.35$ ($p < 0.01$); behavior, $t = 2.91$ ($p < 0.01$); intellectual stimulation, $t = 5.93$ ($p < 0.01$); inspirational motivation, $t = 3.47$ ($p < 0.01$); individualized consideration, $t = 8.64$ ($p < 0.01$). These results indicated that Australian managers assessed themselves as exhibiting the five transformational factors to a significantly greater degree than assessed by their Thai subordinates.

In term of the transactional leadership factors, the t values presented in Table 5.18 indicated that there were significant differences between Australian managers and Thai subordinates' perspectives in contingent reward ($t = 5.12$, $p < 0.01$) and active management-by-exception ($t = -2.23$, $p < 0.05$). Only in passive management-by-exception were no significant differences found between Australian managers and Thai subordinates' perspectives ($t = -1.04$, $p = 0.296$). Although both samples agreed that Australian managers displayed laissez-faire less than "once in a while" (mean = 0.53 for Australian leaders, mean = 0.70 for Thai subordinates), there was a significant differences in perspectives from both samples. The t value of -4.15 ($p < 0.01$) indicated that Thai subordinate perceived their leaders exhibited a non-leadership style more frequently than the Australian leaders perceived themselves.

The results given in Table 5.18 also indicated that the leadership behavior exhibited by Australian managers had significantly less influence on subordinates' effectiveness, extra effort, and satisfaction than they expected. The t value of 4.42 (p < 0.01) indicated that Thai subordinates' assessment of their Australian leaders' effectiveness was significantly less than Australians assessed themselves. The t value of 3.33 (p < 0.01) indicated that Australian leaders, rated by their subordinates, used extra effort significantly less frequently compared with how the leaders rated themselves. With regard to the satisfaction of leadership styles displayed by Australian managers, the t value of 2.97 (p < 0.01) showed that Australian managers, compared with their subordinates, were more significantly satisfied with their leadership behavior.

5.4.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP FACTORS AND THEIR OUTCOMES

Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was employed to test the significant relationships between the leadership factors as a set of independent variables and the leadership outcomes as a set of dependent variables. The correlation results are given in Table 5.19.

The correlation matrices presented in Table 5.19 seem to confirm the results of studies of relationships between the eight leadership factors and the set of leadership outcomes reported by Bass and Avolio (1997). That was, the five transformational factors were, generally, more highly positively correlated with the three leadership outcomes, such as effectiveness, extra effort, and satisfaction, when compared to transactional and non-leadership factors.

Table 5.19: Pearson Correlations Among MLQ (5X) Scores Based on Leader and subordinate Ratings and Alpha coefficients of each sub-scale

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. II Attributed	2.89	.55	.70											
	2.58	.65	.63											
2. II Behavior	2.95	.63	.70**	.61										
	2.51	.74	.46**	.49										
3. IS	3.09	.52	.53**	.56**	.58									
	2.42	.67	.54**	.41**	.62									
4. IM	3.07	.56	.58**	.71**	.53**	.76								
	2.69	.63	.63**	.61**	.49**	.60								
5. IC	3.13	.56	.55**	.47**	.24**	.43**	.64							
	2.05	.75	.68**	.41**	.58**	.54**	.68							
6. CR	2.94	.63	.51**	.59**	.51**	.57**	.28ns	.77						
	2.33	.68	.73**	.47**	.57**	.70**	.69**	.64						
7. MBE (Active)	2.12	.68	.01ns	.06ns	-.05ns	.03ns	-.08ns	-.06ns	.65					
	2.40	.69	.23*	.32**	.27**	.26*	.17ns	.30**	.57					
8. MBE (Passive)	1.18	.61	-.35*	-.35*	-.32*	-.31*	-.33*	-.33*	.10ns	.52				
	1.31	.75	-.10ns	.01ns	-.18ns	-.18ns	-.09ns	-.10ns	.05ns	.40				
9. LF	.53	.45	-.36*	-.33*	-.28*	-.32*	-.43**	-.25ns	-.07ns	.55**	.54			
	.94	.70	-.27**	-.02ns	-.34**	-.24*	-.29**	-.23*	-.21*	.42**	.66			
10. EF	2.99	.46	.44**	.41**	.51**	.44**	.27ns	.34*	.12ns	-.34*	-.33*	.68		
	2.55	.69	.75**	.44**	.59**	.66**	.64**	.67**	.33**	-.28**	-.36**	.72		
11. EE	2.80	.58	.62**	.60**	.39**	.48**	.23ns	.49**	.10ns	-.41**	-.34*	.49**	.67	
	2.40	.82	.72**	.52**	.41**	.61**	.62**	.70**	.25*	-.29**	-.33**	.76**	.73	
12. SAT	2.93	.49	.67**	.46**	.50**	.48**	.41**	.56**	-.14ns	-.35*	-.40**	.53**	.48**	.54
	2.60	.81	.71**	.73**	.51**	.40**	.58**	.58**	.12ns	-.28**	-.32**	.69**	.68**	.75

Note: *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed, p< 0.05) ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed, p< 0.01). ns = not significant. Each factor was rated on the 5-point scale from 0 (not at all) to 4 (frequently, if not always). Alpha coefficients are reported in boldface along the diagonal. First values in each column show correlations from Australian expatriate self-rating (N = 47) and second values in each column show correlation from Thai subordinate rating (N = 91).

Nuttawuth Muenjohn
The effect of culture on the leadership behavior of Australian expatriate managers in Thailand

In this study, the five transformational factors were significantly positively related with the three leadership outcomes in both samples (r values ranged from 0.39; $p < 0.01$ to 0.67; $p < 0.01$ for the Australian sample and from 0.40; $p < 0.01$ to 0.75; $p < 0.01$ for the Thai sample), in the exception of the non significant relationships between individualized consideration and effectiveness and extra effort in the Australian sample. The results in Table 5.19 also indicated that the contingent reward factor was significantly positively related with the three outcomes. This pattern of relationship was observed for both the Australian and Thai samples outcomes (r-values ranged from 0.34; $p < 0.05$ in the Australian sample to 0.70; $p < 0.01$ in the Thai sample). In particular, the strongest significant relationships of contingent reward were found with satisfaction in the Australian sample (r = 0.56; $p < 0.01$) and with extra effort in the Thai sample (r = 0.70; $p < 0.01$).

Contrary to the above leadership factors, active management-by-exception was not significantly related to most of the three leadership outcomes in the both samples. The only significant positive relationships were found in the Australian sample between the active management-by-exception factor and effectiveness (r = 0.33; $p < 0.01$) and extra effort (r = 0.25; $p < 0.05$).

Considering the relationships between the inactive leadership behaviors and outcome performances, both the management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire factors were significantly negatively correlated with all of the three outcomes reported by both samples (r values ranged from –0.28; $p < 0.01$ in the Thai sample to –0.41; $p < 0.01$ in the Australian ratings). The strongest negative relationships were found between passive management-by-exception and extra effort (r = -0.41; $p < 0.01$) and laissez-faire factor and satisfaction (r = -0.40; $p < 0.01$) both relationships reported in the Australian sample.

5.5 THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE FOUR CULTRUAL DIMENSIONS AND LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS

In this section, an investigation was conducted to explore the relationships between the four cultural dimensions and the three major leadership behaviors by using data from the Thai subordinate reports. The four cultural dimensions, power distance, individualism, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance, were identified as independent variables, while each of the transformational, transactional, and non-leadership behavior was given as dependent variables. A series of the multiple regression analyses was conducted separately to test the extent to which the variance in each of the three leadership behavior can be explained by the four cultural dimensions.

Before conducting the multiple regression analysis, Pearson's correlation was employed to provide an overview of the relationships between the four independent variables and the set of dependent variables. Table 5.20 showed the correlation results of the independent and dependent variables in this study. The results suggested that most of correlations between the independent and dependent variables were not significant. In fact, there were no significant relationships between transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership and the four cultural dimensions, with the exception of a significant correlation between the power distance dimension and transformational leadership (r value = .34, $p < 0.01$).

Table 5.20: Correlations between the four cultural dimensions among transformational, transactional, and non-leadership behavior

Variable	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-Faire
Transformational	1.00		
Transactional	.48**	1.00	
Laissez-Faire	-.32**	.01	1.00
Power Distance	.34**	.13	-.23
Individualism	-.04	-.02	-.11
Masculinity	.05	.10	-.07
Uncertainty Avoidance	.12	.08	-.13

Note: *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two tailed, p< 0.05). **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two tailed, p< 0.01).

5.5.1 THE MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR AS A DEPENDENT VARIABLE

To test the extent to which the variance in transformational leadership behavior, as a dependent variable, can be explained by the four cultural dimensions, as the set of independent variables, a multiple regression analysis was conducted. The following multiple regression equation was adopted:

$Y_{tf} = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + B_3X_3 + B_4X_4,$

Where Y_{tf} = Transformational leadership behavior

B_0 = constant (coefficient of intercept)

X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4 = Power distance, Individualism, Masculinity, Uncertainty avoidance

$B_1,...,B_4$ = regression coefficients of X_1 to X_4

To predict the goodness of fit of the regression model, the multiple correlation coefficient (R), R Square (R^2), and F ratio were examined (see Table 5.21). The Multiple R of .358 indicated that the set of cultural dimensions had positive relationships to transformational leadership behavior. The value of R^2 (.128) was the variance in transformational leadership accounted by the four cultural dimensions. The F ratio of 3.169 was statistically significant at the 0.05 level.

In effect, the model suggested that 12.8 percent of the variance in transformational leadership behavior was significantly explained by the four independent dimensions. However, it should be noted that the variance explained was small, and 87.2 percent of the variance in transformational leadership was explained by other independent variables which was not included in the multiple regression equation. To determine which independent variable/s in the multiple regression equation was a significant predictor of the transformational leadership, beta coefficients were examined.

Table 5.21 reported that the power distance dimension was an only significant predictor of transformational leadership behavior ($B_1 = .326$, $p < .05$) while the other three dimensions were not (individualism: $B_2 = -.070$; masculinity: $B_3 = .061$; and uncertainty avoidance: $B_4 = .081$). The beta value of the power distance dimension indicated that when the cultural dimension was changed, transformational leadership also positively changed.

Table 5.21: The results of multiple regression analysis of Transformational leadership as a dependent variable

Variables	Betas
Power Distance	.326*
Individualism	-.070
Masculinity	.061
Uncertainty Avoidance	.081
Multiple R	.358
R-square (R^2)	.128
Adjusted R^2	.088
F ratio	3.169
Significant F	.018*

Note: *Significant level at the 0.05

5.5.2 THE MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR AS A DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Table 5.22 reported the results of the multiple regression analysis of the four cultural independent variables and the transactional leadership dependent variable. The equation for transactional leadership based on the four cultural dimensions was assumed as the following equation:

$$Yta = \beta_0 + B_5X_1 + B_6X_2 + B_7X_3 + B_8X_4,$$

Where Yta = Transactional leadership behavior

β_0 = constant (coefficient of intercept)

X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4 = Power distance, Individualism, Masculinity, Uncertainty avoidance

$B_5,...,B_8$ = regression coefficients of X_1 to X_4.

Again, to predict the goodness of fit of the regression model, the R, R^2, and F ratios were examined (see Table 5.22). The multiple R of .198 indicated a weak positive relationship between the set of cultural dimensions and transactional leadership. The R^2 value of .039 and the F ratio of .875 at the non-significant level suggested that the set of independent variables had little and non-significant importance in contributing to transactional leadership behavior. When the beta coefficients were examined, it showed that each of the four variables was not a significant predictor of the transactional dependent variable.

Table 5.22: The results of multiple regression analysis of Transactional leadership as a dependent variable

Variables	Betas
Power Distance	.113
Individualism	-.122
Masculinity	.162
Uncertainty Avoidance	.058
Multiple R	.198
R-square (R^2)	.039
Adjusted R^2	-.006
F ratio	.875
Significant F	.483

5.5.3 THE MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR AS A DEPENDENT VARIABLE

The following multiple regression equation was employed for laissez-faire leadership behavior as a dependent variable:

$$Ylf = \text{\ss}o + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + B_3X_3 + B_4X_4,$$

Where Ylf = Laissez - Faire leadership (non-leadership behavior)

$\text{\ss}o$ = constant (coefficient of intercept)

X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4 = Power distance, Individualism, Masculinity, Uncertainty avoidance

$B_1,...,B_4$ = regression coefficients of X_1 to X_4.

The results were similar to those in the transactional leadership regression model. That was, the value of R^2 (.080) and the F ratio of 1.872 at non-significant level suggested that the variation in laissez - faire leadership was not significantly explained by the four independent dimensions. The beta coefficients also suggested that all of the independent variables were not significant predictors of the laissez – faire leadership dependent variable.

Table 5.23: The results of multiple regression analysis of Laissez - Faire leadership as a dependent variable

Variables	Betas
Power Distance	-.229
Individualism	-.146
Masculinity	.042
Uncertainty Avoidance	.100
Multiple R	.283
R-square (R^2)	.080
Adjusted R^2	.037
F ratio	1.872
Significant F	.123

5.6 SUMMARY

The results of the analyses were presented in this chapter. It included the analysis of the demographics of both samples and presented the results found in this study. Their meaning and implications are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

After the patterns of research results found in this study were presented in chapter 5, chapter 6 aims to discuss those findings by comparing the results with the previous studies which were reviewed in chapter 2 and providing some reasons or assumptions to explain the nature of the findings. The chapter is organized into five major sections: first, the four cultural values of the Thai subordinates; second, the leadership behavior of Australian managers; third, the differences in perceptions of leadership behavior between Australian superiors and Thai subordinates; fourth, the relationships between leadership factors and leadership outcomes; and finally, the influence of culture on transformational, transactional, and non-leadership behaviors.

6.2 THE FOUR CULTURAL DIMENSIONS

The results of the four cultural dimensions given in Table 5.5 indicated that Thai subordinates in this study appeared to score high on power distance, medium on uncertainty avoidance, low on masculinity, and also low on individualism when compared with the overall mean scores (see overall mean in Table 5.5). These results, therefore, were generally in accord with the representation of their national culture presented in the Hofstede' study (1980; 1984). That was, the Thai respondents in both studies tended to

experience a society with a large power distance, having medium uncertainty avoidance, living in a feminine society, and being a collectivistic people.

However, when the scores of the four cultural dimensions reported by the Thai subordinates and the Hofstede (1984) original scores of Thailand were compared directly, the results indicated that Thai subordinates in this study experienced a higher distance relationship with their superiors, felt more comfortable with unpredictable situations, and placed more value on a feminine style of management culture than the Thai respondents in the Hofstede study (1980; 1984). Similar differences between the two studies were found on the individualism dimension (see Table 5.5). The differences between Thai subordinates in this study and the Thai respondents in Hofstede's study (1980; 1984) might be explained by three major potential reasons.

The first reason was the differences in the sample characteristics on which the two studies were based such as sex, age, education, and managerial level. According to Hofstede (1984), the respondent demographics were significantly related to the scores of the four dimensions and several previous studies subsequently reported different scores for the different samples in the same country (see for example, Nicholson and Stepina, 1998; Singh, 1990).

Considering the Hofstede study (1980; 1984), most of respondents were men and education ranged from unskilled workers to Ph.D. researchers. However, the current study surveyed roughly equal numbers of men and women (men 48.4%, women 51.6%). Furthermore, it seemed that the educational profile of the Thai respondents in this study suggested that they had received more education than the average Thai citizen. While only 5 percent of the Thai labor force had a university education (Appold, Siengthai, and Kasarda, 1998), 83.5 percent of the Thai respondents in this study had at least a Bachelor

degree or better. Since this study also examined the relationship between the dimension scores and the respondent demographics, a further discussion of these relations will be given in later sections.

The second potential reason was that the time difference of around thirty years in collecting data between the Hofstede and current studies might also have caused differences in the four dimension scores (Hofstede started collecting data in 1967). Over the thirty years, several factors in Thai society such as the economic situation or movement of the Thai people have changed. In particular, national wealth was identified by Hofstede (1980) as significantly influencing the individualism and power distance dimensions in the direction of increasing national wealth was associated with increasing individualism but a decreasing power distance value.

Thirty years ago, the national wealth in Thailand was based primarily on an agricultural sector. For the last decade, however, an industry sector had grown at a rapid rate and thus significantly stimulated the overall economy. Thailand was one of few countries in Asia reported by the World Bank as having the world's fastest growing economy between 1985 and 1994 with an average GDP growth of 8.2% during the decade (anonymous, 1997). Consequently, the changes in the Thai economy could have contributed to some of the differences in the scores in the current study.

The third reason was that there might be other factors that influenced Thai subordinates' values when operating under foreign managers and surrounded by a foreign organizational culture. It was generally accepted in previous literature that, in the same country, organizational culture was associated with the national culture since people normally transferred their values from outside into their organizations (e.g. Hofstede, 1997). Most of companies in

this study were Australian subsidiaries managed by Australian managers that, according to Hofstede (1980), represented a totally different cultural background from that of the Thai society. Therefore, the value of Thai subordinates' scores might be affected when they worked under Australian superiors and within an Australian organizational culture. The impact of Australian superiors' working styles and organizational culture on Thai subordinates is discussed in a later section.

In the next four sections, Thai subordinates' cultural values are discussed in the sequence of the four dimensions. The discussion is based on the results given in the previous chapter and also provides possible assumptions that may explain the differences on the three cultural dimensions between the two studies.

6.2.1 POWER DISTANCE

The power distance score in this study indicated that the values of the Thai subordinates who worked under the Australian managers exhibited a higher distance in power when compared with Hofstede's original Thailand score (see Table 5.5). Since the power distance dimension was described as reflecting the interpersonal power between a superior and subordinate (Hofstede, 1984), it appeared that the Thai subordinates in this study tended to lean more upon the Australian managers for their leadership than the Thai employees represented in the Hofstede survey. It also indicated that the Thai subordinates seemed to expect and desire their Australian superiors to use privileges and status symbols to show the power of being a "leader".

Not surprisingly, when Thompson (1981) conducted his research, he found that most of the Australian expatriates lived in a larger house, had an air conditioned car, chauffeur and servants and that Thompson (1981) saw that Australian expatriates were probably living better lifestyles than they would have in Australia. Perhaps, these "visible signs" or exercising their authority power to their subordinates might be necessary and important for them as showing the status of being the "boss", particularly in Thailand.

In addition, a large distance in status between Thai subordinates and Australian expatriates in this study might be explained by the perceptions of the Thai employees toward foreign bosses. A study by Fisher and Hartel (1999) indicated that the Thais identified the racial background of expatriate managers as having a significant impact on the success of expatriate managers in Thailand.

According to Fisher and Hartel (1999), some Asian or African expatriates were perceived by the Thais as having difficulty operating in Thailand because many people of these countries who came to Thailand were unskilled or poorly educated workers. By contrast, the Thais perceived "Farang" (white people) expatriate managers, who came from developed countries, as supposed to have a higher managerial skill and more business experience than them. Therefore, it was reasonable to say that "Farang" superiors, such as the Australian expatriates in this study, were likely to be easily accepted in a "boss" role and having a different social status by their Thai subordinates.

The unequal status between superiors and subordinates in this study were also indicated by the results of the "employee afraid" item. The larger differences in status the more frequently subordinates were afraid of disagreeing with their boss (Hofstede, 1984). Reflecting this value, the results

showed that Thai subordinates were unlikely to disagree with their Australian superiors.

This could relate to the nature of superior-subordinate relationships in the Thai culture. In Thailand, Thai superiors were seen by subordinates as the unquestioned people (Komin, 1990). They, within their authorities, generally did not hesitate to exercise power without consulting subordinates (Fieg, 1989). Consequently, Thai subordinates were not only unable to give assertive criticism and challenge the authority of their boss but were also supposed to respect and be obedient to their superiors in order to be an effective subordinate in Thailand (Charoenngam and Jablin, 1999). As an Australian expatriate in this study also experienced:

> *"In Thailand, I ask for their points of view and they don't have any...people said yes we do that...(because) you are "farang". You are boss. You're in charge so it is your decision."*

It was not surprising when most of the Australian managers in this study were perceived by Thai subordinates as usually consulting with their subordinates before making decisions (see "perceived manager" item). Previous literature had suggested that Australian managers generally tended to encourage subordinates to participate in decisions making and provided subordinates with decision-making responsibilities (e.g. Berrel, Wright, and Van Hoa, 1999; Sarros and Santora, 1994). One Australian expatriate attempted to encourage their Thai subordinates:

> *"I told them...I need to be challenged, sometimes, from a different point of view and I have no problem with being challenged from the different point of view, even in our meeting of junior staff...and I tried to encourage them to challenge me."*

The consultative style displayed by Australian managers in this study might also be reflecting the Australian national values of low power distance (Hofstede, 1980). In a low power distance culture in a country such as Australia, superior and subordinate tended to respect each other as having equal status and rights. Subordinates, therefore, were expected to be involved or contribute to problem solving in their work situation (Berrel et al., 1999). Therefore, Australian expatriates might also bring this decision-making style with them when working with Thai subordinates.

Hofstede (1980) argued that there was a significant correlation between the mean score of "employee afraid" and the mean percentage of "prefer manager" items in his study. That was, in a country where most employees were perceived as afraid, like Thailand, they tended to prefer managers who used an autocratic or paternalistic style. These relationships seemed to be supported by this study since the paternalistic manager was selected as the most popular style by Thai subordinates.

Fieg (1989) argued that in Thai organizations, the relationship between superiors and subordinates seemed to be more paternalistic than those found in the western societies. Superiors and subordinates in Thailand often found themselves involved in each other's personal lives. Even in some cases, they might assist each other in solving a personal problem, as if they were members in the same family. Therefore, several authors already suggested that in order to be effective superiors in Thai organizations, managers were supposed to be both a "leader" and "good father" at the same time (e.g. Edwards et al., 1995; Charoenngam and Jablin 1999; Thompson, 1981). Some Australian expatriates experienced this expectation:

> "I know a lot more about his personal life (Thai
> staff) than I would probably care to know or be
> expected to know.., yes, in Australia."

> *"yes..I know the partners and nephews and boyfriends of all of my staff, except for one...everything, and they always want to meet my husband too."*

When the power distance scores were grouped by sex in this study, the results showed that females were likely to score higher on the power distance than male subordinates. As mentioned before, power distance was related to the superiors-subordinate relationships. Therefore, it might be assumed that the power distance score could be influenced by the quality of the superior-subordinate relationships. In other words, good relationship between superiors and subordinates not only bring superiors and subordinates closer but also minimize the inequality of status between them.

In this respect, Appold et al. (1998), who conducted a study of the employment of women in Thailand, found that the Thai women subordinates had significantly poorer relationships with their direct supervisors than their men counterpart. Therefore, if the assumption that a good quality relationship reflected the scores of power distance was true, it could be one of the reasons to explain why the women had a higher power distance value than the men subordinates in this study.

The result of power distance scores on ages showed an extremely high score within the group of Thai subordinates who were aged below 30 years old, then a dramatic decline in the older groups (see Figure 5.1). These findings indicated that when the Thai subordinates became older, the inequality in the superior-subordinate relationship tended to become smaller. It also revealed that the younger subordinates tended to be more obedient to their superiors than the older groups (see Table 5.12, "employees afraid"). Furthermore, Thai subordinates in young age groups also perceived their actual superiors to be

more paternalistic, while few of the older ages held that view ("perceived manager"). By taking the points together, it might be assumed that the experience of working with more paternalistic superiors could lead the young subordinates to develop a higher power distance value than older groups. Obviously, this hypothesis needs to be investigated further.

The relationship between the power distance scores and educational level showed that the direction of the power distance value decreased with increasing educational levels (see Figure 5.2). It suggested that Thai subordinates who had a higher education required more independence in the working environment than the lower educated subordinates. The results appeared to support the findings of a negative relationship between education and power distance proposed by Hofstede (1980; 1984). Hofstede (1980; 1984) found a strong negative correlation ($r = - 0.90$) between education and power distance within country groups. In other words, the lower educated employees tended to produce higher scores on power distance than the higher educated employees. In addition, the results also revealed that Thai subordinates who had a higher education tended to be involved more in their superiors' decision making than the Thai subordinates who had lower educational backgrounds (see Table 5.13).

The pattern of responses of the power distance dimension on managerial levels was similar to the results on education. That was, there was a constant decrease in the power distance scores with the increasing managerial levels of Thai subordinates (see Figure 5.3). These results indicated that the Thai subordinates who had more managerial experience tended to show a lower power distance value when compared with the Thai subordinates who had less working experience. The fact that lower-status employees tended to hold more authoritative values was also reported by Hofstede (1980). He found that

"lower-status occupations" tended to produce higher power distance values than "higher-status occupations".

6.2.2 UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE

The results of the uncertainty avoidance scores reported by the Thai subordinates suggested that Thai subordinates' values in this study were grouped into a medium range of uncertainty avoidance but to a lower degree than the Thai respondents represented in the Hofstede (1980) survey (see Table 5.5). It indicated that Thai subordinates who worked with Australian expatriates tended to feel more comfortable with unfamiliar risks or situations than their national representatives (Hofstede, 1980; 1984).

Australian working styles and organizational cultures might be one of the potential reasons that influenced Thai subordinates in this study to exhibit less uncertainty avoidance than those in the Hofstede study. Australia was not only lower on power distance but also weaker on uncertainty avoidance than Thailand (Hofstede, 1980; 1984). This could be explained by the fact that Australian managers were risk-takers (MacKay, 1993) and often open to innovative ideas (Sarros et al., 1992). Furthermore, they also tended to occupy themselves more with strategic planning techniques than routine work (Berrell et al., 1999). These characteristics of Australian managers, according to Hofstede (1980), demanded a greater tolerance for ambiguity than normal operations. In addition, the flexibilities usually expected to be found in Australian organizations could lead Australian managers to be less concerned with rules and regulations (Westwood and Posner, 1997).

According to Schein (1996), leaders strongly influenced organizational culture, so did subordinates. Therefore, by working under Australian superiors and being surrounded by flexible organizational cultures, Thai subordinates might have absorbed these values from Australian superiors and thus be encouraged to take risks more easily and feel more comfortable with unpredictable situations than they would when working under Thai superiors.

Thai subordinates in this study agreed that rules and instructions should be followed strictly to avoid any uncertainty situations (see Table 5.7 "rule orientation"). This implied that, for Thai subordinates, the rules and instructions should be cleared in order to control the work processes and duties of both superiors and subordinates. This proposition was also supported by the findings of Noypayak and Speece's study (1998) when they found subordinates' performance in Thai organizations tended to increase if superiors attempted to create mutual understanding and arouse their subordinates to work according to the rules.

As mentioned in chapter 2 (section 2.2.3.2.2), apart from the "rule orientation" item, the "stress" and "employment stability" items also played an important role in evaluating the uncertainty avoidance index. When considering the three items in this study together, although the Thai subordinates in this study wanted company rules to be respected, they sometimes experienced stress at work and most of them did not want to have a long-term career with their current companies[6] (see Table 5.7). Therefore, this might be a reason to explain why the Thai subordinates' values in this study fell into the moderate level of uncertainty avoidance.

---

[6] See "employment stability" 62.2 percent intended to work with current companies less than 5 years.

The results on the "employment stability" item raised an interesting point. That was, during the period of this study, the economic shakedown took place in Thailand, known as "Tom Yum Goong disease". Many Thai organizations, both public and private, had been forced to shut down or re-organize which led to a wide spread concern with job security among Thai employees. Contrary to the economic situation, 62.2 percent of Thai subordinates intended to have only short-term employment with the current company. This could be explained by the fact that the economic slump in Thailand might not significantly influence foreign subsidiaries, particularly Australian organizations in Thailand. Furthermore, it was also a sign of warning to Australian expatriate managers that employee turnover might become one of major management problems in the near future.

The results of the uncertainty avoidance score on sex showed that there was no clear difference in the scores between the male and female respondents in this study. Both genders scored medium on the uncertainty avoidance index (see Table 5.10). However, when considering the "employment stability" item, the female subordinates in this study appeared to have more employment stability than their men counterparts (see Table 5.11). These results was contrary to Hofstede's assumption (1980) when he proposed that women tended to have less employment stability than men because of their role in families.

The increase of employment stability of females found in this study could be something to do with the changing role of women in the Thai workforce during the last twenty years. Traditionally, women, according to Lawler (1996), were viewed as subservient to men in Thai society and expected to play a subordinate role in organizations. Furthermore, educational opportunities tended to be more limited for women than for men in Thailand. However,

these large inequalities no longer really exist. Nowadays, according to Appold et al. (1998), women constitute 46.7 percent in Thai work force, representative 22.2 percent on the management or professional levels and over half of the recent university graduates were women. As a result of the increasing participation of women in the Thai workforce, Thai women probably are more concerned about their career future now than the past.

The results for uncertainty avoidance of Thai subordinates showed little differences among the three age groups (see Figure 5.1). The findings generally suggested that the young, middle, and old age groups seemed to have a medium level of the uncertainty avoidance values. However, when the three items were examined separately, it was noted that the differences in the uncertainty avoidance index on age was related to the employment stability item. In other words, older Thai subordinates intended to have had longer-term careers with their current companies than younger age groups (see Table 5.12 "employment stability"). The findings seemed to be supported by Hofstede's statement that older employees not only intended to but also changed employers less frequently than younger employees (Hofstede, 1980).

The results presented in Figure 5.2 showed the differences in the uncertainty avoidance scores between the low educational and the other two groups. The lowly educated subordinates in this study scored relatively high on the uncertainty avoidance dimension, while there was no differences on the scores between the middle and highly educated subordinates (see Figure 5.2). It suggested that the Thai subordinates who had low educational background seemed to have a higher level of anxiety and were more fearful in the face of ambiguous situations when compared with the higher educated subordinates.

The results given in Figure 5.3 showed a high score on uncertainty avoidance among the Thai subordinates who were at the executive level. Thai subordinates in this group also showed a highest rule orientation (see Table 5.14: rule orientation "strongly agree" and "agree" = 90.9%). Taken the two points together, it suggested that Thai subordinates who were among the top of their organizations tended to avoid unusual and unstructured situations as much as possible by attempting to minimize these situations by creating formal rules and following them strictly.

Considering the career stability of the Thai subordinates in this study, it was understandable that Thai subordinates who were at a high level in organizations in executive positions intended to have long-term career commitments with their current companies, while most of Thai subordinates among the staff and manager groups intended to work for the current companies less than five years (see Table 5.14 "employment stability"). This was because there was probably no need to change jobs frequently for those who had already succeeded in their career, as they had reached the top of their organizations.

6.2.3 MASCULINITY

The masculinity score given in Table 5.5 appeared to confirm Hofstede's (1980; 1984) belief that Thai people lived in a feminine rather than masculine society but the dominant values of Thai subordinates working with Australian expatriates placed stronger values on the feminine side than the respondents in the Hofstede study. The differences between two studies might be explained by the number of men and women represented in both studies since

the gender of respondents were related to the masculinity score (Hofstede, 1984). In the Hofstede study, most respondents were men while the current study represented nearly equal number of men and women. Therefore, it could be expected that the sample of Hofstede's study would produce higher score on the masculinity index than the sample in this study.

The low masculinity score of the respondents in this study could be interpreted to mean that Thai subordinates placed strong values on smooth interpersonal relationships and the quality of life such as pleasure and having a good time. On the other hand, the sense of competition, achievement, and acquisition of money were unlikely to be a high priority for the Thai subordinates. Consequently, it was suggested that Australian managers should provide some levels of a "sanuk" (fun, pleasure) environment in the workplace if they wanted to get the best out of Thai subordinates. According to Thompson (1981), this "sanuk" environment could be used to boost loyalty as was found among some of long established companies among the Thai employees. An Australian expatriate confirmed this point:

> *"In Australia, ...getting the job done is important...where here, may be, getting the job done isn't as important as having a good time, being a friend with each other, that sort of thing."*

Investigating the masculinity score on genders of the respondents in the current study, the results, not surprisingly, indicated that the female subordinates who worked under Australian superiors appeared to have much more feminine values than male subordinates (see Table 5.10). The results on the masculinity items showed that female subordinates produced higher mean scores on the items representing the femininity pole than males (see Table 5.11: "security" and cooperation"). By contrast, male subordinates reported higher mean scores on the items representing the masculinity value than

female (see Table 5.11: "earning" and "advancement"). These results seemed to provide an evidence to support Hofstede' findings that the advancement and earning items seem to be more important to males while the cooperation items was more important to females.

The examination of the masculinity index across age groups indicated that the masculinity scores decreased with age (see Figure 5.1). The young age group produced the highest score on the masculinity index, followed by the middle age group. The Thai subordinates among the old age group scored lowest on this dimension. As a result of this, it can be said that when Thai subordinates became older, they tended to show more values associated with femininity than masculinity. This point was endorsed when investigating the "advancement" item. The results of this item indicated that Thai subordinates worried about an opportunity for advancement at an earlier age, losing this as age increased (see Table 5.12). It was understandable that old employees tended to be less interested in employment advancement as they reached the final stage of their career while, young employees, who have probably just entered the workforce, tended to seek opportunity for advanced to higher levels in their organizations.

The results of the masculinity score on educational levels showed that the lowly educated subordinates scored lowest on this dimension while there was no difference on the masculinity score between the medium and highly educated subordinates (see Figure 5.2). Among the masculinity items, there was an interaction between the mean scores of the two items, "advancement" and "cooperation", and the educational levels of Thai subordinates. That was, scores on "advancement" and "cooperation" increased with education (see Table 5.13). In other words, the higher the educational level of Thai

subordinates, the higher the opportunity for advancement and the higher level of cooperation from colleagues the Thai subordinates required.

When the masculinity score based on the managerial levels of Thai subordinates was examined, the results showed that Thai subordinates who were in the manager positions appeared to be more decisive, assertive and competitive than other groups (see Figure 5.3). This could be implied from investigation of their responses on the masculinity items. They placed more importance on the opportunities for higher earning, and advancement (see Table 5.14: mean scores of both items were lowest = more important) and were less concerned with cooperation among colleagues than other two groups (see Table 5.14: "cooperation" highest mean score = least important).

Considering the relationships between the masculinity items and managerial levels, it was found that only the mean score of the security item seemed to relate to the managerial levels of Thai subordinates in this study. That was, the managerial levels related to the importance of employment security in the direction of decreasing employment security with higher managerial levels (see Table 5.14: "security"). This meant that the Thai subordinates who were at staff level seemed to be the most concerned with the security of their careers and this concern declined from the manager to executive levels. It also suggested that the more successful they were the more Thai subordinates felt secure in their career.

6.2.4 INDIVIDUALISM

Thai subordinates in this study scored low on the individualism dimension confirming little difference between the Thai respondents in this study and those in Hofstede's study (see Table 5.5). The results, therefore, appeared to confirm Hofstede's belief that Thailand was classified into a group of societies with low individualism or high collectivism scores.

With regard to the individualism items, Thai subordinates in this study tended to place more value on the items representing collectivism ("physical condition" and "cooperation") than individualism ("personal time" and "desirable area"). They considered working with colleagues who cooperated well with them was most important while living in a desirable area was least important. There was no difference between the personal time and physical condition working values reported by Thai subordinates (see Table 5.9).

In general, the results could be interpreted, according to Hofstede (1980; 1984), that Thai subordinates who worked with Australian expatriates tended to be aware of the distinction individuals made of relationships between "our groups" and "other groups". As a consequence of this particular value, it was very normal for Thai subordinates to treat "our groups" members better than "others group". Australian expatriates, therefore, are recommended to create trust and increase subordinates' loyalty by becoming a member of their subordinates' "our groups". Australian expatriates also suggested that their Thai subordinates tended to produce better outcomes when they worked within group rather than operating individually.

In addition, there was tendency for Thai subordinates to maintain harmony over conflicts by using smooth resolution strategies such as a compromise method. More importantly, Australian expatriates are advised that direct criticism which cause their subordinates' losing of face should be avoided at all costs. One Australian expatriate superior agreed:

> "I found that many Thai people prefer an indirect approach (indirect criticism)... because they are always used to an indirect approach...whereas in Thai, it seems to me that many people seem to be, because of losing of face and things like that, the indirect approach always seems to be more important."

The results on this dimension raised an interesting point that while Thai subordinates emphasized collectivistic values, Australians managers were known as privacy-oriented (Berrell et al., 1999) and highly valued individual achievement and individual interests (Harrison, 1995). Perhaps, the differences in attitudes might lead to a difficulty for Australian expatriates in understanding their Thai subordinates when working together. Australian expatriates, therefore, are recommended to understand that in a collectivist country such as Thailand, subordinates expected the superior-subordinate relationships to be an extension of family relationships (Hofstede, 1980; 1984). Australian expatriates were supposed to look after both the working and personal life of subordinates in exchange for their loyalty. At the least, overlooking this requirement could become a major obstacle in superior-subordinate relationships and lead to a negative impact on both superiors and subordinates' performance.

The results of individualism scores based on the genders of Thai subordinates suggested that both male and female subordinates valued themselves as collectivist employees (see Table 5.10). However, females seemed to place

more value on their own self-interests than male subordinates. In addition, both genders seemed to be concerned about working with cooperative colleagues. Females appeared to require more private time while males considered good working conditions more important. There was no difference in opinion on living in a desirable area (see Table 5.11).

The results showed no clear differences on the individualism score between the young and middle age groups but the score appeared to drop after 39 years of age (see Figure 5.1). These findings suggested that Thai subordinates at any age valued themselves as being group-oriented, but became more collectivist after reaching forty years of age.

According to Hofstede (1980), the impact of age on the individualism index was ambiguous. In his examination, only "personal time" and "physical condition" items seemed to increase with age while other two items were unlikely to relate with age groups of the respondents. However, the results in this study seemed to suggest otherwise, that was, there was a tendency for Thai subordinates as they became older, to be concerned about having personal time, a good working environment, cooperative colleagues, and a desirable area of living (see Table 5.12).

The results for the individualism score when classified by educational levels showed that the Thai subordinates with the lowest educational backgrounds appeared to have more values associated with individualism than their higher education counterparts (see Figure 5.2). This can be seen when the items' results showed that having a desirable area became less important while working with cooperative colleagues became more important with increasing education (see Table 5.13).

Finally, the individualism score on managerial levels showed that Thai subordinates who were employed in manager positions valued individual interest higher than the staff and executive levels (see Figure 5.3). They showed more concern for items associated with individualism and were less concerned with the items representing collectivist values when compared with the lower and higher managerial levels (see Table 5.14).

In summary, section 6.2 aimed to identify the cultural values of Thai subordinates who worked with Australian expatriate managers. The results, based on the Hofstede (1980; 1984) four dimensions, suggested that Thai subordinates in this study appeared to accept the large inequality existing between superior-subordinate relationships, feel moderately comfortable in ambiguous situations and facing unfamiliar risks, placed more important value on feminine compared with masculine attributes, and showed more values associated with collectivism than individualism. In general, the Thai subordinates' culture found in this study seemed to conform to that presented in the Hofstede survey.

However, the differences between the two studies on the three dimensions, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity, were explained by such factors as the sample demographic differences and time differences in collecting the data. In addition, Australian management styles and organizational cultures were also believed to contribute to the differences between the two studies. The results of the analysis of the four cultural dimensions based on sex, age, education, and managerial levels of Thai subordinates were also discussed.

6.3 LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR

The results of the analysis of the leadership behaviors of Australian managers in this study allowed us to draw conclusions regarding: first, the degrees of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors that Australian expatriates exhibited while working in Thailand; second, the differences in perspectives between Australian managers and their Thai subordinate on the leadership styles; and third, the associations between the leadership factors and the set of leadership outcomes.

However, before discussing the three conclusions given above, the validity of the MLQ's factor construct should be considered. The results of the confirmatory factor analyses at the item level demonstrated that the nine-factor model was the best reflection of the data in the current study when compared with two other models. In fact, the model was considered as a "reasonable fit" to the data.

These findings seemed to be consistent with the results of the Bass and Avoilo (1997) examination in some aspects: (a) the nine factor model appeared to be the best theoretical construct representing the latest form of the MLQ whether it was tested with the large sample in the Bass and Avolio study (n = 1,394) or small sample in the current study (n = 138); (b) although some leadership factors were highly correlated with each other, such as among the five factors of transformational leadership and between the management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire factors, these factors still distinctly measured their own leadership constructs. This could be seen when combined the leadership factors into a single factor model (global leadership model), and three-factor model (transformational, transactional, and non-leadership

model), the results of overall fit was lower than the nine-factor model (full leadership model).

While previous research provided different results from the current study (e.g. Tepper and Percy, 1994; Yammarino and Dubinsky, 1994; Tracey and Hinkin, 1998; Bycio et al., 1995), there were some points of those studies that should be noted cautiously. First, these studies employed different versions of the MLQ that contained a number of different items. Second, many of the studies used older versions of the MLQ. Third, some studies used a subset of the total items (Bycio et al., 1995; Tepper and Percy, 1994; Den Hartog et al., 1997) and, according to Himkin and Tracey (1999), some provided an inadequate justification. Last, most studies targeted only the transformational leadership factors rather the full range of leadership model (nine leadership model).

In summary, after acknowledging the MLQ criticisms by refining several versions of the instrument, the most recent version of the MLQ, Form 5X (Bass and Avolio, 1997), seemed to be success in adequately capturing the leadership factor constructs of transformational leadership theory. Therefore, this should provide researchers with confidence, to some certain extent, in using the MLQ to measure the nine leadership factors representing transformational, transactional, and non-leadership beahviors.

6.3.1 LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR OF AUSTRALIAN EXPATRIATE MANAGERS

The results of this study indicated that Australian expatriate managers demonstrated both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. However, the predominant leadership behavior identified by both Australian managers and their Thai staff was that of transformational leadership behavior. The high frequency ratings for the five factors of transformational leadership suggested that Australian expatriates tended to emphasize behaviors to motivate their subordinates to perform at a higher level by: being role model, inspiring their followers, offering intellectual challenges, paying attention to individual development, and transcending their subordinates' self-interest for a higher collective purposes. Generally, leadership behaviors displayed by Australian expatriate managers in this study were in line with most studies conducted in Australia that suggested that Australian leaders were likely to display the behaviors associated with transformational more frequently than transactional leadership (e.g. Parry and Sarros, 1996; Adamson, 1996; Thite, 1999).

Among the five factors of transformational leadership, individualized consideration, as Australian expatriates perceived themselves, was the most frequently reported leadership behavior while the idealized influence attribute was the least frequently exhibited behavior by Australian expatriates (see Table 5.18). This further suggested that Australian expatriates in this study perceived themselves as specifically concentrating their behaviors on coaching and recognizing each of their subordinates based on individual uniqueness while leadership behaviors associated with role

modeling and creating subordinates' trust or respect were displayed in a lesser degree compared with other factors.

Individualized consideration leaders referred to those who gave personal attention to their subordinates and treated each subordinate according to his/her needs. This leadership behavior was identified as an important issue in providing subordinates with learning opportunities (Coad and Berry, 1998) and long-term development (Bass and Avolio, 1997). Subordinates having this kind of leaders tended to be coached, work harder, feel supported by, and respected by their leaders (Jung et al., 1995; Dubinsky et al., 1995; Coad and Berry, 1998).

Individualized consideration seemed to be an important leadership behavior of Australian managers. Parry and Sarros (1996) reported that individualized consideration was found to be a sub-factor of charisma leadership behaviors. This implied that for Australian managers to be seen as effective charismatic leaders, they had to display the leadership behaviors associated with individualized consideration. Sarros and Butchatsky (1996) also suggested that to become effective managers in Australia, the managers needed to involve themselves with their followers' individual treatment and development. An Australian expatriate also recommended the used of individualized consideration leadership behavior in Thailand:

> *"The most important thing probably is to show that you are a good person who thinks about them a lot. So, you have to show a lot of consideration toward them and things like let them know that the things that you do are to try to help them overtime."*

A reason explaining why the Australian expatriate managers in this study exhibited a high frequency of transformational leadership behavior could

relate to the demographic background of the Australian expatriates represented in this study. As results showed in Table 5.1 and 5.2, most Australian expatriates held positions at the senior executive level in their organizations (70.2%) and were well educated (80.9% had at least a Bachelor degree or higher). This indicated that they not only well trained through their formal education, but also have had long practical experience in supervisory, management, and leadership development. Transformational leadership is a high level of leadership behavior. The leadership behavior involves changing subordinates' attitudes, beliefs, and values rather than focusing on the current needs of subordinates (Bass, 1985). Through their trainings and management experiences, Australian managers, therefore, might be able to develop leadership behaviors to achieve a high level of transformational leadership.

When examining the results of transactional leadership factors in this study, one interesting finding was the high scores of Australian expatriates on the categories of contingent reward and management-by-exception (active). The mean scores of the two transactional factors were rated significantly higher in both samples when compared with the MLQ norm scores established by Bass and Avolio (1997, p. 53) and even higher than some factors of transformational leadership[7].

The high levels of contingent reward behavior suggested that the Australian managers in this study often provided the clear structures and standards for the job tasks and desired goals which they expected Thai subordinates to perform and achieve. With this, they also communicated to Thai subordinates

---

[7] The MLQ norm was an average score of the leadership factors completing by 2,080 associates ratings from a variety of business, industrial, nursing, military, and professional organizations (see Bass and Avolio, 1997). In this study, Contingent reward was rated higher than idealized influence in the Australian sample and individual consideration in the Thai sample. Management-by-exception (active) was rated by Thai subordinates higher than individual consideration.

how successful performance of those tasks or goals could lead to receipt of desirable job rewards (Bass, 1985; 1997a; Bass and Avolio, 1997). Thai subordinates working with these Australian managers tended to become more confident about meeting their role requirements and fulfilling their immediate needs (Dubinsky et al., 1995; Geyer and Steyrer, 1998). Dorfman et al. (1997) noted that by recognizing and providing rewards for good performance, contingent reward managers seem to be appreciated by subordinates worldwide, regardless of their cultures.

Australian managers were also reported to show a high level of management by exception active behavior. This implied that Australian managers were seen as spending a considerable amount of time in actively searching for mistakes and irregularities and taking action immediately when those irregularities or mistakes were identified (Bass, 1997a; Bass and Avolio, 1997). This kind of leadership behavior was expected to allow Australian managers to arrange solutions probably in advance or at least immediately after problems or mistakes were tracked.

Previous literature suggested that leaders who displayed high levels of transactional leadership indicated only the basic level of leadership competency (Bass, 1985; 1997a; Bass and Avolio, 1997; Parry, 1996). Although the transactional leadership behaviors could achieve expected subordinates' performance outcomes, particularly contingent reward, several shortcomings existed. Concentrating on transactional leadership behaviors, Australian managers needed to ensure that they had power or authority to deliver the promised rewards otherwise Thai subordinates would lose their trust and respects for Australian managers and that would lead to long-term damage in their relationships.

In addition, Australian managers who focused on transactional leadership were likely to expect only a short-term change in their subordinates' performance, rather than providing learning experiences that would assist subordinates' long-term development (Bass and Avolio, 1997; Densten, 1999). Relying on transactional leadership such as controlling subordinates by telling them what to do or do not do, prevents the occurrence of an opportunity for subordinates to learn from their mistakes.

Several reasons could be given for high levels of contingent reward and management-by-exception (active) behavior displayed by Australian expatriates in this study. In terms of contingent rewards, again, the majority of the Australian respondents in this study (70.2%) were at the top level in their organizations (e.g. CEO, director, or vice president). It seemed that they had formal authority and autonomy to negotiate and ability to provide rewards to enhance their subordinates' performances. In particular, when they worked, as expatriates, geographically far from their home countries' head quarters, they were likely to have a higher degree of autonomy to use and adjust the exchange-rewards with their subordinates (Muenjohn and Armstrong, 2000).

As noted by Thompson (1981), "there does seem to be a quite high degree of autonomy (of Australian expatriates) probably more autonomy than managers of a similar operating division would have in Australia" (p.145). As a result, it was possible that Australian expatriate managers in this study might use the contingent reward leadership more often since they believed that they would have both the position's authority and autonomy to deliver the promised rewards to their Thai subordinates.

Another potential reason was that the Australian managers, as expatriates, had a specific period of time to work on overseas assignments. In the case of Australian expatriates, most companies aimed for period of 3 or 4 years (Thompson, 1981). Therefore, within this timeframe they needed to produce 'visible' outcomes or performances, such as sales volumes and profit figures, that were easily evaluated by their headquarters. Consequently, the Australian expatriates might take management shortcuts by setting agreements in exchange for rewards to enhance subordinates performance. This was because contingent reward usually worked well with a short-term objective (Bass and Avolio 1997).

The next possible reason that reinforced the contingent reward behavior of Australian expatriates might be linked to the masculine approach of the Australian management style. Australian managers tended to represent a masculine approach (Hofstede, 1984; Westwood and Posner 1997) by focusing their attentions toward task or result orientations (Linehan and Walsh, 1999). In particular, male respondents were the majority group representative Australian manager in this study (87.2%), and were expected to be more assertive and competent (Hofstede, 1984).

Bass et al., (1996) believed that the contingent reward behavior was strongly associated with leaders who focused mainly on task orientation. By taking these points together, an emphasis on being task-oriented might encourage Australian managers to exhibit high levels of contingent reward leadership behavior.

Apart from contingent reward, the management-by-exception (active) of Australian managers was also reported more frequently compared with the MLQ norm, particularly from the perspectives of Thai subordinates. One

potential assumption explaining the results might relate to the Thai tradition of polite behavior or 'Keang Jai' behavior (see chapter two section 2.2.3.2.4). That was, the 'Keang Jai' behavior could be seen by foreigners as Thais usually showing extreme "care for others' feelings" (Komin, 1990).

This kind of behavior also applies to the Thai working environment. For example, Thompson (1981) noted that Thai subordinates were likely to pretend to understand an instruction given by their bosses even though they actually did not understand, or Thai subordinates did not want to tell their superiors when something went wrong. They preferred to tell you what superiors want to hear. This was because, according to Thompson (1981), it was a part of the polite behavior of Thai people to keep unpleasant news from their bosses as far as possible. The Australian expatriate managers in this study agreed with this point:

> *"if I were working in Australia, I would expected my staff to come to me and they would as a matter of course, come to me. They have problems and concerns in relation to how a particular project is progressing whereas my Thai staffs are less likely to bring those problems and concerns to my attention. I need to very much stay focused in relation to what they're doing and observe without imposing myself on them but I very much need to observe from the distance how they're going and I would more regularly have to get involved to ensure that the problems would be overcome."*

> *"Managing Thai staff here, I often don't really know what they're thinking. I may say something and they may agree with me or say yes. But I'm not sure that they really mean yes or no...here, when I say something they may agree with me whether they agree with me or not. You never know."*

Therefore, this pattern of behavior from Thai subordinates might encourage Australian expatriates in this study to be aware of monitoring and controlling more closely when dealing with Thai subordinates and that could help them to ensure that their subordinates really understood their instructions. And if something went wrong, they could immediately take the required actions without waiting for Thai subordinates' reports.

Another reason was that Australian managers might have a difficulty in getting Thai subordinates to accept individual responsibility for their jobs so that Australian managers were forced to "be monitoring more than would be necessary in Australia" (Thompson, 1981, p.66). As an Australian manager mentioned:

> "...in Australia, in my particular industry..., the staff is very very aggressive. They want to show that they can do everything and anything for overtime and so they try to take a lot more responsibility. Whereas, the Thais, I must say, my Thai staff is less likely to just take responsibility for something. They expect me to delegate to them."

However, a lack of individuals' responsibility by Thai employees was sometimes misunderstood by expatriates in Thailand, particularly those who came from the individualistic countries like Australia. As mentioned earlier, Thai people were group orientated and thus they tended to work effectively as a team (Hofstede, 1984; Cooper, 1991). Therefore, the responsibilities for outcomes were more likely to be held by the group not the individual. By contrast, Australian managers valued an individual approach (Hofstede, 1984). They, therefore, believed that individuals needed to make their own decisions and accept the full responsibility for the results.

Based on these differences in their attitudes, there was a tendency for Australian expatriates to perceive their Thai subordinates as unwilling to

accept full "individual" responsibility as they expected. The misinterpretation of a lack of individual responsibility by their subordinates, therefore, could encourage Australian expatriates actions to focus more on monitoring their subordinates' performance.

In summary, Australian managers in this study practiced both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. They were reported to exhibit transformational leadership more frequently than transactional behavior. Individualized consideration and idealized influence attributed were the most and least frequent among transformational leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian managers respectively. However, the significantly high levels of contingent reward and management-by-exception (active) ratings also suggested that Australian expatriate managers in this study not only displayed high frequencies of transformational behavior but also emphasized their behaviors of negotiating, monitoring, and controlling their Thai subordinates.

6.3.2 DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVES OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR BETWEEN AUSTRALIAN MANAGERS AND THAI SUBORDINATES

In terms of self-subordinate ratings on the leadership factors, the results showed that Australian expatriates perceived themselves as demonstrating more transformational leadership than they were perceived to be doing by their Thai subordinates (see Table 5.18). In other words, their transformational characteristics of role models, motivators, providers of experiential learning, negotiators, and particularly carers on one-to-one relationships were perceived by their Thai subordinates to be less strongly

exhibited. Moreover, the findings revealed that Australian expatriates also overrated themselves on the outcome factors by seeing themselves as more effective, increasing more satisfaction and extra effort from their subordinates than did their Thai subordinates. The results in this study appeared to be consistent with the self-inflation on transformational leadership observed by Bass and Avolio (1997) and found in other studies (e.g. Adamson, 1996; Atwater and Yammarino, 1992).

The most significant difference on the transformational leadership factors between the perceptions of Australian expatriates and their Thai subordinates was on the individualized consideration factor (see Table 5.18). In fact, while Australian expatriates rated this factor as their strongest transformational behaviors, Thai subordinates rated their Australian managers lowest on this factor. In other words, Australian expatriates perceived themselves to be highly considerate of the individual differences and developments of their subordinates but their Thai subordinates did not consider Australian expatriates to be quite as considerate as they perceived themselves.

A potential explanation for the significantly different perspectives on the individualized consideration factor is that Thai subordinates perhaps required a more intensive amount of individual treatment than Australian leaders expected. As previously noted, in Thailand, superiors were expected to give attention to their subordinates not only in the workplaces but also to become involved in their subordinates' personal lives (Leppert, 1996; Klausner, 1993). In contrast to the Thai situation, Australians valued individual independence (Hofstede, 1984). Australians were supposed to take care of themselves and they often separated their working from their personal lives (Avery et al., 1999). As an Australian manager found out:

> *"yes, in Australia if you work with somebody you don't really have to find out too much more about them, and may be they don't want to tell you too much about them anyway. You just get the work done...where here I think you have to be a bit familiar with everyone and find out more about them."*

Given these differences, Australian expatriates might underestimate the importance of giving attention to the personal side of their Thai subordinates. Thus, individual attention given only in the workplace might not fulfill Thai subordinates' expectations.

When the results of the self-subordinate ratings in this study were disaggregated into the four categories of the self-other rating model proposed by Yammarino and Atwater (1997), Australian expatriates in this study were classified as "over-estimators". That was, self-raters whose evaluations of themselves were significantly higher than by others. Individuals in the over-estimator category, according to Yammarino and Atwater (1997), tended to be poorer performers and less effective managers or employees when compared with the other three categories, namely in-agreement/poor, in-agreement/good, and under-estimator.

However, it does not imply that Australian expatriates "actual" performance and effectiveness were poorer than expected standards, rather than Australian expatriates could improve their performance when feedback from others was provided. Therefore, gaining information from other ratings, such as those by their Thai subordinates, could enhance the accuracy of Australian expatriates' self-evaluations and shift the over-estimators towards becoming leaders in the "in-agreement/good" category who were "ideal and most effective leaders" (Yammarino and Atwater, 1997). Australian expatriate managers need to

understand how Thai subordinates perceived their leadership behaviors and whether they are different from their own perceptions. To answer these questions, Australian expatriates, therefore, should include subordinates' feedback with their own self-evaluations to improve self-perception accuracy. Not only would this help Australian expatriates develop or maintain appropriate leadership behaviors, but also increase the effectiveness of overall organizational outcomes.

6.3.3 THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS AND LEADERSHIP OUTCOMES

The findings of the correlation between leadership behavior and its outcomes in this study showed that the transformational leadership factors were highly related to all of the leadership outcomes. Generally, the behavior associated with the transformational leadership of Australian expatriate managers had stronger positive associations with getting subordinates to do more than they expected (extra effort), working with subordinates in satisfactory ways (satisfaction), and being effective as group leaders (effectiveness) than transactional and non-leadership. This finding seemed to provide additional evidence to support the "Full Range of Leadership Model" in which Bass and Avolio (1997) proposed that the five factors of transformational leadership tended to be more effective than the transactional and non-leadership factors.

The success and effectiveness of expatriate managers seemed to depend heavily on how their leadership behaviors were perceived by subordinates in the host country (Selmer et al., 1994). Form the Thai subordinates' point of views, idealized influence attributed was the strongest leadership factor

related to the outcome variables. In fact, idealized influence attributed was perceived by Thai subordinates as being the most effective leadership behavior, the most relevant leadership behavior in increasing their willingness to try harder, and the most second satisfied leadership behavior.

Idealized influence attributed was believed to be the highest level of transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1997). This leadership behavior existed when leaders provided a good role model for their subordinates, put aside their own self-interest for the good of the organization, and showed strong determination in the pursuit of goals. Consequently, the leaders tended to have a high level of their subordinates' trust, respect, and admiration, and subordinates want to emulate them (Bass and Avolio, 1997; Dubinsky et al., 1995; Coad and Berry, 1998). Two Australian expatriates felt the same way as their subordinates:

> "I think you need to earn that leadership, particularly as the foreigner…. I think I have to earn the right to lead, in my view."

> "Here, in order to be the good leader, your subordinates have to trust you and believe in you and that sort of things."

Australian and Thai followers seemed to have a similar point of view in this respect when Parry (1996) suggested that role modeling was one of the most important characteristic of effective leaders in Australia. According to Parry (1996), Australian leaders who create followers' trust and respect by "leading by example" could gain full support and loyalty from their followers. This further suggested that although Australian and Thai subordinates differed in their cultures (Hofstede, 1984), they agreed that effective leaders needed to engaged their behaviors by creating trust and respect, and being role model.

While idealized influence attributed was perceived by Thai subordinates as the most effective of the leadership behaviors, this leadership behavior, as previously noted, was reported by Australian expatriates to be the least frequently demonstrated among the transformational leadership factors. This suggested that the importance of role modeling and trust creating characteristics were underestimated by Australian expatriates in this study. This leads to the importance of self-other appraisals in leadership evaluation. Without subordinate feedback, Australian managers would not know the potential contribution of idealized influence attributed to managing performance improving.

Apart from transformational leadership factors, the results indicated that transactional contingent reward was also positively associated with the outcome variables, while management-by-exception-active had no significant relationship with these outcomes. As mentioned earlier, Australian expatriates in this study appeared to more frequently practice contingent reward and management-by-exception (active) than the MLQ norm. When considering the relationships of these types of leadership behaviors with the outcome variables, contingent reward behavior tended to produce positive outcomes, particularly when reported by Thai subordinates, while management-by-exception (active) had either none or a weak, even sometimes negative, impact on Thai subordinates' work performance.

As a result of this, it is suggested that Australian expatriates might maintain their goal setting and exchanging of reward behaviors when managing their Thai subordinates, while behaviors associated with monitoring and controlling were to be avoided or reduced by Australian expatriate managers who intend to work in Thailand. Perhaps, Thai subordinates would not appreciate their leaders exhibiting high levels of monitoring and controlling

behaviors since they were identified as feminine employees who usually appreciated a cheerful atmosphere, such as one that was easygoing, peaceful, and free from the feeling of compulsion (Komin, 1990). Consequently, Australian leaders should be wary of using this type of transactional leadership with their Thai subordinates.

Considering inactive leadership behaviors, management-by-exception-passive and laissez-faire leadership were found to have a strong negative relation to the three leadership outcomes. Similar to subordinates around the world (see Bass and Avolio, 1997), Thai subordinates perceived Australian managers, who failed to interfere until problems became serious and avoided responsibility, to be ineffective and dissatisfied leaders.

In summary, section 6.3 aimed to discuss the nature of the results concerning the leadership behaviors of Australian expatriates in Thailand and its influence on performance outcomes by investigating their behaviors from both Australian expatriates' and Thai subordinates' perspectives. The results revealed that Australian expatriates in this study, similar to elsewhere, more frequently demonstrated transformational than transactional leadership behaviors. In particular, the individual differences of their Thai subordinates seemed to be recognized by Australian expatriates.

Furthermore, Australian expatriates in Thailand also paid attention to exchanging of rewards, monitoring, and controlling their Thai subordinates. The inflation of Australian expatriates' self-evaluation suggested that Australian expatriates needed information or feedback from their Thai subordinates to improve or maintain appropriate leadership behaviors. In addition, it is suggested that Australian expatriate managers concentrate on behaviors associated with transformational leadership, and are seen by their

Thai subordinates as enhancing performance outcomes such as effectiveness, extra efforts, and the satisfaction. In particular, good role modeling was an important leadership behavior recommended for expatriate managers who wish to lead Thai subordinates effectively while, as expected, management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire leadership should be avoided at all cost. The findings also suggested that it was not necessary for Australian expatriates to focus their behaviors on keeping monitoring and controlling on their subordinates, while reward exchanging could be useful for improving subordinates' performance.

6.4 THE RELATIONAHIPS BETWEEN FOUR CULTURAL DIMENSIONS AND LEADERSHIIP BEHAVIORS

The findings of multiple regression analyses indicated that the variance in transformational leadership exhibited by Australian managers was significantly explained by the four cultural values of Thai subordinates but accounted for only a small portion of variance. In fact, power distance was the only significant predictor of transformational leadership. When transactional and non-leadership were separately included as dependent variables in the regression models, the results showed that each of the four cultural dimensions not a significant predictor of either type of leadership behavior (see Beta weights in Table 5.22 and 5.23). Taken together, the results could imply that the Thai subordinates' four cultural values had a very limited effect on the leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian managers, but other variables, which were not included in the regression models, possibly had stronger effects.

The results in this study seemed in contrast to previous literatures on expatriate leadership behaviors and expatriate adjustments when they suggested that the cultural values of subordinates in a host country played a strong role in determining the appropriate and effective leadership behaviors of expatriate managers (e.g. Selmer, 1997; Katz and Seifer, 1996; Gopalan and Rivera, 1997; Earley and Erez, 1997). Much of this literature tended to suggest that to be more effective in leading subordinates in the host country, expatriate managers must learn and understand the host country's national culture and be able to adopt the appropriate leadership behaviors consistent with that culture. For example, expatriate managers who were assigned to a country with high power distance would have to be trained to behave autocratically or adopt directive leadership behavior in order to maximize effectiveness and acceptance among subordinates in the country, while in a country with low power distance leaders should learn participative leadership behavior to be effective (Katz and Seifer, 1996; Earley and Erez, 1997).

Generally, the belief that cultural differences could influence, to some extent, the degrees of acceptance of or satisfaction with leadership behaviors among subordinates in different countries was well reported by several studies (e.g. Dorfman et al. 1997; Campbell et al., 1993; Ah Chong and Thomas, 1997). Most of these studies evaluated one or more leadership behaviors in attempting to find out how followers in different cultures perceived which leadership behaviors were appropriate or more effective in their countries. Their findings often came to a conclusion that differences in leadership behaviors were culturally-based.

With respect to the above belief and supported by the results, this study suggested that leadership is neither a culture-free phenomenon nor is there a need for expatriates to improve their understanding of a host country's

national culture. Rather, it confirmed the argument that the extent to which cultural values can influence the leadership behaviors exhibited by expatriate managers is dependent on a particular kind or theory of leadership behavior (Dorfman, 1996) and the level of leadership analysis being investigated in each study (Chemers, 1997). This argument is connected to the controversy in cross-cultural leadership regarding emic versus etic perspectives, where the former referred to cultural relativism, arguing for a culture-specific leadership approach, while the letter implied an universal leadership approach (Dorfman, 1996).

Dorfman (1996) argued that some particular kinds of leadership behaviors were likely to transfer well across cultures and exist in many cultures while others might be varied in different countries. This argument was confirmed by the author's subsequent empirical study when six leadership behaviors were examined across five countries (Dorfman et al., 1997). The study reported that three leadership behaviors, supportive, contingent reward, and charismatic, were cultural universal while directive, participative, and contingent punishment leadership behaviors were cultural specific.

The universality of supportive, contingent reward, and charismatic leadership behaviors could be understood when considering the contents of the leadership behaviors. Supportive leaders tend to show their concerns and pay more attention to their subordinates' problems and developments. Contingent reward leaders also show appreciation for their subordinates' performance and recognize them with rewards. For charismatic leadership, the leaders instill clear and strong visions and increase self-confidence for their subordinates. These kinds of leadership behaviors are likely to be appreciated by followers around the world. However, when these universal leadership behaviors are practiced from one culture to another, specific expressions or

actions of these leadership behaviors might vary according to cultural constraints (Earley and Erez, 1997; Smith et al., 1995; Dorfman, 1996). For example, supportive leaders may express their concerns in different ways or contingent reward leaders may provide different kinds of recognition or rewards to gain subordinates' acceptance when the leaders manage subordinates in different cultures.

The current study explored the possible influence of subordinates' cultural values on the transformational leadership behaviors exhibited their superiors. Transformational leadership, as previously noted, raises subordinates' awareness of the importance and value of desired outcomes, stimulates subordinates' views of their work from new perspectives, develops subordinates to higher levels of their ability and potential, and motivates subordinates to transcend self-interest for the good of the organization (Bass and Avolio, 1997).

To achieve these results, transformational leaders often display five key characteristics, namely idealized influence both attributed and behavior, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration. The characteristics involve being a good role model, showing determination in the pursuit of mission, encouraging subordinates to come up with new ideas to solve the old problem, providing a high expectation to enhance subordinates' efforts to attain the objectives, and giving subordinates' personal attention and building a considerate relationships with each individual subordinate. These kinds of leadership behaviors, according to Bass (1997b), are the ideal leadership behaviors for subordinates across countries or cultures.

Transformational leadership helps to increase subordinates' satisfaction, enhance their effort, and being more effective has been reported by several studies whether the studies were conducted in Asia (e.g. Singer and Singer, 1990), North America (e.g. Sosik, 1997), Europe (e.g. Geyer and Steyrer, 1998), and Asia Pacific (e.g. Ingram, 1997). In addition, when transformational leadership was conducted in comparative cross-national studies, it also showed that the attributes associated with transformational leadership were seen as contributing to outstanding leadership worldwide, regardless of the respondents' cultural backgrounds (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Transformational leadership could be seen as one aspect of a universal leadership model (see Figure 6.1). The model was developed as a result of reviewing the seminal works in cross-cultural leadership literature such as Bass (1997b), Dorfman (1996), and Den Hartog et al. (1999).
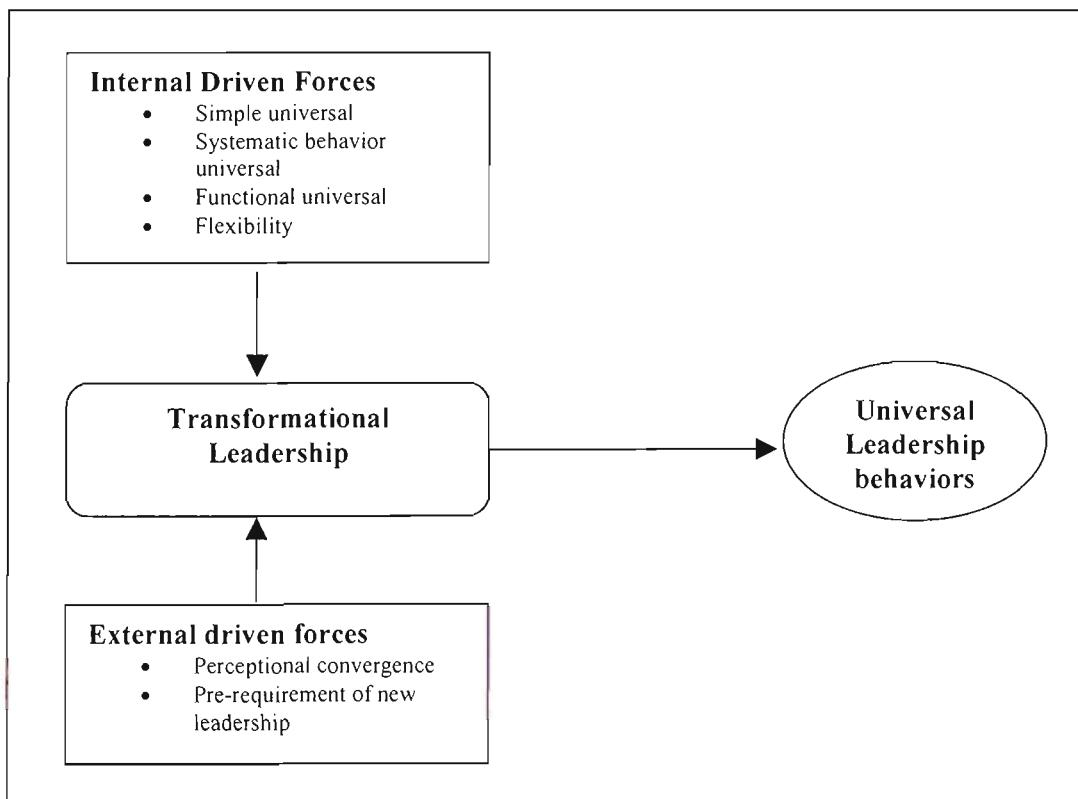
Figure 6.1: The universality of the transformational leadership model

The model presents two important forces in enhancing the universality of transformational leadership: internal and external driven forces. The internal driven force refers to the contents or attributions that operate within transformational leadership in contributing to universal leadership. These contents or attributions include four components: simple universal, systematic behavior universal, functional universal, and flexibility. The second factor is an external driven force representing the external environment forces that help to boost the preferences of transformational leadership worldwide. These forces are the convergence of subordinate's perceptions of leadership (perception becoming more alike) and the pre-requirement for effective leaders in a global management era.

For the internal driven forces, this study supported the contention that the universality of the transformational leadership is associated with three different types of universal phenomena. Firstly, transformational leadership was consistent with the type of *"simple universal"* that was described as a phenomenon which is constant throughout the world. In this regard, it could be explained by the findings in this study that both Australian managers and Thai subordinates perceived the behaviors associated with transformational leadership, regardless of their cultures, as the most desired leadership behaviors when compared with the other two leadership behaviors (see Table 5.19).

Secondly, the type of *"systematic behavioral universal"*, explaining the relationship about "if-then" outcomes across cultures, also can be found within transformational leadership. For example, the findings of this study revealed that the same patterns of the relationships between the nine leadership factors and the performance outcomes were found in both the Australian and Thai samples. Although Australian expatriates and Thai subordinates had

different cultural backgrounds, both groups of respondents held the same perception that if a leader exhibited transformational leadership behaviors, he or she seemed to be perceived as more effective, satisfied, and increasing extra effort than the three factors of transactional leadership and a non-leadership factor.

In addition, the type of *"functional universal"* seems to exist within transformational leadership. The functional universal existed when laissez-faire leadership behavior produced the same results in terms of its outcomes in both the Australian and Thai samples. Leaders who frequently avoided responsibilities or making decisions were perceived by Australian expatriate managers and Thai subordinates as ineffective and dissatisfying leaders, regardless of their cultures.

Apart from the three types of universality described above, the flexibility of transformational leadership is included to represent the internal driven force in the model. The term "flexibility" in this study refers to an ability to practice both the participative and directive styles of transformational, transactional, and non-leadership behaviors. This internal force was based on the assumption of Bass and Avolio (1993; and Bass, 1997b) when they proposed that transformational, transactional, and non-leadership could be either directive or participative depending on situational conditions (see table 2.12).

In some cases, the flexibility of the three leadership behaviors might allow leaders to adapt their behaviors to conform to the requirement of their subordinates' culture. For example, the results in this study showed that Thai subordinates tended to prefer managers who showed behavior associated with a directive style to those who practiced a participative style (see table 5.6 PDI Q3 "prefer manager"). This complements the Thai culture characteristics on

the dimension of a high power distance (see table 5.5). Therefore, with a high power distance cultural situation, Australian expatriate managers might adjust their management styles by exhibiting the three leadership behaviors that are more associated with directive than participative styles of leadership and this may explain why Australian expatriates' leadership behaviors were not effected by the culture.

Although the contents of transformational leadership appear to be universal, this study believed that other external environment forces also contribute, to some extent, to the universality of transformational leadership behavior. The first external force is the convergence of subordinate' perception of leadership worldwide. There is a tendency for powerful forces, such as information technology, to drive the world toward a converging commonality (Levitt, 1995). The flow of information resulting from modern informational technology is transferred, nowadays, easier or speedier than in the past. Therefore, people around the world are more able to get the desired information directly or indirectly from all corner of the world by using the modern technology.

This informational technology, according to Ohmae (1994), not only internationally transfers information or communication but also is supposed to carry people's perceptions from one country to another. As a result of this, it seems that people's perceptions tend to become more alike on many phenomena, such as the perception of ideal leadership behaviors. This might be explained by the facts that, for example, the idealized influence behavior of leaders in Western cultures, such as President John F. Kennedy, are admired by people in Eastern cultures. Similarly, Eastern leader, such as Mahatma Gandhi's inspirational behavior, are adored by followers around the world. Therefore, it is not surprising if expatriate managers and their host

subordinates, the respondents in this study with different cultural values, were to hold similar perceptions of "ideal" or "unwanted" leadership behaviors among them.

The underlying assumption of the second external force is that the pre-requirement for effective leaders is nowadays becoming more alike across cultures. In the 21st century, according to Bass (1997b) and Sarros and Butchatsky (1996), leaders are required, regardless of their cultural backgrounds, to emphasize their behaviors of providing a vision of the future, encouraging innovative ideas or perceptions, coaching the development of individual capability, and empowering their followers, to be seen as successful or effective leaders. All of these behaviors were central to transformational leadership (Bass, 1997b). Therefore, to be effective leaders in the new century, McFarlin and Sweeney (1998) noted:

> *"the most successful international manager in the future will be a transformational leader...This suggests that managers around the world should be trained to become transformational leaders" (p. 155).*

With no exception, Australian expatriates who were seen as international managers were required to meet this requirement by developing their leadership behaviors to be consistent with transformational leadership.

In summary, interpreting the findings in this study, it may not be appropriate to conclude that the nature of leadership behaviors should be totally treated as an universal phenomenon. This study believed that the degrees of cultural values influencing leadership behaviors depended on how ones defined leadership behaviors. When leadership behaviors were captured by transformational leadership, the findings tended to suggested that culture seemed to play a limited role with this kind of leadership behavior. The universality of the transformational leadership model proposed in this study

severed as a basic explanation and contribute to a better understanding of how the internal and external forces contributed to the near universalistic position for transformational leadership.

6.5 WHY SHOULD TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BE PRACTICED BY EXPATRIATE MANAGERS?

Strong competition in international markets has increased the demand for multinational corporations (MNCs) to send managers to manage their operations in a host country. However, there is evidence that MNCs have suffered from the significant rates of premature return of their expatriate managers (Katz and Seifer, 1996). In fact, it was estimated that one third of expatriate managers returned prematurely before completing their overseas assignments (Baliga and Baker, 1985). Some of the reasons that were often cited for expatriate failure included poor selection criteria, lack of training, and inability of adjustment to the new business or cultural environment (Stanek, 2000; Harvey and Novicevic, 2001). The failure of expatriate managers on overseas assignments not only cost MNCs in terms of the productivity and operational efficiency of their international operations (Baliga and Baker, 1985) but sometimes also increased the turnover rate among these expatriate managers (Adler and Bartholomew, 1992).

Therefore, to avoid possible failure and enhance expatriate competency, several researchers have proposed a wide range of specific criteria that could effect the success or failure of expatriate managers (e.g. Ali and Camp, 1996; Stanek, 2000; Harvey and Novicevic, 2001; Adler and Bartholomew, 1992).

The most often mentioned criteria critical to expatriate success were cross-cultural awareness, managerial competence, past experience, technical expertise, communication and interpersonal skills, ability to adapt to a new environment, and ability to view the world from different points of view. However, since many expatriate managers in overseas operations often hold position at senior level and need to deal with the local employees, some authors believe that expatriates' leadership ability is one of the prerequisite factors that contribute to the success of expatriate managers (e.g. Katz and Seifer, 1996; Fish and Wood, 1997). Indeed, the leadership development of expatriate managers is described as a one of core requirements of global competency (Harvey and Novicevic, 2001).

In general, it was suggested that subordinates' cultural values in the host countries tended to be one of the major factors determining the leadership styles of expatriate managers (Katz and Seifer, 1996; Gopaland and Rivera, 1997). What was valued by subordinates in one country or culture, in terms of leadership behavior, might not be valued as much by subordinates in another society. Consequently, expatriate managers were recommended to take cultural values into account if they were to be seen as effective leaders in a globalization environment.

However, the results in this study suggested that the four cultural dimensions of Thai subordinates were not considered as important explanation factors for the variance in the leadership behaviors exhibited by their Australian superiors. In Thailand, the practice of transformational leadership was more effective than transactional leadership whether it was assessed by Australian expatriates themselves or their Thai subordinates. Australian expatriate managers who were concerned with the development of shared values and commitment to common goals were seen as more effective, enhanced extra

effort and increased satisfaction more than Australian expatriates who engaged themselves with exchanging of rewards, controlling, and monitoring. This was not the only study indicating how well transformational leadership worked in different countries or cultures. Other studies also reported similar findings (e.g. Singer and Singer, 1990; Howell and Avolio, 1993; Geyer and Steyrer, 1998).

Expatriate managers, who practice transformational leadership, have high levels of expectations and self-confidences and thus willing to work harder to accomplish difficult goals (Bass and Avolio, 1997; Ingram, 1997). They are likely to view the overseas assignments with excitement and challenge for them. Therefore, transformational expatriate managers tend to see overseas assignments as a positive opportunity to develop themselves in a new cultural and business environment. Morrison and Beck (2000) noted that expatriate managers, who were "commanded" to work in an overseas assignment, tended to produce serious negative consequences. By contrast, expatriate managers with self-confidence and positive attitudes toward the overseas assignments were reported to perform well in their host country operations (Katz and Seifer, 1996).

In addition, the ability to develop interpersonal relationships with subordinates in the host country has emerged as an important factor in successful expatriate managers (Jordan and Cartwright, 1998; Katz and Seifer, 1996). This ability consists of establishing close and long-term relationships, understanding and accepting people's differences, and providing active listening. In expatriation, the efficacy of the relationship ability serves as a bridge of cultural difference's gaps between expatriate managers and their host nation subordinates (Katz and Seifer, 1996).

With transformational leadership, expatriate managers build quality relationships with their subordinates through individualized consideration by giving subordinates personal attention, understanding subordinates' individual differences, and making subordinates feel valued as receiving special treatment (Bass and Avolio, 1997; Jung et al., 1995). Through these positive relationships, transformational expatriate managers will be able to investigate the basis for the host cultural differences and thus add to their understanding of the reasons or causes of their subordinates' behaviors. According to Jordan and Cartwright (1998), an understanding of and accepting of differences between people is required for successful expatriate managers.

Expatriate managers who frequently exhibited transformational leadership and those who frequently exhibited transactional leadership seem to emphasize different goals. Transactional expatriates tend to influence subordinates' performances based on short-term goals or the current needs, while transformational expatriates are more concerned with meeting the long-term achievement and development of their subordinates. For example, as mentioned earlier, there were some factors that encouraged the use of transactional leadership behaviors by Australian expatriates in this study such as contingent reward and management by exception active. Although these components of transactional leadership, particularly exchanging of rewards, might boost Thai subordinates' performance to achieve a short-term goal, the leadership behaviors were unlikely to continuously improve the development of the subordinates' abilities.

Under contingent reward transactional leadership, once rewards were not provided or subordinates felt the rewards did not appeal, subordinates might lack the incentive to perform to their full potential. Furthermore, in such

situations, expatriate managers might eventually find themselves heavily involved in individual bargaining between themselves and their subordinates (Bass and Avolio, 1997). Working under expatriates who closely controlled their subordinates could also make subordinates more dependent on their superiors' ability and knowledge (Cervone and Wood, 1995) and that might reduce subordinates' self-efficacy and self-achievement (Heslin, 1999).

Contrary to those who practice transactional leadership, transformational expatriates raise subordinates' self-confidence and self-esteem by providing challenging work and learning opportunities for their subordinates. They also encourage the use of intelligence by their subordinates and make each of them feel valued. As a result, subordinates are more likely to be willing to develop their own abilities and be able to take on leadership roles themselves. In particular, subordinates in multinational corporations are required to rely more on themselves rather than depending only on their expatriate managers. This is because, expatriate managers can be rotated or relocated back to their home headquarters but organizational activities sometimes need to be maintained by the subordinates in the host countries. Therefore, expatriate managers should lead their subordinates in a way that improves subordinates' self-development. The practices of transformational leadership appear to serve this purpose by not only helping to increase Thai subordinates' self-ability but also enhancing the development of expatriate managers themselves and this is beneficial for the overall performance of their organizations (Bass and Avolio, 1997; Jung et al., 1995).

Expatriate training and development is another essential process that increases the chance of success for expatriate managers (Baliga and Baker, 1985). Rodrigues (1996) argued that there is a tendency for more and more multinational corporations to need to develop their expatriate managers with

global management capabilities. Appropriate training and developing programs will prepare expatriate managers to conduct the MNCs' business in a global environment and develop their worldwide perspective and cross-cultural skills (Adler and Bartholomew, 1992). In terms of leadership training, it could imply that multinational corporations ideally should train or develop their expatriates' leadership skills to conform to a variety of different cultures or countries and that these skills are not limited to a particular culture. To achieve this objective, however, the corporations might need patience and a long-term perspective (Adler and Bartholomew, 1992). This is because, it could take time for expatriate managers to acquire the various sets of leadership skills that are required for them to be effective international leaders (McFarlin and Sweeney, 1998).

Alternatively, maybe the best option for the corporations is to provide leadership training programs designed to build universal leadership skills for their expatriates so that expatriates will be able to practice these leadership skills without being effected by the host cultures. Take this case, it suggests that transformational leadership is one of, may be a few, universal leadership behaviors that MNCs should consider including in their leadership development programs for their expatriate managers. As a result, expatriates could develop their leadership skills and become transformational leaders. They will then be able to lead subordinates in effective and satisfactory ways in whatever cultures they are assigned.

Overall, expatriates' leadership ability is one of the key criteria that contributes to the success of expatriate managers. Transformational leadership provides expatriate managers with self-confidence, a sense of challenge, and ability to understand people's differences. Therefore, it suggests that learning or practicing only transactional leadership behavior is

not enough to enable expatriate managers to lead host country subordinates effectively. Expatriate managers need to develop their leadership skills beyond those of negotiating, controlling, and monitoring to become transformational leaders who are desirable as effective and satisfactory leaders.

6.6 SUMMARY

This chapter presented a critical discussion of the results provided in chapter five. Mainly, it introduced potential reasons to explain several phenomena which emerged in this investigation. It also drew some general conclusions by comparing the results found in this study with the reviews of related literature and previous studies regarding the research questions and purposes. The next chapter will provide a total summary of the research on which this research is based on and discuss its significant contributions to theoretical and practice areas.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to provide a summary of the total research and discusses the significant contributions of this research to both relevant theoretical disciplines and practice situations. The chapter is organized into four major sections. The first section provides a summary of the total research starting from the research purposes and questions to the main findings in this research. The second section discusses the theoretical implications of this research to its immediate disciplines as well as other relevant management disciplines. The third section provides recommendations for practitioners, particularly expatriate managers who plan to work in Thailand. The last section discusses limitations of this research and indicates opportunities for future researchers in cross-cultural leadership.

7.2 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH
7.2.1 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH PURPOSES AND QUESTIONS

In concluding this research, it may be useful to once again return to its original purposes. Generally, this research was conducted to explore the leadership behaviour of Australian expatriate managers who were located in

Thailand by forming a picture of how the cultural values of Thai subordinates influenced on the leadership behaviours of Australian managers. More specifically, the purposes of this research were threefold. The research was conducted to determine: *(a) the cultural values of Thai subordinates who work with Australian expatriate managers; (b) the leadership behaviors of Australian expatriate managers in Thailand; (c) the relationships between the cultural values of Thai subordinates and the leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian expatriate managers.*

In order to achieve the research purposes, five specific research questions were developed to be answered by the quantitative results in this research. First, *to what extent do the cultural values of Thai subordinates, who work with Australian expatriate managers, conform with the representation of their national culture reported in the Hofstede study (1980; 1984)?* Second, *what patterns of leadership behaviors, as measured by transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1997), do Australian expatriate managers exhibit when they are located in Thailand?* Third, *do Australian expatriate managers and their Thai subordinates hold different perceptions of the leadership behaviors and the set of outcome performances (effectiveness, extra effort, and satisfaction)?* Fourth, *how do the leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian expatriate managers relate to the set of outcome performances?* And fifth, *to what extent do the cultural values of Thai subordinates explain the variance in the leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian expatriate managers?*

7.2.2 SUMMARY OF THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGY

Three dimensions of the relationships among variables were proposed in the theoretical framework in the current study. The first dimension represented the nature and direction of the relationships between the leadership factors and outcome variables. In this instance, the nine leadership behaviors were identified as independent variables while the three performance outcomes were placed as dependent variables. The aim of this dimension was to determine if the patterns of relationships between the leadership factors and leadership outcomes, proposed by Bass and Avolio (1997) as "The Full Range of Leadership Development Model", existed in the Australian manager and Thai subordinate samples as they did in many previous studies.

The second dimension investigated the possible differences of perceptions between Australian managers and Thai subordinates of the leadership factors and outcomes. It is based on an assumption that the relationships between the set of independent and dependent variables in the first dimension might be less accurate when considering only the data from Australian managers and overlooking the feedback information from their direct-reporting subordinates. This dimension proposed three measured variables: over-estimator, in-agreement estimator, and under-estimator. In identifying the self-other category of Australian managers, it was expected to provide reliable information for Australian managers to improve their leadership behaviors.

The final dimension concerned the relationships between the cultural values of Thai subordinates and the leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian managers. This dimension proposed the four cultural dimensions of Thai

subordinates as a group of independent variable and the three principle leadership behaviors as dependent variables. It examined how well the variance in the three leadership behaviors was explained by the four cultural dimensions of their Thai subordinates. In other words, it investigated the degrees of universality of the three leadership behaviors.

A method of combining quantitative and qualitative approaches called "dominant-less dominant design" (Creswell, 1994) was adopted for collecting research data in the current study. With this method, a main quantitative questionnaire survey was undertaken and supplemented by a small part of qualitative interview. The research packages were sent directly to ninety-five Australian expatriate managers who were listed in the 1998/1999 Directory of members of the Australian-Thai Chamber Commerce in Bangkok.

Australian expatriate managers were asked to complete the "Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire" (MLQ 5x-short-Leader Form) and two direct-reporting Thai subordinates, selected by their Australian superiors, were asked to complete the "Values Survey Module" (VSM) and the MLQ 5x-short (Rater Form). After completing the questionnaires, both Australian managers and Thai subordinates returned them separately and directly to the researcher in self-addressed envelopes. The face-to-face interviews were conducted subsequently based on the willingness of the participants to be invited in the study.

Four statistical research techniques were employed in this research. First, a Pearson correlation **r** was conducted to determine if there were any significant relationships between the nine leadership factors and the three outcome variables. Second, a t-test group was carried out to determine if there were any significant differences of means between the responses of Australian

manager self-ratings and Thai subordinate ratings of the leadership factors and outcome variables. Third, multiple regression analysis was performed to investigate the extent to which the variance in transformational, transactional, and non-leadership behaviors could be explained by the set of cultural values. Final, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test the structural validity of the MLQ. In addition, content analysis was used for the qualitative data.

7.2.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

7.2.3.1 RESPONDENTS

7.2.3.1.1 AUSTRALIAN EXPATRIATE MANAGERS

A total of forty-seven useable questionnaires were obtained for a response rate of 50%. The majority of the Australian participants were male. Most participants were relatively young, aged between 30 and 49 years and were well educated. Most Australian participants held positions at the executive level in their organizations and had worked in Thailand longer than one year.

Considering the gender of the respondents, the majority group of male Australian expatriates in this study came from a group of people who were aged between 40 and 49 years old with bachelor degrees. Most of them held positions at the executive level of management or above and worked in Thailand more than 3 years. For the female respondents, the largest group of female expatriates was relatively young (aged 30-39 = 66.7%), and also held bachelor degrees. Half of them were at the middle management level and had more than 3 years working experience in the country.

7.2.3.1.2 THAI SUBORDINATES

Ninety-one useable questionnaires were returned from Thai subordinates, representing a response rate of 48% of the total sample. The respondents were a relatively equal number of males and females (48.4% male and 51.6% female). Similar to their superiors, most of them were of a young age and had university experience. The majority of Thai subordinates were at the middle management level and had served their current companies for longer than one year. The majority group of both male and female subordinates in this study were similar, that was, they came from a group of people who were aged between 30 and 39 years old with bachelor degrees and were at the middle management level

7.2.3.2 RESEARCH RESULTS

The major findings of this research are summarized in the discussion of the research questions and Figure 7.1 illustrates the outcomes of the three dimensions proposed in the theoretical framework. In the first dimension, the leadership behaviors of Australian managers were identified (the second research) and the relationships between the leadership behaviors and the outcome performance were given (the forth research question). The results of the comparison between Australian managers' and Thai subordinates' ratings on the leadership factors and the three leadership outcomes were presented in the second dimension in Figure 7.1 (the third research question). Finally, the findings of the third dimension, examined the influence of the cultural values of Thai subordinates on the leadership behaviors of Australian managers,

provided the answers for the first and fifth research questions. The findings of the research questions are summarized in the next sections.

Figure 7.1 Framework of Results
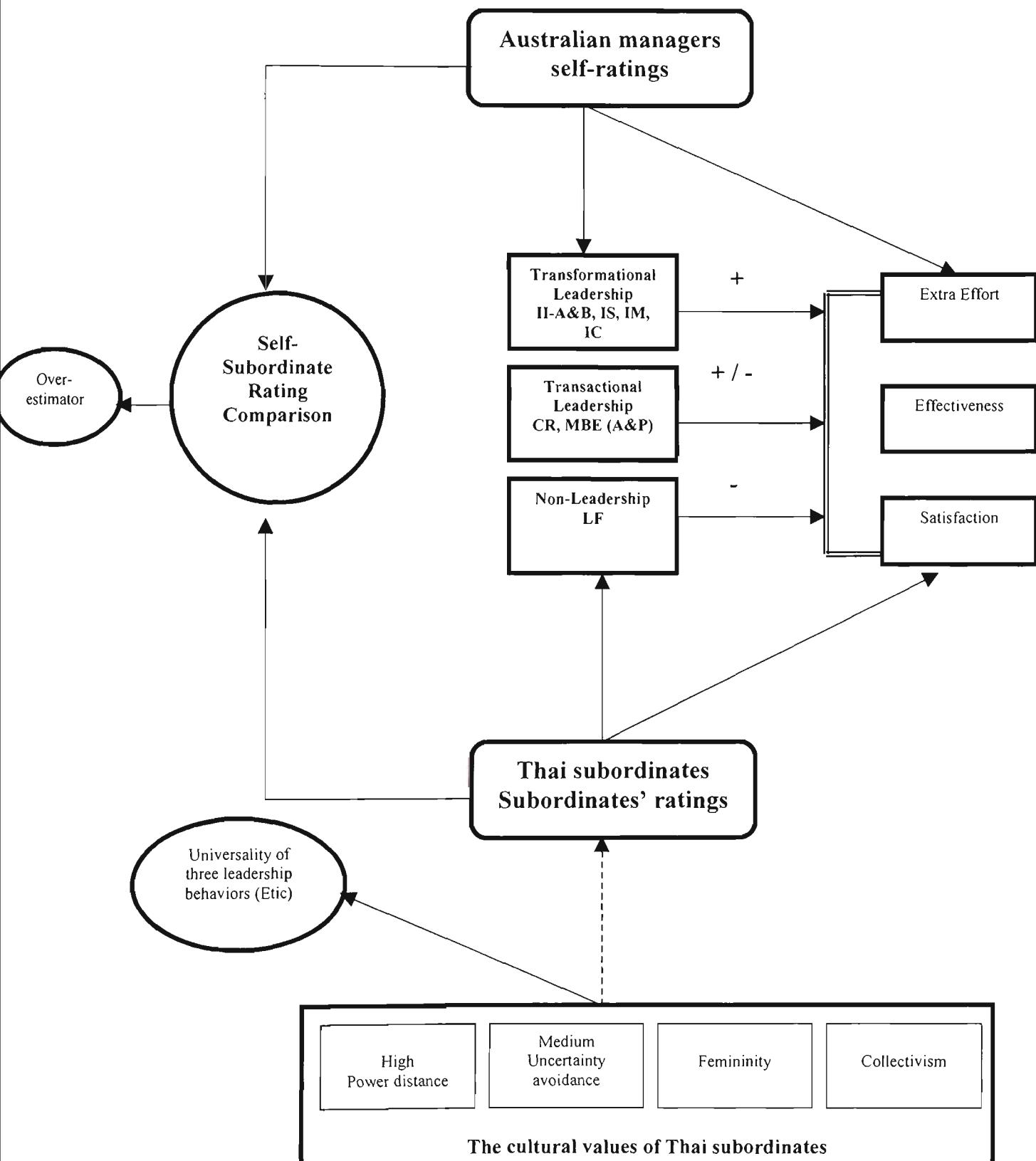
7.2.3.2.1 Research question # 1

The first research question was that of what extent do the cultural values of Thai subordinates conform with the Thai cultural dimensions presented in the Hofstede (1980; 1984) study? The results revealed that Thai subordinates in this study tended to have a large distance superior-subordinate relationship, had medium uncertainty avoidance, reflected feminine values, and were collectivistic employees.

When the results was compared with the original scores of Thailand presented in the Hofstede (1980; 1984) study, the results indicated that Thai subordinates in this study experienced a higher distance relationship with their superiors, felt more comfortable with unpredictable situations, and placed more value on a feminine style of culture than the representatives of their national culture presented in the Hofstede study (1980; 1984). There was no difference on the individualism dimension. In general, the sample demographic differences, the different time at which the data were collected, and being subordinates under foreign superiors or organizations were justified as general factors that might contribute toward the differences between the two studies.

Considering each dimension, a very high score on the power distance cultural dimension by Thai subordinates in this study might result from the perceptions of the Thai employees who worked under foreign bosses. Probably "Farang" superiors, such as the Australian expatriates in this study, were likely to be easily accepted in a "boss" role and as having a different social status by their Thai employees. In addition, Australian working styles and organizational cultures might have enhanced or encouraged Thai

subordinates in this study to exhibit less uncertainty avoidance than the earlier representation of their national culture (Hofstede, 1980). The different number of men and women represented in both studies was identified as a potential reason behind the lower score on the masculinity dimensions reported by Thai subordinates in this study than the Hofstede (1980; 1984). Most respondents in the Hofstede study were men while the current study represented nearly equal numbers of men and women. Therefore, the sample of Hofstede's study could be expected to produce higher score on the masculinity index than the sample in this study. Finally, the similarity of the score on individualism between both studies indicated that on this dimension Thai subordinates in this study still reflected the values of their national culture found in the Hofstede study (1980; 1984).

This research also examined differences in cultural values based on the respondents' sex, age, education, and managerial levels. The findings revealed that female subordinates appeared to show more feminine values, were more comfortable in unfamiliar situations, and more open to innovative ideas than male subordinates. Males, by contrast, tended to show more collective values in their relationships with others than the female respondents. On age, younger subordinates appeared to show more hierarchical values and more obedience toward their superiors than the older groups. A similar pattern of results was also found on the masculinity and individualism dimensions, that was, younger subordinates produced higher values on the masculinity and individualism index than the older groups.

A dependent relationship existed between the power distance and uncertainty avoidance dimensions and the educational levels of respondents. The lower educated subordinates tended to show higher values on these cultural dimensions than the higher educated subordinates. One interesting result

found, on the relationship between the power distance dimension and managerial levels of the respondents, was the constant decrease of the value of power distance with increasing managerial levels. These results seemed to support Hofstede's (1980) findings that the "higher-status" occupations tended to hold less authoritative values than the "lower-status" occupations.

7.2.3.2.2 Research question # 2

The second research question in this study was that of what patterns of the leadership behaviors do Australian expatriate managers exhibit when they are located in Thailand? The findings indicated that Australian expatriate managers who were located in Thailand displayed both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. However, The display of transformational behavior by Australian managers was significantly more frequent than transactional leadership behavior in reports by both the Australian expatriate and Thai subordinate samples. In general, these results implied that Australian managers focused their behaviors on meeting subordinates' individual needs, created new alternatives to look at old problems, promoted a strong sense of vision, and increased confidence and challenge for Thai subordinates.

Investigating further, the results revealed that Australian expatriates in this study appeared to specifically emphasize their behaviors of coaching and advising their subordinates on individual development, while leadership behaviors, such as role modeling and creating subordinates' trust or respect, were exhibited to a lesser degree compared with other transformational factors. In addition, the results also suggested that Australian expatriates in

Thailand seemed to spend more time on giving attention to exchanging of rewards, monitoring, and controlling their Thai subordinates than the MLQ norm reported by Bass and Avolio (1997).

The possible reasons and assumptions explaining the nature of the results concerning this research question were also discussed. For example, the formal educational and practical experience backgrounds of Australian expatriates could enable Australian expatriates in this study to develop their leadership behavior to achieve a high level of transformational leadership. In addition, a higher degree of formal authority and autonomy to negotiate with subordinates as expatriate managers, using management shortcuts due to the time limits of assignments, and subordinates' personal characteristics could increase the frequency of contingent reward and management-by-exception (active) behavior displayed by Australian expatriates in this study.

7.2.3.2.3 Research question # 3

Research question three concerned the significant differences in perspectives, on the leadership factors and outcomes, between Australian managers and Thai subordinates. Overall results revealed that there were significant differences in perspectives between Australian superiors and Thai subordinates on eleven out of the twelve leadership variables. Australian expatriates perceived themselves differently from their direct-reporting Thai subordinates on the five factors of transformational leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and leadership outcomes. For the transactional leadership factors, the t values indicated that there were significant differences between Australian managers and Thai subordinates' perspectives in contingent

reward and active management-by-exception, with the exception of the passive management-by-exception factor.

These findings seemed to conform to the general pattern of results in previous studies that investigated the leaders-subordinates perceptions on the transformational leadership model (e.g. Bass and Avolio, 1997; Adamson, 1996; Atwater and Yammarino, 1992). That was, leaders tended to rate themselves more highly on most of the leadership factors and outcomes than did their subordinates because of the inflation of leader self-ratings assessments.

The results of self-subordinate ratings also revealed that the most significant difference between the perceptions of Australian managers and Thai subordinates was on the individual consideration factor. A potential explanation for the significantly different perspectives on the individual consideration factor might be because Thai subordinates required a more intensive amount of individual treatment than Australian leaders expected. In addition, benefiting from theses results, it was suggested that Australian expatriates could improve their self-development on leadership behaviors by gaining feedback from their Thai subordinates.

7.2.3.2.4 Research question # 4

The relationships between the leadership factors and the set of leadership outcomes (effectiveness, extra effort, and satisfaction) were examined to meet research question four. The results in this study indicated that: first, the five transformational factors were significantly positively related with most of the

three leadership outcomes in both samples, with the exception of non-significant relationships between individual consideration and two of the leadership outcomes in the Australian sample. Second, a significant positive relation was also found between the contingent reward factor and the three outcome variables in both samples.

Third, the findings revealed that most of the three leadership outcomes were not significantly related to the management-by-exception (active) in both samples. The only significant positive relationships found in the Australian sample were between the active management-by-exception factor and effectiveness and extra effort. Last, the inactive leadership behaviors, passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire, were significantly negatively correlated with the three outcomes reported by both the Australian superiors and Thai subordinates samples.

In general, these findings appeared to provide additional evidence to support the Bass "The Full Range of Leadership Model" and Bass and Avolio's (1997) proposal that the transformational leadership factors were generally more highly positively related to the leadership outcomes than transactional and non-leadership behaviors. In addition, the results also suggested that Thai subordinates perceived Australian expatriates, who were a good role model and created subordinates' trust and respect, to be the most effective leaders and who increased extra effort, and satisfaction among subordinates. However, the importance of this kind of leadership behaviors seemed to be overlooked by Australian expatriates in this study.

7.2.3.2.5 Research question # 5

The results, concerning the fifth research question, revealed that the four cultural values of Thai subordinates had a very limited role in explaining the variance in transformational, transactional, and non-leadership behaviors exhibited by Australian managers. The very limited influence of the cultural dimensions on the three major leadership behaviors seemed to support the universality of the transformational-transactional paradigm proposed by Bass (1997b).

With these results, the current study proposed two important factors enhancing the universality of transformational leadership: the internal driven and external driven forces. The internal driven force referred to the four attributions of transformational leadership: simple universal, systematic behavior universal, functional universal, and flexibility.

These could be explained: (a) both groups of respondents perceived the behaviors associated with transformational leadership as the most desired leadership behaviors when compared with other two leadership behaviors (*simple universal*), (b) they also had the same perception that if a leader exhibited leadership behaviors associated with the five transformational factors, he or she was generally perceived as more effective, satisfied, and increasing extra effort than the three factors of transactional and a non-leadership factor (*systematic behavioral universal*), (c) leaders who frequently avoided responsibilities or making decisions were also perceived by both the Australian manager and Thai subordinate samples as ineffective and dissatisfying leaders, regardless of their cultures (*functional universal*), and (d) there is a greater opportunity to practice both participative and directive

styles of the three leadership behaviors in different situations or cultures. The two external driven forces were the convergence of subordinate's perceptions of leadership (perception becoming more alike) and the pre-requirement for effective leaders in a global management era. It is believed: (a) people's perceptions should have become more alike on ideal leadership since informational technology has driven people together; and (b) the pre-requirement for effective leaders in the 21st century tended to conform to transformational leadership behavior.

7.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORIES

Although previous studies have examined transformational leadership in different national contexts (e.g. Singer and Singer, 1990; Geyer and Steyrer, 1998) and the relationships between leaders and followers (notably Medley and Larochelle, 1995; Ingram, 1997), this research is significant because it explored the degrees to which the national culture of followers influence the leadership behaviors of leaders from a different culture. It is also important because the practical issues raised are increasingly important for companies operating not only in Thailand, but also in a global context.

The results found in the current study have made a number of significant contributions to knowledge represented by the theoretical frameworks used in this research. That is, the findings extend the validity of both the Bass and Avolio transformational leadership model and the Hofstede four cultural dimensions in five specific ways: (a) the analysis confirmed the existence of the nine leadership factors and that was consistent with the theoretical proposition (Bass and Avolio, 1997), (b) transformational leadership behavior

had a stronger positive relationship with leadership outcomes than transactional and non-leadership behaviors; (c) there was a significant difference in perceptions of leadership behaviors between leaders themselves and their subordinates; (d) the study confirmed the validity of the universalistic leadership theory for transformational leadership; and that (e) the Hofstede four dimensions could provide an effective guideline for describing the cultural values in cross-cultural studies.

The first implication is that the nine-factor model was reported to be the best fit model and regarded as a reasonable fit to the data in this study. This indicated that the MLQ (5X) adequately provided the distinct leadership factors to assess the nine leadership behaviors and that it conformed to the Bass and Avolio (1997) theoretical proposition. Although the results of this study conflicted with the conclusions from some previous studies (e.g. Tracey and Hinkin, 1998; Hinkin and Tracey, 1999; Den Hartog el al., 1997), it could be argued that there were no studies using the latest form of the MLQ (5X) which examined the nine factor full leadership model.

The second implication is that the relationships between leadership factors and outcomes seem to be reasonable and support the "The Full Range of Leadership Model" (Bass and Avolio 1997). The correlation results suggested that transformational leadership was generally more effective than transactional leadership, which in turn was more effective than laissez-faire leadership. In other words, the more positive contributions to subordinates' performances and satisfactions came from the behaviors associated with transformational rather than transactional and non-leadership.

The third implication for transformational leadership is that the same leader can be perceived differently from the perspectives of leaders themselves and

their subordinates. The t-test results indicated that leaders in this study rate themselves significantly differently on most leadership factors and outcomes from their subordinates. As mentioned before, this might relate to the inflation of leader self-ratings on the transformational leadership model (Bass and Avolio 1997). In addition, individual differences in perception from both leaders and followers might lead to the differences in ratings on transformational leadership (Atwater and Yammarino 1993; Sosik and Megerian 1999). Hence, researchers need to be cautious about assuming that the same leadership behavior will be interpreted similarly by leaders and their subordinates, particularly when they employ transformational leadership as their leadership framework.

Another implication of the current study for transformational leadership theory is that the findings give broad support to the validity of universal application of the transformational-transactional leadership model. The findings in this study clearly suggested that cultural values had a limited influence on transformational, transactional, and non-leadership behaviors. The results in this study also confirmed the three different types of universal concepts existing in transformational leadership. Although the transformational leadership model was developed in the U.S. and conducted mostly in western countries, the current study was conducted in Thailand, that is, a country described as having different cultural values from those of most western countries (Hofstede, 1980). However, when the transformational leadership model was used in Thailand, the results appeared to confirm that the "core function" of effective leaders in either western or eastern countries was alike. That was, Thai subordinates, like others around the world, perceived transformational leadership to be the most effective leadership behavior when compared with transactional and non-leadership behaviors.

The final implication offers advice for the cross-cultural researchers who wish to investigate or refer to the cultural values of Thai people. Whether the data were collected from a small sample such as in the current study or from the large sample in the Hofstede survey (1980), the results confirmed that Thai people valued high power distance and had moderate levels of uncertainty avoidance. They also lived in a feminine society and could be labeled as a collectivistic people. The differences on the scores between the two studies only indicated differences in the degrees in direction which Hofstede already reported rather than shifting the Thai cultural values into the opposite continuum (see comparing of overall mean scores in Table 5.5). Consequently, the findings in this study not only conformed to the Hofstede study (1980) but also suggested that the Hofstede four dimensions could serve as an important cultural model to explain the nature of cultural backgrounds for people across different countries. In addition, the results also suggested that the demographic variables such as sex, age, educational, and managerial levels assessed in the current study had close relationships with the cultural values of the respondents. Therefore, future researchers should be aware of these relationships before interpreting the cultural results in their studies.

This research has not only made significant contributions to its theoretical frameworks but also has implications for the wider body of knowledge, including cross-cultural leadership and expatriate management.

In terms of cross-cultural leadership, this research provides information to help future cross-cultural leadership researchers to better understand how leaders demonstrated their leadership behaviors in the different cultural environments. It also disclosed the perceptions of subordinates of the leadership behaviors and its consequences. Furthermore, this research helps to refine the leadership literature by explaining the influences of cultural

values on leadership behaviors regarding "etic" and "emic" leadership approaches.

Researchers have asked to what extent leadership is "culture free". On the one hand, it can be argued that leadership behaviors should be common throughout the word and the "core function" of leaders should be similar across countries. On the other hand, specific leadership behaviors are associated with cultures and should differ across cultures. This study has provided evidence that the transformational leadership theory, examining at the level of three major leadership behaviors, is a model of global leadership. The general goal of cross-cultural leadership is to develop universally valid theories (Dorfman, 1996). By providing better understanding of the above phenomena through this research, the researcher hopes that future cross-cultural leadership researchers could develop better leadership concepts that transcend cultures.

The implication of this study for expatriate management is that this research provided cultural aspects of Thai subordinates working with expatriate managers and thus the findings in this study can serve as a prediction of the appropriate general management styles for expatriate managers who intend to work in Thailand. It is widely accepted that expatriate managers who match their management styles to the host country's culture will be more effective (e.g. Katz and Seifer 1996). In addition to leadership, the four cultural dimensions also linked to several management styles and provided guidelines for expatriates working in different nations (Hofstede, 1980). Motivational methods, for example, can be drawn from the individualism-collectivism dimensions (Hofstede, 1980). Dealing with collectivist people such as the Thai subordinates in this study, motivation based on group efforts could be more effective than rewarding a specific individual for personal achievement. Employees' performance appraisal systems also need to be considered

according to the culture. In the Thai collectivistic society, direct feedback methods not only destroy harmony in relationships but also cause the employees to lose face and thus might damage their loyalty to the companies. More guideline details for expatriate managers who intend to work in Thailand are provided in the next section, implications for practice.

7.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The results of this study of the leadership behaviors of expatriates and the cultural values of Thai subordinates provide several implications for foreign managers who plan to work in Thailand. Based on the findings found in this study, the recommendations for expatriates are described as follows.

First, it is suggested that to enhance Thai subordinates' performance and satisfaction, expatriates should practice more behaviors associating with transformational than transactional or non-leadership. In particular, being a good role model and creating subordinates' trust and respect were the most effective and essential behaviors for leading Thai subordinates. Second, expatriate managers should avoid closely monitoring and controlling their Thai subordinates because the results revealed that these leadership behaviors had none or a negative impact on subordinates' effectiveness and satisfaction.

Third, feedback appraisal systems of effective leadership behaviors from the bottom up from subordinates should be considered by expatriate managers to increase the accuracy of expatriates' self-evaluation and that could help expatriate managers in self-development in terms of providing information on

what and how leadership behaviors needed to be changed or improved. For example, the findings of self-subordinate ratings revealed that the content of individualized consideration from the perspective of Thai subordinates might not be limited only to providing individual treatment relating to works but also extending to the involvement of managers in subordinates' personal lives. Therefore, it is suggested that Australian managers give more attention to their subordinates' personal side and that could make Thai subordinates feel that they really have specific attention from their managers.

Fourth, training in development of transformational leadership skills is recommended for expatriate managers who would like to be effective "international leaders". By experiencing the training, expatriate managers could be able to develop their leadership behavior from a lower level of transactional to a higher level of transformational behavior. That behavior is perceived by subordinates around the world as the most effective and satisfying leadership behaviors, regardless of their cultural backgrounds.

Fifth, in managing Thai subordinates, expatriate managers should show their leadership role by being a "good father" in both work and personal life since the paternalistic leadership style was the most popular for Thai subordinates in this study. Sixth, good and clear instructions need to be provided for Thai subordinates in order to achieve effective outcomes because Thai subordinates appeared to follow rules and instructions strictly.

Seventh, if there is a conflict viewpoint between expatriates and Thai subordinates, expatriate managers are recommended to solve the conflict by using a compromise strategy. This is because harmony and losing face are sensitive issues for Thai subordinates otherwise it might be easy to destroy both personal and working relationships. In addition, the same results might

occur if expatriates directly criticize their Thai subordinates. Eighth, motivation rewards such as based on a group performance rather than individual performance seem to be more practical in Thailand.

Ninth, expatriate managers are recommended to establish good and warm relationships and atmosphere in order to create trust between expatriates and Thai subordinates because they are essential in the Thai organizations. Tenth, expatriate managers are expected to show their status symbols, to display the authority of the boss' status to Thai subordinates. It could help expatriates easily to get more respect and acceptance, particularly to subordinates who value high power distance such as the Thai subordinates in this study. Finally, multinational corporations are suggested to provide transformational leadership training to develop universal leadership skills for their expatriate managers. Transformational leadership training would help expatriate managers to become effective international leaders in whatever countries they are assigned.

7.5 LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Although this research provided some interesting results, there are some limitations and recommendations for future research arising from this research that should be recognized and addressed. First, the population frame in this study was relatively small (ninety-five members of the Australian-Thai Chamber Commerce in Bangkok) hence it led to the small numbers of respondents. Therefore, subsequent research should try to replicate the present findings by seeking a larger population.

Second, the majority of leader respondents in this study were male (87.2%) and Thai subordinates who had a higher educational level than average. Some previous research had indicated the differences between men and women leaders on transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio 1996) and the different contributions of education to cultural background (Hofstede, 1980). Therefore, the replication and extension of the current results to examine the equality of men and women leaders and a variety of subordinates' educational levels may be useful.

Third, the investigation of the influence of culture on leadership behaviors in this research relied solely on specific theoretical frameworks: transformational leadership theory for the leadership behaviors and the Hofstede four dimensions model for the cultural values. Since the relationship between culture and leadership behaviors are still sensitive and unresolved issues (Dorfman, 1996), whether other theories may produce either a similar or different results remains an open research question.

Apart from the recommendations for further research based on its limitations, the findings of this research could stimulate future researchers to explore other leadership areas. Firstly, future researchers could attempt to replicate these findings in expatriate managers from different nationalities living in Thailand. In particular, it may be useful to examine Asian expatriate leaders, in order to detect any differences in leadership behaviors between eastern and western expatriate managers.

Secondly, since this research concentrates on "actual leadership behaviors" displayed by expatriate managers, future research is recommended to investigate additional information about subordinates' perceptions of "ideal leaders". The "ideal leaders" from the host country's subordinate perceptions

may provide more accurate recommendations on the appropriate leadership behaviors for the home country's expatriate managers.

Thirdly, further research might focus on one of the core cultural dimensions such as femininity since some authors have argued that transformational leadership is inherently more feminine than masculine nature (e.g. Bass et al., 1996; Comer et al., 1995).

Finally, since the results of this study suggested that cultural values had a limited influence on leadership behaviors, future research may wish to address other factors which influence leadership behaviors such as the personality attributes of both leaders and subordinates. On transformational leadership, some previous studies had reported the significant contribution of individual differences from leaders and subordinates of the same cultural background to leadership behaviors (e.g. Yammarino and Dubinsky, 1994; Atwater and Yammarino 1993; Howell and Avolio, 1993). The personality attributes of successful leaders may vary substantially as between cultures. It is to this significant question that the thesis is addressed, and empirical information provided as an aid to understanding of the wider implications of leadership styles.

REFERENCES

Anonymous (1997) 'Thailand: Economic overview', *Global Finance*, Vol. 11, No. 1, 85-86.

Adamson, L. (1996) 'Transformational leadership among occupational therapy managers', In K. W. Parry (ed.) *Leadership research and practice: emerging themes and new challenges*, Melbourne, Pitman, 55-63.

Adler, N. J. (1997) *International dimension of organizational behavior*, third edition, Boston, Ken Publishing.

Adler, N. J. and Bartholomew, S. (1992) 'Managing globally competent people', *Academy of Management Executive*, Vol. 6, 52-65.

Agle, B. R. and Caldwell, C. B. (1999) 'Understanding research on values in business: A level of analysis framework', *Business & Society*, Vol. 38, No. 3, 326-387.

Ah Chong, L. M. and Thomas, D. C. (1997) 'Leadership perceptions in cross-cultural context: Pakeha and Pacific islanders in New Zealand', *Leadership Quarterly*, Vol., 8, No. 3, 275-293.

Ali, A. J. and Camp, R. C. (1996) 'Global managers: qualities for effective competition', *International Journal of Manpower*, Vol. 17, No. 6/7, 5-18.

Amine, L.S and Cavusgil, S.T (1990) 'Marketing Environment in the Middle East and North Africa: The Forces behind Market Homogenization', In H. B. Thorelli and S. T. Cavusgil (eds.), *International Marketing Strategy*, third edition, Oxford, Pergamon Press, 229-247.

Appold, S. J., Siengthai, S., and Kasarda, J. D. (1998) 'The employment of women managers and professionals in an emerging economy: gender inequality as an organizational practice', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 43, No. 3, 538-565.

Arbuckle, J. L. (1997) *Amos user's guide: version 3.6*, Chicago, SmallWaters Corp.

Atwater, L. and Yammarino, F. (1992) 'Does self-other agreement on leadership perception moderate the validity of leadership and performance predictions?', *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 45, No. 1, 141-164.

Atwater, L.. and Yammarino, F. (1993) 'Personal attributes as predictors of superiors' and subordinates' perceptions of military academy leadership', *Human Relations*, Vol. 46, No. 5, 645-668.

Atwater, L., Ostroff, C., Yammarino, F., and Fleenor, J. (1998) 'Self-other agreement: Does it really matter?', *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 51, No. 3, 577-598.

Australian-Thai Chamber of Commerce (1999) *Australian-Thai Chamber of Commerce: 1998/1999 Handbook and directory*, Bangkok, Australian-Thai Chamber of Commerce.

Avery, G., Ecerett, A., Finkelde, A., and Wallace, K. (1999) 'Emerging trends in Australian and New Zealand management development practices in twenty-first century', *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 18, No. 1, 94-108.

Avolio, B., Howell, J. and Sosik, J. (1999) 'A funny things happened on the way to the bottom line: Humor as a moderator of leadership style effects', *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 42, No. 2, 219-227.

Ayman, R. (1993) 'Leadership perception: The role of gender and culture', In M. M. Chemers and R. Ayman (eds), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions*, London, Academic Press, 137-166.

Baalbaki, L. B. and Malhotra, N. K. (1993) 'Marketing Management Bases for International Market Segmentation: An Alternate Look at the Standardization/Customization Debate', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 10, No. 1, 19-44.

Babbie, E. (1998) *The practice of social research*, eighth edition, Belmont, Wadsworth Publishing.

Bailey, K. (1994) *Methods of social research*, Fourth edition, New York, Free Press.

Baliga, G. M. and Baker, J. C. (1985) 'Multinational corporate policies for expatriate managers: Selection, training, evaluation', *Advanced Management Journal*, Vol. 50, No. 4, 31-38

Baird, L. S., Post, J. E., and Mahon, J. F. (1990) *Management: Functions and responsibilities*, New York, Harper Collins.

Barney, J. B. and Griffin, R. W. (1992) *The management of organizations: Strategy, Structure, Behavior*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin.

Bass, B. M. (1985) *Leadership and Performance beyond expectations*, New York, Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1990) *Bass and Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership*, Third edition, New York, Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1997a) 'Personal Selling and Transactional/Transformational Leadership', *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, Vol. XVII, No. 3, 19-28

Bass, B. M. (1997b) 'Does the Transactional – Transformational Leadership Paradigm Transcend Organizational and National Boundaries?', *American Psychologist*, Vol. 52, No. 2, 130-139.

Bass, B. M. and Avolio, B. J. (1993) 'Transformational leadership: A response to critiques', In M. M. Chemers and R. Ayman (eds.), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions*, San Diego, CA, Academic Press, 49-80.

Bass, B. M. and Avolio, B.J. (1996) *Multifactor leadership questionnaire report*, CA, Mind Garden.

Bass, B. M. and Avolio, B. J. (1997) *Full range leadership development: Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire*, CA, Mind Garden.

Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., and Atwater, L. (1996) 'The Transformational and Transactional Leadership of Men and Women', *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, Vol. 45, No. 1, 5-34.

Bentler, P. M. (1985) *Theory and implementation of EQS: A structural equations program*, Los Angeles: BMDP Statistical Software.

Bentler, P. M. and Chou, C. (1987) 'Practical issues in structural modelling', *Sociological Methods and Research*, Vol. 16, 78-117.

Berrell, M., Wright, P., and Van Hoa, T. T. (1999) 'The influence of culture on managerial behavior', *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 18, No. 7, 578-589.

Blaikie, N. (2000) *Designing social research*, Cambridge, Polity Press.

Blunt, P. and Jones, M. L. (1997) 'Exploring the limits of Western leadership theory in East Asia and Africa', *Personnel Review*, Vol. 26, No. 1 / 2, 6-23.

Boesch, E. (1994) 'First experience in Thailand', In W, J. Lonner and R. Malpass (eds.) *Psychology and culture*, Boston, Allyn & Bacon, 47 – 51.

Bollen, K. A. (1989) *Structural equations with latent variables*, New York, John Wiley & SONS.

Boyacigiller, N. A., Kleinberg, M. J., Phillips, M. E., and Sackmann, S. A. (1996) 'Conceptualizing Culture', In B. J. Punnett and O. Shenkar (eds.) *Handbook for International Management Research*, Massachusetts, Blackwell Publishers, 157-208.

Brodbeck, F. C., Frese, M., Akerblom, S., Audia, G., Bakacsi, G., Bendova, H., Bodega, D., Bodur, M., Booth, S., Brenk, K., Castel, P., Den Hartog, D., Donnelly-Cox, G., Gratchev, M. V., Holmberg, I., Jarmuz, S., Jesuino, J. C., Jorbenadse, R., Kabasakal, H. E., Keating, M., Kipiani, G., Konrad, E., Koopman, P., Kurc, A., Leeds, C., Lindell, M., Maczynski, J., Martin, G. S., O'Connell, J., Papalexandris, A., Papalexandris, N., Prieto, J. M., Rakitski, B., Rebet, G., Sabadin, A., Schramm-Nielsen, J., Schultz, M., Sigfrids, C., Szabo, E., Thierry, H., Vondrysova, M., Weibler, J., Wilderm, C., Witkowski, S. and Wunderer, R. (2000) 'Cultural variation of leadership prototypes across 22 European countries', *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 73, 1-29.

Brown, A. and Humphreys, M. (1995) 'International cultural differences in public sector management: Lessons from a survey of British and Egyptian technical education managers', *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol. 8, No. 3, 5-23.

Brown, M. W. and Cudeck, R. (1993) 'Alternative ways of assessing model fit', In K. A. Bollen and J. S. Long (eds.), *Testing structural equation models*, Newbury Park, CA, Sage, 136-162.

Bryant, F. B. and Yarnold, P. R. (1995) 'Principal-components analysis and exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis', In L. G. Grimm and P. R. Yarnold (eds.), *Reading and understanding multivariate statistics*, Washington DC, American Psychological Association, 99-136.

Bryman, A. (1986) *Leadership and Organizations*, London, Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Bryman, A. (1988) *Quantity and Quality in social research*, Boston, Unwin Hyman.

Bryman, A. (1992) *Charisma and leadership in organizations*, London, Sage.

Bryman, A. and Cramer, D. (1990) *Quantitative data analysis for social scientists*, London, Routledge.

Burns, J. M. (1978) *Leadership*, New York, Harper & Row.

Burns, R. B. (1994) *Introduction to research methods*, London, Sage.

Bycio, P., Hackett, R. D., and Allen, J. S. (1995) 'Further assessments of Bass's (1985) conceptualization of transformational and transactional leadership', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 80, No. 4, 468-478.

Byrne, B. M. (1989) *A primer of LISREL: Basic applications and programming for confirmatory factor analytic models*, New York, Springer-Verlag.

Campbell, D. J., Bommer, W., and Yeo, E. (1993) 'Perceptions of Appropriate Leadership Style: Participation versus Consultation Across Two Cultures', *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, Vol. 10, No. 1, 1-19.

Carless, S. A. (1998) 'Assessing the discriminate validity of transformational leadership behavior as measured by the MLQ', *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 71, 353-358.

Carless, S., Mann, L. and Wearing, A. (1996) 'Transformational leadership and teams', In K. W. Parry (ed.) *Leadership research and practice: emerging themes and new challenges*, Melbourne, Pitman, 77-90.

Cervone, D. and Wood, R. (1995) 'Goals, feedback, and the differential influence of self-regulatory processes on cognitively complex information', *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 19, 519-545.

Charoenngam, N. and Jablin, F. M. (1999), 'An exploratory study of communication competence in Thai organizations', *The Journal of Business Communication*, Vol. 36, No. 4, 382-418.

Chemers, M. M. (1997) *An integrative theory of leadership*, London, Lowrence Erlbaum Assiciates.

Church, A. and Waclawski, J. (1998) 'The relationship between individual personality orientation and executive leadership behavior', *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 71, No. 2, 99-125.

Coad, A. and Berry, A. (1998) 'Transformational leadership and learning orientation', *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 19, No. 3, 164-172.

Cohen, L. and Holliday, M. (1982) *Statistics for social scientists*, London, Harper & Row.

Comer, L., Jolson, M., Dubinsky, A. and Yammarino, F. (1995) 'When the sales managers is a woman: An exploration into the relationship between salespeople's gender and their responses to leadership styles', *The Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, Vol. 15, No. 4, 17-32.

Connor, P. E. and Becker, B. W. (1994) 'Personal values and management', *Journal of Management Inquiry*, Vol. 3, No. 1, 67-73.

Connor, P. E. and Becker, B. W. (1975) 'Values and the organization: Suggestions for research', *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 18, No. 3, 550-561.

Cooper, R. (1991) *Thais Mean Business*, Singapore, Times Books International.

Cooper, R. and Cooper, N. (1990) *Culture Shock: Thailand*, Third edition, Singapore, Times Books International

Creswell, J. W. (1994) *Research design – Qualitative and Quantitative approaches*, Thousand Oaks, Sage Publications.

Cummings, J. (1997) *Thailand: A lonely planet travel survival kit*, Seventh edition, Singapore, Lonely Planet.

Currie, R. (1991) 'Remuneration to fit the culture', *Multinational Business*, Autumn, No. 3, 8-17.

D'Andrade, R. G. (1984) 'Culture meaning systems', In R. Shweder and R. A. LeVine (eds.) *Culture theory: Essays on mind, self, and emotion*, London, Cambridge University Press, 88-119.

Dane, F. C. (1990) *Research methods*, California, Brooks Cole Publishing.

Deal, T. E. and Kennedy, A. A. (1982) *Corporate cultures: The rites and rituals of corporate life*, Massachusetts, Addison-Wesley.

DeCarlo, T., Rody, R., and DeCarlo, J. (1999) 'A cross national example of supervisory management practices in the sales force', *The Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, Vol. 19, No. 1, 1-14.

Decrane, A. (1997) 'Leadership for the future', *Executive Excellence*, Vol. 14, No. 12, 16-17.

Den Hartog, D. N., House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A., and Dorfman, P. W. (1999) 'Culture specific and cross-culturally generalizable implicit leadership theories: Are attributes of charismatic/transformational leadership universally endorsed? (1), *Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 10, No. 2, 219-257.

Den Hartog, D. N., Van Muijen, J. and Koopman, P. (1997) 'Transactional versus transformational leadership: An analysis of the MLQ', *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 70, Part 1, 19-34.

Denison, D. R. (1990) *Corporate culture and organizational effectiveness*, New York, John Wiley & Sons.

Densten, I. L. (1999) 'Senior Australian law enforcement leadership under examination', *An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, Vol. 22, No. 1, 45-57.

Densten, I. and Sarros, J. (1997) *Re-thinking transformational leadership factors*, working paper 59/97, July, Monash University.

Deresky, H. (2000) *International management: Management across borders and cultures*, New Jersey, Prentice Hall.

Dillon, W. R., Madden, T. J., and Firtle, N. H. (1993) *Essentials of marketing research*, Illinois, Irwin.

Doktok, R. H. (1990) 'Asian and American CEOs: A Comparative Study', *Organizational Dynamics*, Vol. 18, No. 3, 46-56.

Dooley, D. (1995) *Social research methods*, third edition, New Jersey, Prentice Hall.

Dorfman, P. (1996) 'International and Cross-Cultural Leadership', In B. J. Punnett and O. Shenkar (eds.) *Handbook for International Management Research*, Massachusetts, Blackwell Published, 267-349.

Dorfman, P. W., Howell, J. P., Hibino, S., Lee, J. K., Tate, U., and Bautista, A. (1997) 'Leadership in Western and Asian Countries: Commonalities and differences in effective leadership processes across cultures', *Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 8, No. 3, 233-274.

Douglas. S and Wind. Y (1994), 'The myth of Globalization", In B.D. Wit and R. Meyer (eds.), *Strategy*, Minneapolis, West Publishing Company, 495-504.

Dowling, P. J., Schuler, R. S. And Welch, D. E. (1994) *International Dimensions of Human Resource Management*, Second edition, California, Wadsworth Publishing.

Dubinsky, A. J., Yammarino, F., Jolson, M. A., and Spangler, W. D. (1995) 'Transformational leadership: An initial investigation in sales management', *The Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, Vol. 15, No. 2, 17-31.

Earley, C. P. and Erez, M. (1997) *The transplanted executive: Why you need to understand how workers in other countries see the world differently*, New York, Oxford University Press.

Edwards, R., Edwards, J., and Muthaly, S. (1995) *Doing Business in Thailand: Essential Background Knowledge and First Hand Advice*, Melbourne, Asian Business Research Unit, Monash University.

Elenkov, D. S. (1997) 'Differences and similarities in managerial values between U.S. and Russian managers', *International Studies of Management and Organization*, Vol. 27, No. 1, 85-106.

England, G. W. (1967a) 'Personal value systems of American managers', *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 10, No. 1, 53-68.

England, G. W. (1967b) 'Organizational goals and expected behavior of American managers', *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 10, No. 2, 107-118.

Erez, M. (1994) 'Toward a model of cross-cultural industrial and organizational psychology', In H. C. Triandis, M. D. Dunnette, and L. M. Hough (eds.) *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Second edition, Vol. 4, California, Consulting Psychology Press, 559- 608.

Erez, M. and Earley, P. C. (1993) *Culture, self-identity and work*, New York, Oxford University Press.

Farh, J. and Dobbins, G. (1989) 'Effects of self-esteem on leniency bias in self-reports of performance: A structural equation model analysis', *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 43, 522-527.

Fiedler, F. E. (1964) 'A contingency model of leadership effectiveness', In L. Berkowitz (ed.) *Advances in experimental social psychology*, New York, Academic, 149-190.

Fiedler, F. E. (1967) *A theory of leadership effectiveness*, New York, McGraw-Hill.

Fiedler, F. E. (1993) 'The leadership situation and the black box in contingency theories', In M. M. Chemers and R. Ayman (eds.) *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and Directions*, San Diago, Academic Press, 1-28.

Fiedler, F. E. and Chemers, M. M. (1974) *Leadership and effective management*, Illinois, Scott, Foresman and Company.

Fiedler, F. E. and Garcia, J. E. (1987) *New approaches to effective leadership*, New York, John Wiley & Sons.

Fieg, J. P. (1989) *A common core: Thais and American*, Intercultural Press.

Fish, A. and Wood, J. (1997) 'What motivates Australian business managers to undertake expatriate appointment in East Asia?', *Career Development International*, Vol. 2, No. 1, 36-45

Fisher, G. and Hartel, C. (1999) *Culture, characteristic and performance: An examination of effectiveness of Western managers operating in intercultural teams in Thailand*, paper presented at the Australian and New Zealand Academic of Management 1-4 December 1999, Tasmania, Australia.

FitzGerald, H. (1998) *Cross-cultural communication for the tourism and hospitality industry*, Melbourne, Hospitality Press.

Fleishman, E. A., Harris, E. F., and Burtt, H. E. (1955) *Leadership and supervision in industry*, Ohio, The Ohio state university.

Foddy, W. H. (1988) *Elementary applied statistics for social sciences*, Sydney, Harper & Row.

Gerbling, D. W. and Anderson, J. C. (1985) 'The effects of sampling error and model characteristics on parameter estimation for maximum likelihood confirmatory factor analysis', *Multivariate Behavioural Research*, Vol. 20, 255-271.

Gerstner, C. R. and Day, D. V. (1994) 'Cross-cultural comparisons of leadership prototypes', *Leadership Quarterly,* Vol. 5, No. 2, 121-134.

Geyer, A. L. J. and Steyrer, J. M. (1998) 'Transformational Leadership and Objective Performance in Banks', *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, Vol. 47, No. 3, 397-420.

Ghiselli, E. (1971) *Explorations in managerial talent*, Santa Monica, Goodyear.

Goleman, D. (1995) *Emotional Intelligence*, New York, Bantam Books.

Gopalan, S. and Rivera, J. B. (1997) 'Gaining a perspective on India value orientations: Implications for expatriate managers', *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, Vol. 5, No. 2, 156-179.

Graig, S., Douglas, S. and Grein, A. (1992) 'Patterns of Convergence and Divergence Among Industrialized nations: 1960-1988', *Journal of International Business Studies*, 4th quarter; 773-785.

Grosof, M. S. and Sardy, H. (1985) *A research primer for the social and behavioral sciences*, Orlando, Academic Press.

Haas, D. F. (1979) *Interaction in the Thai Bureaucracy: Structure, Culture, and Social Exchange*, Colorado, Westview Press.

Hair, J. F., Rolph, E. A., Ronald, L. T. and William, C. B. (1998) *Multivariate Data Analysis*, Fifth edition, NJ, Prentice Hall.

Hall, E. T. (1981) *The silent language*, New York, Anchor books.

Hall, E. T. and Hall M. R. (1990) *Understanding cultural differences*, U.S.A., Intercultural Press.

Harris, P. R. (1994) *High performance leadership: HRD strategies for the new work culture*, revised edition, Massachusetts, HRD Press.

Harris, P. R. and Moran, R. T. (1996) *Managing cultural differences*, fourth edition, Houston, Gulf Publishing.

Harrison, G. L. (1995) 'Satisfaction, tension and interpersonal relations: A cross-cultural comparison of managers in Singapore and Australia', *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 10, No. 8, 13-19.

Harvey, F. (1997) 'National cultural differences in theory and practice: Evaluating Hofstede's national cultural framework', *Information Technology & People*, Vol. 10, No. 2, 132-146.

Harvey, M. and Novicevic, M. M. (2001) 'Selecting expatriates for increasingly complex global assignments', *Career Development International*, Vol. 6, No. 2, 69-86.

Hayes, J. and Allinson, C.W. (1995) 'Cultural differences in the learning styles of managers', In T. Jackson (ed.) *Cross-cultural management*, Oxford, Butterworth-Heinemann, 373-379.

Hede, A. and Wear, R. (1996) 'Dimensions of political and organizational leadership', In K. W. Parry (ed.) *Leadership research and practice: emerging themes and new challenges*, Melbourne, Pitman, 65-75.

Hedrick, T. E. (1994) 'The quantitative-qualitative debate: Possibilities for integration', In C. S. Reichardt and S. F. Rallis (eds) *The qualitative-quantitative debate: New perspectives*, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass, 45-52.

Helgstrand, K. and Stuhlmacher, A. (1999) 'National Culture: An influence on leader evaluations?', *The International journal of Organizational Analysis*, Vol. 7, No. 2, 153-168.

Hemphill, J. K. (1949) *Situational factors in leadership*, Ohio, The Ohio state university.

Hemphill, J. K. (1950) *Leadership behavior description*, Ohio, The Ohio state university.

Herskovits, M. J. (1955) *Cultural anthropology*, New York, Knopf.

Heslin, P. A. (1999) 'Boosting empowerment by developing self-efficacy', *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 37, No. 1, 52-64.

Hinkin, T. R. and Tracey, J. B. (1999) 'The relevance of charisma for transformational leadership in stable organization', *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, Vol. 12, No. 2, 105-119.

Hoelter, J. W. (1983) 'The analysis of covariance structures: Goodness of fit indices', *Sociological Methods and Research*, 11, 325-344.

Hofstede, G. (1980) *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*, Beverly Hill, Sage Publications.

Hofstede, G. (1984) *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*, Abridged edition, Beverly Hill, Sage Publications.

Hofstede, G. (1990) 'A Reply and Comment on Joginder P. Singh: Managerial Culture and Work-Related Values in India', *Organization Studies*, Vol. 11, No. 1, 103-106.

Hofstede, G. (1995a) 'The business of international business is culture', In T. Jackson (ed.) *Cross-Cultural Management*, Oxford, Butterworth-Heinemann, 150-165.

Hofstede, G. (1995b) 'Motivation, Leadership, and Organization: Do American Theories Apply Abroad?', In C. A. Bartlett and S. Ghoshal (eds.) *Transnational Management: Text, Cases, and Readings in Cross-Border Management*, Second edition, Boston, Irwin-McGraw-Hill, 193-211.

Hofstede, G. (1997) *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the mind: Intercultural Cooperation and its importance for survival*, London, McGraw-Hill.

Hollander, E. P. (1993) 'Legitimacy, power, and influence: A perspective on relational features of leadership', In M. M. Chemers and R. Ayman (eds), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions*, London, Academic Press, 29-48.

Holsti, O. R. (1969) *Content analysis for the social sciences and humanities*, MA, Addison-Wesley.

House, R. J. (1971) 'A path-goal theory of leadership', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 16, 321-338.

House, R. J. (1996) 'Path-goal theory of leadership: Lessons, legacy, and a reformulated theory', *Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 7, No. 3, 323-353.

House, R. J. and Mitchell, T. R. (1974) 'Path-goal theory of leadership', *Journal of Contemporary Business*, Vol. 3, 81-97.

Howard, C. G. (1974) 'Model for the design of a selection program for multinational executives', *Public Personnel Management*, Vol. 3, 138-146.

Howell, J. M. and Avolio, B. J. (1993) 'Transformational leadership, Transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated business-unit performance', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 78, No. 6, 891-902.

Hui, C. H., Yee, C., and Eastman, K. L. (1995) 'The relationship between individualism/collectivism and job satisfaction', *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, Vol. 44, No. 3, 276-282.

Hult, G. M., Ferrell, O. C., and Schul, P. L. (1998) 'The effect of global leadership on purchasing process outcomes', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 32, No. 11/12, 1029-1050.

Ingram, P. D. (1997) 'Leadership behaviours of principals in inclusive educational settings', *Journal of Educational*, Vol. 35, Issue 5, 411-427.

Jackson, T. (1993) *Organizational behavior in international management*, Oxford, Butterworth-Heinemann.

Jordan, J. and Cartwright, S. (1998) 'Selecting expatriate managers: Key traits and competencies', *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 19, No. 2, 89-96.

Joreskog, K. G. and Sorbom, D. (1989) *LISREL-7 user's reference guide*, Mooresville, IN, Scientific Software.

Judd, C. M., Smith, E. R., and Kidder, L. H. (1991) *Research methods in social relations*, sixth edition, Fort Worth, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.

Jung, D. I., Bass, B.M., and Sosik, J. J. (1995) 'Bridging leadership and culture: A theoretical consideration of transformational leadership and collectivistic cultures', *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, Vol. 2, No. 4, 3-18.

Kale, S. H. (1991) 'Culture-Specific Marketing Communications: An Analytical Approach', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 8, No. 2, 18-30.

Kale, S. and Barnes, J. (1995) 'Understanding the domain of cross-national buyer-seller interactions', T. Jackson (ed.) *Cross-cultural Management*, Oxford, Butterworth-Heinneman, 259-292.

Kanuk, L. and Berenson, C. (1975) 'Mail surveys and response rates: A literature review', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 12, No. 4, 440-453.

Kashima, Y. and Callan, V. J. (1994) 'The Japanese work group', In H. C. Triandis, M. D. Dunnette, and L. M. Hough (eds.) *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Second edition, Vol. 4, California, Consulting Psychology Press, 609-646.

Katz, D. and Kahn, R. L. (1966) *The social psychology of organizations*, New York, John Wiley & Son.

Katz, J. P. and Seifer, D. M. (1996) 'It's a different world out there: Planning for expatriate success through selection, pre-departure training and on-site socialization', *Human Resource Planning*, Vol. 19, No. 2, 32-47.

Keesing, R. M. (1981) *Cultural anthropology: A contemporary perspective*, Second edition, Tokyo, CBS Publishing Japan.

Kim, K. I., Park, H. J., and Suzuki, N. (1990) 'Reward allocations in the United States, Japan, and Korea: A comparison of individualistic and collectivistic cultures', *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 33, No. 1, 188-198.

Klausner, W. J. (1993) *Reflections on Thai Culture*, Fourth edition, Bangkok, The Siam Society.

Kluckhohn, C. (1954) *Culture and behavior*, New York, Free Press.

Knowles, M. C. (1990) *Organizational behavior: Changing concepts and applications*, NSW, Harper&Row.

Komin, S. (1990) 'Culture and work-related values in Thai organizations', *International Journal of Psychology*, Vo. 25, 681-704.

Kotter, J. P. (1988) *The leadership factor*, New York, Free Press.

Kotter, J. P. and Heskett, J. L. (1992) *Corporate culture and performance*, New York, Free Press.

Krejcie, R. V. and Morgan, D. W. (1970) 'Determining sample size for research activities', *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, Vol. 30, No. 3, 607-610.

Kreutzer, R.T (1990) 'Marketing-Mix Standardization: An Integrated Approach in Global Marketing', In H. B. Thorelli and S. T. Cavusgil (eds.), *International Marketing Strategy*, third edition, Oxford, Pergamon Press, 549-470.

Kroeber, A. L. and Kluckhohn, C. (1952) *Culture: A critical review of concepts and definitions*, Papers of the Peabody museum of American Archaeology and Ethnology, Harvard University, Vol. XLVII, No. 1, 1-223.

Kuchinke, P. (1999) 'Leadership and Culture: Work-related values and leadership styles among one company's U.S. and German telecommunication employees', *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, Vol. 10, No. 2, 135-154.

Kustin, R. A. (1993) 'A Cross - Cultural Study of a Global Product in Israel and Australia', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 10, No. 5, 4-13.

Labrecque, D. P. (1978) 'A response rate experiment using mail questionnaire', *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 42, No. 4, 82-83.

Lachman, R., Nedd, A., and Hinings, B. (1995) 'Analyzing cross-national management and organizations: A theoretical framework', In T. Jackson (ed.) *Cross-cultural management*, Oxford, Butterworth-Heinemann, 166-191.

Lawler, J. (1996) 'Diversity issues in South-East Asia: the case of Thailand', *International Journal of Manpower*, Vol. 17 No. 4/5, 152-167.

Lemak. D. J. and Arunthanes. W. (1997) 'Global Business Strategy: A Contingency Approach', *Multinational Business Review*, Vol. 5, No. 1, 26-37.

Leppert, P. (1996) *Doing Business with Thailand*, California, Jain Publishing.

LeVine, R. A. (1984) 'Properties of culture: An ethnographic view', In R. Shweder and R. A. LeVine (eds.) *Culture theory: Essays on mind, self, and emotion*, London, Cambridge University Press, 67-87.

Levinson, H. (1980) 'Criteria for choosing chief executives', *Harvard Business Review*, July-August, 113-120.

Levitt. T (1995), "The Globalization of Markets", In C. A. Bartlett and S. Ghoshal (eds.), *Transnational Management: Text, Cases, and Reading in Cross – Border Management*, second edition, Boston, Irwin McGraw-Hill, 183-193.

Lewis, D. (1996) 'New perspectives on transformational leadership', In K. W. Parry (ed.) *Leadership research and practice: emerging themes and new challenges*, Melbourne, Pitman, 17-28.

Likert, R. (1961) *New patterns of management*, New York, McGraw-Hill.

Linehan, M. and Walsh, J. (1999) 'Senior female international managers: breaking the glass border', *Women in Management Review*, Vol. 14, No. 7, 264-272.

Locke, E. A., Kirkpatrick, S., Wheeler, J. K., Schneider, J., Niles, K., Goldstein H., Welsh, K., and Chah, D. (1991) *The essence of leadership: The four keys to leading successfully*, New York, Lexington Books.

Locke, L. F., Silverman, S. J., and Spirduso, W. W. (1998) *Reading and understanding research*, California, Sage Publications.

Lord, R. G., DeVader, C., and Alliger, G. (1986) 'A meta-analysis of the relation between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 41, 402-410.

Lynn, M., Zinkhan, G. M., and Harris, J. (1993) 'Consumer tipping: A cross-country study', *Journal of Consumer Research,* Vol. 20, No. 3, 478-488.

MacKay, H. (1993) *Reinventing Australia: The mind and mood of Australia in the 90s,* NSW, Angus & Robertson.

McCampbell, A., Jongpipitporn, C., Umar, I., and Ungaree, S. (1999) 'Seniority-based promotion in Thailand: it's time to change', *Career Development International,* Vol. 4, No. 6, 318-320.

McDonald, R. P. (1985) *Factor analysis and related methods,* New Jersey, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

McFarlin, D. B. and Sweeney, P. D. (1998) *International management: Trends, challenges and opportunities,* Ohio, South-Western College Publishing.

Mead, R. (1998) *International management: Cross-cultural dimensions,* Oxford, Blackwell Publishers.

Medley, F. and Larochelle, D. R. (1995) 'Transformational leadership and job satisfaction', *Nursing Management,* Vol. 26, No. 9, 64-69.

Merriam, S. B. (1988) *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach,* San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Mitchell, M. and Jolley, J. (1992) *Research design explained,* second edition, New York, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Morden, T. (1995) 'International Culture and Management', *Management Decision,* Vol. 33, No. 2, 19-21.

Morrison, A. and Beck, J. (2000) 'Taking trouble: the key to effective global attention', *Strategy and Leadership,* Vol. 28, No. 2, 26-32.

Muenjohn, N. and Armstrong, A. (2000) *'Transformational Leadership: A Study of The Leadership Behavior of Australian Expatriate Managers in Thailand',* Paper presented at the Australian and New Zealand Academic of Management Conference 3-6 December, Sydney, Australia.

Mulder, M. (1977) *The daily power game,* Leyden, Martinus Nijhoff.

Mulder, N. (1997) *Thai images: The culture of the public world,* Chiang Mai, Silkworm Books.

Mulder, N. (1979) *Everyday Life in Thailand: An Interpretation,* Bangkok, Duang Kamol.

Mulder, N. (1996) *Inside Thai Society: Interpretations of Everyday Life,* Singapore, The Pepin Press.

Newman, K. L. and Nollen, S. D. (1996) 'Culture and congruence: The fit between management practices and national culture', *Journal of International Business Studies,* Vol. 27, No. 4, 753-779.

Nicholson, J. and Stepina, L. (1998) 'Cultural values: A cross-national study', *Cross Cultural Management*, Vol. 5, No. 1, 34-49.

Northouse, P. G. (1997) *Leadership: Theory and Practice*, California, Sage Publications.

Noypayak, W. and Speece, M. (1998) 'Tactics to influence subordinates among Thai managers', *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 13, No. 5/6, 343-358.

Nunnally, J. (1967) *Psychometric Theory*, New York, McGraw-Hill.

Ogbor, J. O. (2000) 'Organizational leadership and authority relations across cultures: Beyond divergence and convergence', *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, Vol. 10, No. 1, 48-73.

Ohmae, K (1994) 'Managing in a borderless world', In B. D. Wit and R. Meyer (eds.), *Strategy*, Minneapolis, West Publishing Company, 489-495.

O'Reilly C. A. III, Chatman, J., and Caldwell, D. F. (1991) 'People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organizational fit', *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 34, No. 3, 487-516.

O'Sullivan, K. and Tajaroensuk, S. (1997) *Thailand: A handbook in intercultural communication*, Sydney, Macquarie University.

Parry, K. W. (1996) *Transformational Leadership: Developing an enterprising management culture*, Melbourne, Pitman.

Parry, K. W. and Sarros, J. C. (1996) 'An Australian perspective on transformational leadership', In K. W. Parry (ed.) *Leadership research and practice: emerging themes and new challenges*, Melbourne, Pitman, 105-111.

Peters, T. J. and Waterman, R. H. (1982) *In search of excellence: Lessons from American's best-run companies*, New York, Warner Book.

Peterson, M. F. and Hunt, J. G. (1997) 'International perspectives on international leadership', *Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 8, No. 3, 203-231.

Pillai, R. (1995) 'Context and charisma: The role of organic structure, collectivism, and crisis in the emergence of charismatic leadership', *Academy of Management Journal*, Special Volume / Issue: Best Papers Proceedings 1995, 332-338.

Pillai, R., Scandura, T. A., and Williams, E. A. (1999) 'Leadership and organizational justice: Similarities and differences across cultures', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 30, No. 4, 763-779.

Polgar, S. and Thomas, S. A. (1991) *Introduction to research in the health sciences*, Melbourne, Churchill Livingstone.

Pornpitakpan, C. (2000) 'Trade in Thailand: A three-way cultural comparison', *Business Horizons*, Vol. 43, No. 2, 61 – 71.

Posner, B. Z. and Schmidt, W. H. (1992) 'Values and the American manager: An update updated', *California Management Review*, Vol. 34, No. 3, 80-94.

Punch, K. F. (1998) *Introduction to social research: Quantitative & Qualitative approaches*, London, Sage Publications.

Punnett, B. J. and Ricks, D. A. (1997) *International Business*, Second edition, Cambridge, Blackwell Publishers.

Rabibhadana, A. (1993) *The 1993 Year-End Conference: Who gets what and how?: Challenges for the future*, Synthesis Papers Vol. IV, Chon Buri, Thailand.

Ralston, D. A., Gustafson, D. J., Cheung, E., and Terpstra, R. H. (1992) 'Eastern values: A comparison of U.S., Hong Kong, and PRC managers, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 77, 664-671.

Ralston, D. A., Terpstra, R. H., Gunniff, M. K. and Gustafson, D. J. (1995) 'Do expatriate change their behavior to fit a foreign culture? A study of American expatriates' strategies of upward influence', *Management International Review*, Vol. 35, No. 1, 109-120.

Reaves, C. C. (1992) *Quantitative research for the behavioral sciences*, New York, John Wiley.

Reichardt, C. S. and Cook, T. D. (1979) 'Beyond qualitative versus quantitative methods', In T. D. Cook and C. S. Reichardt (eds.), *Qualitative and quantitative methods in evaluation research*, Beverly Hill, CA, Sage, pp. 7-32.

Reichardt, C. S. and Rallis, S. F. (1994) 'The relationship between the qualitative and quantitative research traditions', In C. S. Reichrdt and S. F. Rallis (eds) *The qualitative-quantitative debate: New perspectives*, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass, 5-12.

Robinson, R. D. (1990) 'Some New Competitive Factors in International Marketing', In H. B. Thorelli and S. T. Cavusgil (eds.), *International Marketing Strategy*, third edition, Oxford, Pergamon Press, 39-56.

Rodrigues, C. (1996) *International management: A cultural approach*, Minneapolis, West Publishing.

Rosaldo, M. Z. (1984) 'Toward and anthropology of self and feeling', In R. Shweder and R. A. LeVine (eds.) *Culture theory: Essays on mind, self, and emotion*, London, Cambridge University Press, 137-157.

Rost, J. C. (1993) *Leadership for the Twenty-First Century*, Connecticut, Praeger Publishers.

Sandler, D. M. and Shani, D. (1992) 'Brand Globally but Advertise locally?: An Empirical Investigation', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 9, No. 4, 18-31.

Sarros, J. C. (1993) *Leadership Report 1993: Australian Trends in Corporate Leadership*, Melbourne, Monash university.

Sarros, J. C. and Butchatsky, O. (1996) *Leadership: Australia's Top CEOs: Finding out what makes them the best*, Sydney, Harper Business.

Sarros, J. C., Jones, R. A., and Miller, J. O. (1992) *Leadership Report 1992: Australian Leadership in a Competitive World*, Melbourne, Monash University.

Sarros, J. C. and Santora, J. C. (1994) 'Successful CEOs in tough economic times', *International Journal of Career Management*, Vol. 6, No. 4, 14-21.

Sarros, J. C., Tanewski, G. A. and Santora, J. C. (1995) 'Leadership activities of Australian executives', *ANZAM Journal*, Vol. 1, No. 2, 33-43.

Schein, E. H. (1992) *Organizational culture and leadership*, second edition, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Schein, E. H. (1996) 'Leadership and organizational culture', In F. Hesselbein, R. Beckhard, and M. Goldsmith (eds.), *The leader of the future: new vision, strategies, and practices for the next era*, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass, 59-69.

Schermerhorn Jr., J. R. and Bond, M. H. (1997) 'Cross-cultural leadership dynamics in collectivism and high power distance settings', *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 18, No. 4, 187-193.

Schermerhorn Jr., J. R., Hunt, J. G., and Osborn, R. N. (1997) *Organizational Behaviour,* Sixth edition, New York, John Wiley & Son.

Schuler, R. S. & Rogovsky, N. (1998) 'Understanding Compensation Practice Variations Across Firms: The Impact of National Culture', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 29, No. 1, 159-177.

Scott, E. L (1956) *Leadership and Perceptions of organization*, Ohio, The Ohio state university.

Seartao, R. (1989) *Krong-Saung-Sang-Klom-Lae-Wattanatam-Thai*, Bangkok, ThaiWatanapanich.

Sekaran, U. (2000) *Research methods for business: A skill-building approach*, Third edition, New York, John Wiley & Son.

Selmer, J. (1997) 'Differences in leadership behaviour between expatriate and local bosses as perceived y their host country national subordinates', *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 18, No. 1, 13-22.

Selmer, J., Kang, I., and Wright, R. P. (1994) 'Managerial behavior of expatriate versus local bosses', *International Studies of management and Organization*, Vol. 24, No. 3, 48-63.

Selvarajah, C., Duignam, P., Suppiah, C., Lane, T., and Nuttman, C. (1995) 'In search of the ASEAN leader: An exploratory study of the dimensions that relate to excellence in leadership', *Management International Review*, Vol. 35, No. 1, 29-44.

Senge, P. (1990) 'The leader's new work: Building learning organizations', *Sloan Management Review*, Fall, 7-24.

Sheehan, B. (1993) *Thailand: An introduction to Thailand, Its people, trade, and business activity*, Second edition, Melbourne, The Australia – Thailand Business Council.

Shweder, R. A. (1984) 'Preview: A colloquy of Culture theories', In R. Shweder and R. A. LeVine (eds.) *Culture theory: Essays on mind, self, and emotion*, London, Cambridge University Press, 1-24.

Singer, M. S. and Singer, A. E. (1990) 'Situational constraints on transformational versus transactional leadership behavior, subordinates' leadership preference, and satisfaction', *The Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 130, No. 3, 385-396.

Singh, J. P. (1990) 'Managerial Culture and Work-related Values', *Organization Studies*, Vol. 11, No. 1, 75-101.

Singleton Jr. R. A., Straits, B. C., and Straits, M. M. (1993) *Approaches to social research*, second edition, Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Smith, H. E. (1976) *Historical and Cultural Dictionary of Thailand*, New York, The Scarecrow Press.

Smith, M. L. (1994) 'Qualitative plus/versus Quantitative: The last word', In C. S. Reichardt and S. F. Rallis (eds), *The qualitative-quantitative debate: New perspectives*, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass, 37-44.

Smith, P. B. (1992) 'Organizational behaviour and national cultures', *British Journal of Management*, Vol. 3, No. 1, 39-51.

Smith, P. B. (1997) 'Organizational Behaviour and National Culture', In D. J. Hickson (ed.) *Exploring management across the world*, London, Penguin Books.

Smith, P. B. and Bond, M. H. (1993) *Social psychology across cultures: Analysis and perspectives*, New York, Harvester-Wheatsheaf.

Smith, P. B., Misumi, J., Tayeb, M., Peterson, M., and Bond, M. (1995) 'On the generality of leadership style measures across cultures', In T. Jackson (ed.) *Cross-cultural Management*, Oxford, Butterworth-Heinneman, 135-149.

Smith, P. B. and Peterson, M. F. (1988) *Leadership, Organizations and Culture: An event management model*, London, Sage Publications.

Sosik, J. (1997) 'Effect of transformational leadership and anonymity on idea generation in computer-mediated groups', *Group & Organization Management*, Vol. 22, No. 4, 460-487.

Sosik, J. and Megerian, L. (1999) 'Understanding leader emotional intelligence and performance: The role of self-other agreement on transformational leadership perceptions', *Group & Organization Management*, Vol. 24, No. 3, 367-390.

Spiro, M. E. (1984) 'Some reflections on cultural determinism and relativism with special reference to emotion and reason', In R. Shweder and R. A. LeVine (eds.) *Culture theory: Essays on mind, self, and emotion*, London, Cambridge University Press, 323-346.

Stanek, M. B. (2000) 'The need for global managers: a business necessity', *Management Decision*, Vol. 38, No. 4, 232-242.

Stogdill, R. M. (1974) *Handbook of Leadership*, New York, Free Press.

Swanson, C. L. (1993) 'The Culture impact of U.S. employment Discrimination Laws on foreign multinational Corporations', In C. L. Swanson, A. Alkhafaji, and M. H. Ryam (eds.), *International Research in the Business Disciplines*, London, Jai Press Inc, 63-71.

Tabachnick, B. G. and Fidell, L. S. (1996) *Using multivariate statistics*, third edition, New York, Harper Colloins.

Tepper, B. J. and Percy, P. M. (1994) 'Structural validity of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire', *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, Vol. 54, No. 3, 734-744.

Thite, M. (1999) 'Identifying key characteristics of technical project leadership', *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 20, No. 5, 253-261.

Thompson, A. (1981) *The Establishment and Operating Experiences of Australian Companies in Thailand*, Melbourne, Melbourne University.

Tourret, R. (1989) *Thailand*, London, Euromoney Publications.

Tracey, J. B. and Hinkin, T. R. (1998) 'Transformational leadership or effective management practices?', *Group and Organization Management*, Vol. 23, No. 3, 220-236.

Triandis, H. C. (1994a) 'Cross-cultural industrial and organizational psychology', In H. C. Triandis, M. D. Dunnette, and L. M. Hough (eds.) *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Second edition, Vol. 4, California, Consulting Psychology Press, 103-172.

Triandis, H. C. (1994b) *Culture and Social Behaviour*, U.S., McGraw-Hill.

Triandis, H. C., Kurowski, L. L., and Gelfand, M. J. (1994) 'Workplace diversity', In H. C. Triandis, M. D. Dunnette, and L. M. Hough (eds.) *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Second edition, Vol. 4, California, Consulting Psychology Press, 769-827.

Trompenaars, F. and Turner, C. H. (1997) *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Business*, Second edition, London, Nicholar Brealey.

Tylor, E. B. (1871) *Primitive culture*, London, John Murray.

Van Seters, D. A. and Field, R. H. G. (1990) 'The evolution of leadership theory', *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, Vol. 3, No. 3, 29-45.

Wallace, J. Hunt, J., and Richards, C. (1999) 'The relationship between organizational culture, organizational climate, and managerial values', *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol. 12, No. 7, 548-564.

Wang, Z. M. (1994) 'Culture, economic reform, and the role of industrial and organizational psychology in China', In H. C. Triandis, M. D. Dunnette, and L. M. Hough (eds.) *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Second edition, Vol. 4, California, Consulting Psychology Press, 689-726.

Westwood, R. I. And Posner, B. Z. (1997) 'Managerial values across cultures: Australia, Hong Kong and the United States', *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, Vol. 14, No. 1, 31-66.

Yammarino, F. and Atwater, L. (1997) 'Do managers see themselves as others see them? Implications of self-other rating agreement for human resources management', *Organizational Dynamic*, Vol. 25, No. 4, 35-45.

Yammarino, F. and Dubinsky, A. (1994) 'Transformational leadership theory: Using levels of analysis to determine boundary conditions', *Personal Psychology*, Vol. 47, No. 4, 787-811.

Yammarino, F. J., Dubinsky, A. J., Comer, L. B., and Jolson, M. A. (1997) 'Women and transformational contingent reward leadership: A multiple-levels-of-analysis perspective', *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 40, No. 1, 205-222.

Yip, G.S (1995) 'Global Strategy: In a World of Nations', In C. A. Bartlett and S. Ghoshal (eds.), *Transnational Management: Text, Cases, and Reading in Cross – Border Management* , second edition, Boston, Irwin McGraw-Hill, 353-367.

Yousef, D. A. (1998) 'Correlates of perceived leadership style in a culturally mixed environment', *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 19, No. 5, 275-284.

Yukl, G. (1989) 'Managerial leadership: A review of theory and research', *Journal of Management*, Vol. 5, No. 2, 251-289.

Yukl, G. (1998) *Leadership in Organizations*, Fourth edition, New Jersey, Prentice Hall.

Appendix A: Australian expatriate manager questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE A: TO BE COMPLETED BY AN AUSTRALIAN EXPATRIATE MANAGER
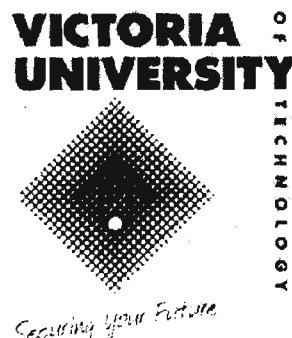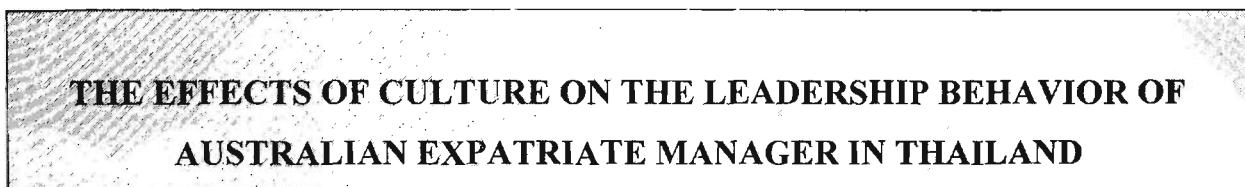
> ## THE EFFECTS OF CULTURE ON THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR OF AUSTRALIAN EXPATRIATE MANAGER IN THAILAND

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

Securing your Future

Nuttawuth Muenjohn (Ph.D. Student)

Department of Management

Victoria University of Technology

Victoria, Australia

Section A: Demographic Information

Section B: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Leader Form (5x-Short)

Section C: Copy of Final Report Request

Section D: Follow-Up Interviews

"Your cooperation and assistance in this regard is much appreciated"

Section A: Demographic Information

Sex ☐ Male ☐ Female

Age
☐ Less 30 ☐ 30 – 39 ☐ 40 – 49
☐ 50 –59 ☐ 60 +

Formal Education (Please choose highest only)
☐ High school ☐ Technical school ☐ Associates/Diplomas
☐ Bachelors ☐ Masters ☐ Doctorate/Professional
☐ Other

Organizational Level
☐ Top (Chief Executive or Operating Officer)
☐ Executive (Vice President, Director, Board Level Professional)
☐ Upper/Middle (Department Manager, Senior Staff, Supervisor)

How long have you been in the workforce?
☐ Less than 1 year ☐ 1-3 year/s ☐ More than 3 years

How long have you worked in Thailand?
☐ Less than 1 year ☐ 1-3 years ☐ More than 3 years

Nationality ☐ Australian ☐ Thai ☐ Other

Section B: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Leader Form (5x-Short)

** Under a condition granting the MLQ research permission, the MLQ (5x) is not showed in this appendix. Any enquiries regarding the MLQ research permission. please contact the Australia Distributor for publisher Mind Garden Ins (USA) – O.E.Consultancy/MLQ Pty. Ltd., PO BOX 199, Hawthorn, Victoria, Australia (Tel: 61-3-9818 8244, email: info@mlq.com.au)**

Section D: Copy of Final Report Request

Copy of the highlights of final report ☐ Yes ☐ No

Section E: Follow-Up Interviews

If you are willing to be interviewed by telephone or face to face around 10-20 minutes to clarify some issues raised by this survey, please enclose your business card or fill your contact address below. We will separate surveys form section D. before processing the results in order to ensure anonymity of responses is maintained.
Surname.......................First name..............................
Contact address ....Telephone ....
"THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT" "AFTER COMPLETING A QUESTIONNAIRE PLEASE RETURN IT IN A GIVEN ENVELOPE"

Appendix B: Thai subordinate questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE B: TO BE COMPLETED BY A THAI SUBORDINATE OF AN AUSTRALIAN MANAGER

THE EFFECTS OF CULTURE ON THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR OF AUSTRALIAN EXPATRIATE MANAGER IN THAILAND

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY

TECHNOLOGY

Securing your Future.
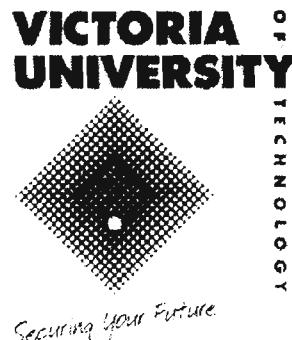
Nuttawuth Muenjohn (Ph.D. Student)

Department of Management

Victoria University of Technology

Victoria, Australia

Section A: Demographic Information

Section B: Values Survey Module

Section C: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Rater Form (5x-Short)

"Your cooperation and assistance in this regard is much appreciated"

Section A: Demographic Information

Sex   □ Male   □ Female

Age

□ Less 30   □ 30 – 39   □ 40 – 49
□ 50 –59   □ 60 +

Formal Education (Please choose highest only)

□ High school □ Technical school   □ Associates/Diplomas
□ Bachelors   □ Masters   □Doctorate/Professional
□ Other

Organizational Level

□ Top (Chief Executive or Operating Officer)
□ Executive (Vice President, Director, Board Level Professional)
□ Upper/Middle (Department Manager, Senior Staff, Supervisor)
□ Staff

How long have you been in the workforce?

□ Less than 1 year   □ 1-3 year/s   □ More than 3 years

Section B: Values Survey Module

Please think of an ideal job - disregarding your present job. In choosing an ideal job how important would it be to you? Please circle one answer number in each line across:

Use this key for the five possible responses to items 1-7				
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Of utmost Important	Very Importance	Of moderate Importance	Of little Importance	Of very little or no importance

1. Have sufficient time left for your personal or family life.   1 2 3 4 5
2. Have good physical working conditions (good ventilation   1 2 3 4 5
    and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)
3. Work with people who cooperate well with one another.   1 2 3 4 5
4. Live in an area desirable to you and your family.   1 2 3 4 5
5. Have security of employment.   1 2 3 4 5
6. Have an opportunity for high earning.   1 2 3 4 5
7. Have an opportunity for advancement to higher level   1 2 3 4 5
    jobs.

__The descriptions below apply to four different types of managers. First, please read through these descriptions:__

Manager 1: Usually makes his/her decisions promptly and communicates them to his/her subordinates clearly and firmly. He/she expects them to carry out the decisions loyally and without raising difficulties.

Manger 2: Usually makes his/her decisions promptly, but before going ahead, tries to explain them fully to his/her subordinates. He/she gives them the reasons for the decisions and answers whatever questions they may have.

Manager 3: Usually consults with his/her subordinates before he/she reaches his/her decisions. He/she listens to their advice, considers it and then announces his/her decisions. He/she then expects all to work loyally to implement it whether or not it is in accordance with the advice they gave.

Manager 4: Usually calls a meeting of his/her subordinates when there is an important decision to be made. He/she puts the problem before the group and invites discussion. He/she accepts the majority viewpoint as the decision.

8. Now for the above types of manager, please make the *one* which you would prefer to work under (circle one answer number only):
1. Manager 1
2. Manager 2
3. Manager 3
4. Manager 4

9. And, to which *one* of the above four types of managers would you say your own superior/colleague *most closely corresponds*?
1. Manager 1
2. Manager 2
3. Manager 3
4. Manager 4
5. He/she does not correspond closely to any of them.

10. How often do you feel nervous or tense at work?
1. I always feel this way
2. Usually
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. I never feel this way

11. *Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statement*: "A company or organisation's rules should not be broken – not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest."
   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Undecided
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly disagree

12. How frequently, in your work environment, are subordinates afraid to express disagreement with their superiors?
   1. Very frequently
   2. Frequently
   3. Sometimes
   4. Seldom
   5. Very seldom

13. How long do you think you will continue working for the organization or company you work for now?
   1. Two years at the most
   2. From two to five years
   3. More than five years (but I will probably leave before I retire)
   4. Until I retire

Section C: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5x-Short)

** Under a condition granting the MLQ research permission, the MLQ (5x) is not showed in this appendix. Any enquiries regarding the MLQ research permission, please contact the Australia Distributor for publisher Mind Garden Ins (USA) – O.E.Consultancy/MLQ Pty. Ltd., PO BOX 199, Hawthorn, Victoria, Australia (Tel: 61-3-9818 8244, email: info@mlq.com.au)**

"THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT" "AFTER COMPLETING A QUESTIONNAIRE PLEASE RETURN IT IN A GIVEN ENVELOPE"

Appendix C: Translated questionnaire into Thai language for Thai subordinates

QUESTIONNAIRE B: TO BE COMPLETED BY A THAI SUBORDINATE

อิทธิพลทางวัฒนธรรมที่มีต่อพฤติกรรมการเป็นผู้นำของ
ผู้จัดการชาวออสเตรเลียในประเทศไทย

นายณัฐวุฒิ หมื่นจร (นักศึกษาปริญญาเอก)

ภาควิชาการจัดการ
มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีวิคทอเรีย

รัฐวิคทอเรีย ออสเตรเลีย

หมวด **A:**
ข้อมูลเรื่องประชากร
หมวด **B:**
หน่วยวัดการสำรวจค่านิยม
หมวด **C:** แบบสอบถามหน่วยวัดค่าการสำรวจปัจจัยการเป็นผู้นำ

*ความช่วยเหลือและความร่วมมือของท่านในการสำรวจครั้งนี้จะมี
ค่ากับเราเป็นอย่างมาก*

หมวด A: ข้อมูลเรื่องประชากร

เพศ   ☐ ชาย   ☐ หญิง

อายุ
☐ ต่ำกว่า 30   ☐ 30 – 39   ☐ 40 - 49
☐ 50 – 59   ☐ 60 +

วุฒิการศึกษา (ระดับสูงสุดเท่านั้น)
☐ มัธยมศึกษา   ☐ ร.ร.เทคนิค   ☐ อนุปริญญาสมทบ
☐ ปริญญาตรี   ☐ ปริญญาโท   ☐ ปริญญาเอก
☐ อื่นๆ

ตำแหน่งหน้าที่ในการทำงาน
☐   ระดับสูงสุด(หัวหน้าฝ่ายบริหารหรือผู้ดำเนินกิจการ)
☐ ผู้บริหาร(รองประธาน,กรรมการ ,ระดับอาชีพในคณะกรรมการ)
☐ ระดับอาวุโส/ระดับกลาง (ผู้จัดการฝ่าย , พนักงานอาวุโส , ผู้คุมงาน)
☐ พนักงาน

คุณทำงานในที่ทำงานปัจจุบันนานเท่าไหร่
☐ ต่ำกว่า 1 ปี   ☐ 1 – 3 ปี   ☐ มากกว่า 3 ปี

สัญชาติ   ☐ ไทย   ☐ อื่นๆ

หมวด B: หน่วยวัดการสำรวจค่านิยม

โปรดคิดถึงงานในอุดมคติของท่านโดยไม่คำนึงถึงงานที่ท่านทำอยู่ในขณะนี้
แล้วพิจารณาดูว่างานในอุดมคติของท่านมีความสำคัญต่อตัวท่านเพียงใด
เขียนวงกลมรอบตัวเลขคำตอบของท่านในแต่ละข้อเพียงคำตอบเดียว นั่นคือ

1	2	3	4	5
สำคัญที่สุด	สำคัญมาก	สำคัญปานกลาง	สำคัญเล็กน้อย	ไม่สำคัญเลย

ใช้ตัวเลขทั้ง 5 ตัวนี้เป็นกุญแจไขคำตอบข้อ 1 - 7 ดังต่อไปนี้คือ

1.	ต้องเป็นงานที่มีเวลาว่างเพียงพอสำหรับตัวท่านเองหรือชีวิตครอบครัวของท่าน	1	2	3	4	5
2.	สถานที่ทำงานต้องอยู่ในสภาพที่ดี(เช่นระบบถ่ายเทอากาศดีและมีแสงสว่างและบริเวณที่ทำงานกว้างขวางพอ	1	2	3	4	5
3.	ต้องทำงานกับคนที่ให้ความร่วมมือเป็นอย่างดี	1	2	3	4	5

4.	บ้านพักตั้งอยู่ในบริเวณที่ท่านและครอบครัวชอบ	1	2	3	4	5
5.	เป็นอาชีพที่มั่นคง	1	2	3	4	5
6.	มีโอกาสที่จะได้ค่าจ้างค่าแรงสูง	1	2	3	4	5
7.	มีโอกาสก้าวหน้าไปรับตำแหน่งสูงขึ้น	1	2	3	4	5

คำบรรยายลักษณะข้างล่างนี้เป็นลักษณะของผู้จัดการ4ประเภทต่างๆกันที่จะใช้ตอบคำถามที่ 8 และ 9 แต่โปรดอ่านคำบรรยายเหล่านี้ก่อน

ผู้จัดการประเภทที่ 1 :
ตามปกติจะตัดสินใจทันทีและติดต่อบอกกล่าวให้ผู้ที่อยู่ใต้บังคับบัญชาทราบอย่างชัดเจนและเด็ดขาดเขาคาดว่าลูกน้องจะปฏิบัติตามคำสั่งของเขาด้วยความซื่อสัตย์และไม่มีข้อขัดข้องใดๆ

ผู้จัดการประเภทที่ 2 :
ตามปกติจะตัดสินใจทันทีแต่ก่อนที่จะดำเนินการต่อไปเขาจะพยายามอธิบายให้ลูกน้องเข้าใจโดยละเอียดเขาจะชี้แจงเหตุผลของการตัดสินใจและตอบคำถามทุกข้อที่ลูกน้องอาจจะยกขึ้นมาถาม

ผู้จัดการประเภทที่ 3 :
ตามปกติจะปรึกษาหารือลูกน้องของเขาก่อนที่จะตัดสินใจรับฟังและพิจารณาข้อเสนอแนะของลูกน้องแล้วจึงจะแถลงการตัดสินใจของเขาและคาดว่าลูกน้องทุกคนจะทำงานด้วยความซื่อสัตย์เพื่อให้เป็นไปตามแผนของเขาไม่ว่าจะสอดคล้องกับข้อเสนอแนะของพนักงานหรือไม่

ผู้จัดการประเภทที่ 4 :
ตามปกติจะเรียกประชุมลูกน้องเมื่อมีเรื่องสำคัญที่เขาจะต้องตัดสินใจเขาจะเสนอประเด็นสำคัญนี้ต่อที่ประชุมแล้วเชิญชวนให้ลูกน้องเสนอข้อคิดเห็นก่อนที่เขาจะตัดสินใจตามความเห็นส่วนใหญ่

8.ต่อไปนี้ผู้จัดการประเภทไหนที่ท่านชอบทำงานด้วยโปรดเขียนวงกลมรอบตัวเลขที่ท่านเลือกเพียงประเภทเดียว
    1. ผู้จัดการประเภทที่ 1
    2. ผู้จัดการประเภทที่ 2
    3. ผู้จัดการประเภทที่ 3
    4. ผู้จัดการประเภทที่ 4

9. ผู้จัดการประเภทไหนที่ท่านคิดว่าใกล้เคียงกับผู้ที่ท่านทำงานอยู่ใต้สังกัดจริงๆในขณะนี้มากที่สุด
    1. ผู้จัดการประเภทที่ 1
    2. ผู้จัดการประเภทที่ 2
    3. ผู้จัดการประเภทที่ 3
    4. ผู้จัดการประเภทที่ 4
    5. เขาหรือเธอไม่ใกล้เคียงผัจัดการทุกประเภทที่กล่าวมา

10. ท่านรู้สึกหงุดหงิดกังวลใจหรือเครียดระหว่างเวลาทำงานบ่อยๆแค่ไหน ?
    1. ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกเช่นนี้อยู่เสมอ
    2. ตามปกติจะรู้สึกเครียด
    3. รู้สึกเช่นนี้เป็นครั้งคราว
    4. รู้สึกนานๆครั้ง
    5. ไม่เคยรู้สึกเช่นนี้เลย

11. เขียนวงกลมตรงข้อที่เป็นคำตอบของท่านว่าท่านเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยกับถ้อยคำต่อ ไปนี้ "กฎระเบียบของบริษัทหรือองค์การไม่ควรจะถูกละเมิดถึงแม้ลูกจ้างจะคิดว่าทำไปเพื่อ เห็นแก่ผลประโยชน์ขององค์การ"

    1. เห็นด้วยอย่างแข็งขัน
    2. เห็นด้วย
    3. ลังเลใจ
    4. ไม่เห็นด้วย
    5. ไม่เห็นด้วยเด็ดขาด

12. บ่อยครั้งแค่ไหนในสถานที่ทำงานของท่านที่ลูกน้องไม่กล้าแสดงความเห็นขัดแย้ง กับผู้ที่มีตำแหน่งหน้าที่สูงกว่าตน

    1. บ่อยมาก
    2. บ่อยๆ
    3. เป็นครั้งคราว
    4. นานๆครั้ง
    5. แทบจะไม่เคยปรากฏเลย

13. ท่านคิดว่าจะทำงานกับบริษัทหรือองค์การที่ท่านทำอยู่ขณะนี้ต่อไปอีกนานเท่าไร ?

    1. ไม่เกิน 2 ปี
    2. ระหว่าง 2 – 5 ปี
    3. นานกว่า 5 ปี (แต่อาจจะลาออกก่อนครบเกษียณ)
    4. จนกว่าจะครบเกษียณ

หมวด C : แบบสอบถามหน่วยวัดค่าการสำรวจปัจจัยการเป็นผู้นำ

** Under a condition granting the MLQ research permission, the MLQ (5x) is not showed in this appendix. Any enquiries regarding the MLQ research permission, please contact the Australia Distributor for publisher Mind Garden Ins (USA) – O.E.Consultancy/MLQ Pty. Ltd., PO BOX 199, Hawthorn, Victoria, Australia (Tel: 61-3-9818 8244, email: info@mlq.com.au)**

ขอบคุณสำหรับความช่วยเหลือของท่านในโครงการสำรวจครั้งนี้
หลังจากตอบคำถามเสร็จแล้วกรุณาใส่ซองที่สอดมาให้แล้วส่งกลับไป

Appendix D: Interview questions

Name...**Organisation**................................
Address...
Tel:...

Your Function:

☐ Accounting ☐ Medicine ☐ Administration ☐ Operations
☐ Advertising/ Public Relations ☐ Credit/ Finance ☐ Sales
☐ Research & Development ☐ Education ☐ Engineering
☐ Social service ☐ Law ☐ Marketing
☐ Other

Organizational Level

☐ Top (Chief Executive or Operating Officer)
☐ Executive (Vice President, Director, Board Level Professional)
☐ Upper/Middle (Department Manager, Senior Staff, Supervisor)

Type of Organization

☐ Manufacturing ☐ Education ☐ Retail/ Wholesale
☐ Construction ☐ Transport ☐ Import/Export
☐ Government/Public Sector ☐ Non-Profit
☐ Other _____

1. How long have you worked in Thailand?
....

2. How many Thai subordinates report directly to you?
....

3. Do you notice any differences between Australian and Thai culture that effect your management? If yes, please explain.
Yes...... No......
....
....
....

4. Do you think these cultural differences are a major problem for you when you are working in Thailand? Why?
Yes......... No..........
....
....
....
....

5. How much do these differences effect your leadership? Please explain.
Very Much.....   Much.....   Moderate.......   Little.......   No at all...

....
....
....

6. How would you define leadership?

....
....
....
....

7. Are there any particular ways in which you manage your Thai staff that is different from
    the ways you would manage in Australia? E.g.,
*   Are you more or less autocratic in Thailand than in Australia?
*   Do Thai staffs give more respect to you than Australian staffs do?
*   Are Thai staffs unwilling to disagree with you as a boss?

....
....
....
....

8. What leadership styles, in your opinion, most appropriate and effective for dealing with
    Thai subordinates?

....
....
....

9. How would you describe the relationship between you as a leader and your Thai staff in
    Thailand?

....
....
....

10. Do you have any recommendations for other Australian managers who are working or
    intending to work in Thailand, regarding leadership issues?

....
....

Appendix E: Measurement of scores on the four cultural dimensions

Given below are the items from the Values Survey Module (VSM) used for the measurement of scores on the four cultural dimensions:

Power Distance Index
The descriptions below apply to four different types of managers. First, please read through these descriptions:

Manager 1: Usually makes his/her decisions promptly and communicates them to his/her subordinates clearly and firmly. He/she expects them to carry out the decisions loyally and without raising difficulties. **(Represents autocratic style)**

Manger 2: Usually makes his/her decisions promptly, but, before going ahead, tries to explain them fully to his/her subordinates. He/she gives them the reasons for the decisions and answers whatever questions they may have. **(Represents paternalistic style)**

Manager 3: Usually consults with his/her subordinates before he/she reaches his/her decisions. He/she listens to their advice, considers it and then announces his/her decisions. He/she then expects all to work loyally to implement it whether or not it is in accordance with the advice they gave. **(Represents consultative style)**

Manager 4: Usually calls a meeting of his/her subordinates when there is an important decision to be made. He/she puts the problem before the group and invites discussion. He/she accepts the majority viewpoint as the decision. **(Represents participative style)**

PDI 1 "Prefer manager". Now for the above types of manager, please indicate the *one* which you would prefer to work under (circle one answer number only):
1. Manager 1
2. Manager 2
3. Manager 3
4. Manager 4

PDI 2 "Perceived manager". And, to which *one* of the above four types of managers would you say your own superior/colleague *most closely corresponds*?
1. Manager 1
2. Manager 2
3. Manager 3
4. Manager 4
5. He/she does not correspond closely to any of them.

PDI 3 "Employees afraid". How frequently, in your work environment, are subordinates afraid to express disagreement with their superiors?
1. Very frequently
2. Frequently
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Very seldom

PDI = 135 – PDI 1 + PDI 2 – 25 (PDI 3)
Where   PDI 1 = The percentage of 'Manager 3'
                 PDI 2 = The percentage of 'Manager 1' plus 'Manager 2'
                 PDI 3 = The mean score of item No. PDI 3

Uncertainty Avoidance Index

UAI 1 "Stress". How often do you feel nervous or tense at work?
   1. I always feel this way
   2. Usually
   3. Sometimes
   4. Seldom
   5. I never feel this way

UAI 2 "Employment stability". How long do you think you will continue working for the organization or company you work for now?
   1. Two years at the most
   2. From two to five years
   3. More than five years (but I will probably leave before I retire)
   4. Until I retire

UAI 3 "Rule orientation". Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statement: "A company or organisation's rules should not be broken – not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest."
   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Undecided
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly disagree

UAI = 300 – 40 (UAI 1) – 30 (UAI 3) – UAI 2
Where UAI 1 = The mean score of item No. UAI 1
          UAI 2 = The percentage of '2 years at the most' plus 'from 2 to 5 years'
          UAI 3 = The mean score of item No. UAI 3

Individualism Index

Please think of an ideal job - disregarding your present job. In choosing an ideal job, how important would it be to you? Please circle one answer number in each line across:

Use this key for the five possible responses to items 1-7				
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Of utmost Important	Very Importance	Of moderate Importance	Of little Importance	Of very little or no importance

IDV 1. "personal time"	Have sufficient time left for your personal or family life.	1	2	3	4	5
IDV 2. "physical conditions"	Have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
IDV 3. "cooperation"	Work with people who cooperate well with one another.	1	2	3	4	5
IDV 4. "desirable area"	Live in an area desirable to you and your family.	1	2	3	4	5

IDV = 76 (IDV 2) – 43 (IDV 1) + 30 (IDV 3) – 27 (IDV 4) –29
Where   IDV 1, IDV 2, IDV 3, and IDV 4 are means for items No. IDV 1, IDV 2, IDV 3, and IDV 4, respectively.

Masculinity Index

Please think of an ideal job - disregarding your present job. In choosing an ideal job, how important would it be to you? Please circle one answer number in each line across:

Use this key for the five possible responses to items 1-7				
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Of utmost Important	Very Importance	Of moderate Importance	Of little Importance	Of very little or no importance

MAS 1. "employment security"	Have security of employment.	1	2	3	4	5
MAS 2. "cooperation"	Work with people who cooperate well with one another.	1	2	3	4	5
MAS 3. "earning"	Have an opportunity for high earning.	1	2	3	4	5
MAS 4. "advancement"	Have an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs.	1	2	3	4	5

MAS = 60 (MAS 2) – 66 (MAS 3) + 30 (MAS 1) – 39 (MAS 4) + 76
Where   MAS 1, MAS 2, MAS 3, MAS 4 are means for the items No. MAS 1, MAS 2, MAS 3, MAS 4 respectively.
(Source Singh, 1990, p. 97-100)

Appendix F: Letter of introduction to the research for Australian expatriate manager

Dear Sir or Madam:

I am Nuttawuth Muenjohn, a Ph.D. student of the Victoria University of Technology, Victoria, Australia. I am writing to invite you and your Thai subordinate/s to participate in my research project that explores *the effects of Thai culture on the leadership behavior of Australian expatriate managers in Thailand.*

The purposes of this research are to investigate the relationships between Thai culture and the leadership behavior of Australian expatriate managers who are working in Thailand and make recommendations for their appropriate leadership styles to lead Thai subordinates effectively in a Thai cultural environment. Your participation is important, as the information and advice you and your Thai subordinate/s give will assist Australian expatriate managers, who are working or intending to work in Thailand, to better understand the dominant Thai culture. By greater understanding with Thai culture, Australian expatriates will be able to develop an idea of how to lead their Thai subordinates effectively in Thailand.

What will I have to do if I decide to participate?
You will receive copies of questionnaires. **Questionnaire A**, 1 copy, to be completed by you, as an Australian expatriate managers (take about 10-15 minutes to complete). Then you choose 2 direct-reporting Thai subordinates (or 1 subordinate if you have 1 Thai subordinate) asking them to complete **Questionnaire B**. Then, forward them separately in the attached addressed envelope.

Finally, I am confident that the results from the research project will provide useful information for Australian expatriate managers who are working or intending to work in Thailand.

Yours sincerely,

Nuttawuth Muenjohn
Department of Management
Victoria University of Technology
Melbourne, Australia

Appendix G: Covering letter with Questionnaire for Australian expatriate manager

Dear Sir or Madam:

Attached:

- Consent form for the subjects involved in research
- 1 copy of questionnaire A (To be completed by Australian manager)
- 2 copies of questionnaire B (To be completed by Thai subordinates)
- 3 self addressed envelops

I am Nuttawuth Muenjohn, a Ph.D. student of the Victoria University of Technology, Victoria, Australia. I am writing to invite you and your Thai subordinate/s to participate in my research project that explores *the effects of Thai culture on the leadership behavior of Australian expatriate managers in Thailand*. As with any research, there are a number of important issues I would like to bring your attention to. If after having read through this letter you would like clarification, I and my supervisor, Associate Professor Anona Armstrong, would be happy to provide further informational by telephoning us at 61-3-9248-1077 or 61-3-9248-1037.

The Aims of the study
The purposes of this research are to investigate the relationships between Thai culture and the leadership behavior of Australian expatriate managers who are working in Thailand and make recommendations for their appropriate leadership styles to lead Thai subordinates effectively in a Thai cultural environment.

Confidentiality
Before carrying out the research project, I had to submit my proposal to the University Human Research Ethic Committee. This submission deals specifically with the issue of confidentiality of informational provided by respondents. Therefore, the information that I gather from the survey will be treated confidentially and only used for academic purposes. This means that data will be aggregated so that individual responses can not be recognized.

What will my organization and me gain from participating?
Your participation is important, as the information and advice you and your Thai subordinate/s give will assist Australian expatriate managers, who are working or intending to work in Thailand, to better understand the dominant Thai culture. By greater understanding with Thai culture, Australian expatriates will be able to develop an idea of how to lead their Thai subordinates effectively in Thailand.

What will I have to do if I decide to participate?
You will receive copies of questionnaires. **Questionnaire A**, 1 copy, to be completed by you, as an Australian expatriate managers (take about 10-15 minutes to complete). Then you select 2 of your direct-reporting Thai subordinates (or 1 subordinate if you have 1 Thai subordinate) asking them to complete **Questionnaire B**. Then, forward them separately in the attached addressed envelope.

What is I decide that I do not wish to participate?
You are under no obligation to participate. It is entirely at your discretion. Finally, I am confident that the results from the research project will provide useful information for Australian expatriate managers who are working or intending to work in Thailand.

Yours sincerely,

Nuttawuth Muenjohn
Department of Management
Victoria University of Technology
Melbourne, Australia

Appendix H: Covering letter with Thai Questionnaire for Thai subordinates (Thai language)

1 กรกฎาคม 2542

เรื่อง   ขอความกรุณากรอกแบบสอบถามงานวิจัย

เรียน   ผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยชาวไทยทุกท่าน

เอกสารแนบมาด้วย   - ใบเอกสารยินยอมการเข้าร่วมงานวิจัย

                                        - เอกสารแบบสอบถาม B

                                        - ซองจดหมายตอบกลับ

กระผมนาย ณัฐวุฒิ หมื่นจร นักศึกษาปริญญาเอก จากมหาวิทยาลัย Victoria University Of Technologyในประเทศออสเตรเลียกระผมเขียนจดหมายมาถึงท่านเพื่อขอเรียนเชิญเข้าร่วมในโครงการวิจัยเพื่อจัดเขียนวิทยานิพนธ์ปริญญาเอกในหัวข้อการศึกษาผลกระทบของวัฒนธรรมไทยที่มีผลต่อพฤติกรรมการเป็นผู้นำของผู้บริหารชาวชาวออสเตรเลียที่ทำงานในประเทศไทยซึ่งมีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างวัฒนธรรมไทยและพฤติกรรมการเป็นผู้นำของผู้บริหารชาวออสเตรเลียและจัดทำข้อเสนอแนะเกี่ยวกับพฤติกรรมที่เหมาะสมของการเป็นผู้นำของผู้จัดการชาวออสเตรเลียที่ต้องการมาทำงานในประเทศไทยสำหรับการศึกษาครั้งนี้จะช่วยให้ผู้บริหารชาวออสออสเตรเลียเข้าใจถึงรากฐานของวัฒนธรรมไทยโดยการเข้าใจในวัฒนธรรมไทยนั้นจะทำให้ผู้บริหารเหล่านี้มีความรู้ว่าจะทำอย่างไรจึงจะ ฯ นำ ผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชาชาวไทยให้มีประสิทธิภาพมากที่สุดในสังคมไทย

สำหรับประเด็นความลับของข้อมูลที่ท่านให้นั้น ก่อนการเริ่มงานวิจัยกระผมต้องเสนอวิธีปฏิบัติและวิธีเก็บข้อมูลที่ได้จากท่านต่อคณะกรรมการของคณะและมหาวิทยาลัยเพื่อความมั่นใจว่าข้อมูลทั้งหมดที่ได้รับมานั้นได้ถูกเก็บอย่างเป็นความลับและถูกใช้ในงานวิจัยทางด้านวิชาการเท่านั้น นอกจากนี้เพื่อให้มั่นใจว่าข้อมูลที่ท่านกรอกในแบบสอบถามจะเป็นความลับ ท่านไม่จำเป็นต้องระบุชื่อในแบบสอบถามและกระผมได้แนบซองตอบกลับให้ท่านแยกจากกัน หากท่านตัดสินใจที่จะเข้าร่วมงานวิจัยครั้งนี้ โปรดกรอกคำตอบในแบบสอบถาม B ซึ่งใช้เวลาประมาณ 10นาทีแล้วสอดแบบสอบถามในซองตอบกลับที่กระผมจัดเตียมให้และส่งเอกสารดังกล่าวทางไปรษณีย์ หากท่านมีข้อสงสัยประการใดกระผมและอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษางานวิจัยนี้มีความยินดีที่จะตอบคำถามของท่าน โดยสามารถโทร. ติดต่อกระผมได้ที่ (61-3) 9248-1077 หรือ ผู้ช่วยศาสตาจารย์ Anona Armstrong (61-3) 9248-1037 หรือ e-mail nuttawuth.muenjohn@students.vu.edu.au

สุดท้ายนี้กระผมมีความมั่นใจว่าผลจากข้อมูลที่ท่านให้มาจะมีประโยชน์ต่องานวิจัยทางวิชาการและภาคปฏิบัติที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการบริหารของผู้จัดการชาวออสเตรเลียที่ทำงานหรือที่ต้องการเข้ามาทำงานในประเทศไทยโดยเฉพาะพฤติกรรมการเป็นผู้นำที่มีผลกระทบต่อวัฒนธรรมไทย

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

นาย ณัฐวุฒิ หมื่นจร

Appendix I: Consent Form for Subjects Involved in Research

Victoria University of Technology

Consent Form for Subjects Involved in Research

INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS:

We would like to invite you to be a part of a study into:

"The effects of culture on the leadership behavior of Australian expatriate managers in Thailand"

CERTIFICATION BY SUBJECT

I,
of

certify that I am at least 17 years old and that I am voluntarily giving my consent to participate in the research being conducted at Victoria University of Technology by:

Associate Professor Anona F. Armstrong and Nuttawuth Muenjohn

I certify that the objectives of this research have been fully explained to me and that I freely consent to participation in the research

I certify that I have had the opportunity to have any questions answered and that I understand that I can withdraw from this experiment at any time and that this withdrawal will not jeopardise me in any way.

I have been informed that the information I provide will be kept confidential.

Signed: ....   }

Witness other than the experimenter: }   **Date:** ....

....}

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the researcher (Nuttawuth Muenjohn ph. 61-3-9248-1077). If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Secretary, University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University of Technology, PO Box 14428 MCMC, Melbourne, 8001 (telephone no: 03-9688 4710).

# Appendix J: Diagrammatic outputs of three proposed models from AMOS 4.0

One-Factor Model 1st Analysis

$x^2/df = 2.14$

GFI = .65

AGFI = .60

RMSEA = .09

e1	(II.A1)				(CR1)	e21
e2	(II.A2)				(CR2)	e22
e3	(II.A3)				(CR3)	e23
e4	(II.A4)				(CR4)	e24

.69
.60
.56
.34
.11
.54
.62
.56
.48
.36
.44
.66
.49
.53
.52
.63
.52
.43
.37
.73

.58
.63
.53
.52
.25
.26
.33
-.11

.06
-.33
-.08
-.43

-.40
-.32
-.28
-.27

e5	(II.B1)
e6	(II.B2)
e7	(II.B3)
e8	(II.B4)
e9	(IS1)
e10	(IS2)
e11	(IS3)
e12	(IS4)
e13	(IM1)
e14	(IM2)
e15	(IM3)
e16	(IM4)
e17	(IC1)
e18	(IC2)
e19	(IC3)
e20	(IC4)

Leadership

(MBE.A1)	e25
(MBE.A2)	e26
(MBE.A3)	e27
(MBE.A4)	e28
(MBE.P1)	e29
(MBE.P2)	e30
(MBE.P3)	e31
(MBE.P4)	e32
(LF1)	e33
(LF2)	e34
(LF3)	e35
(LF4)	e36

One-Factor Model 2ⁿᵈ Analysis (Global Leadership)

$$x^2/df = 1.61$$
$$GFI = .73$$
$$AGFI = .69$$
$$RMSEA = .06$$

Nuttawuth Muenjohn
The effect of culture on the leadership behavior of Australian expatriate managers in Thailand
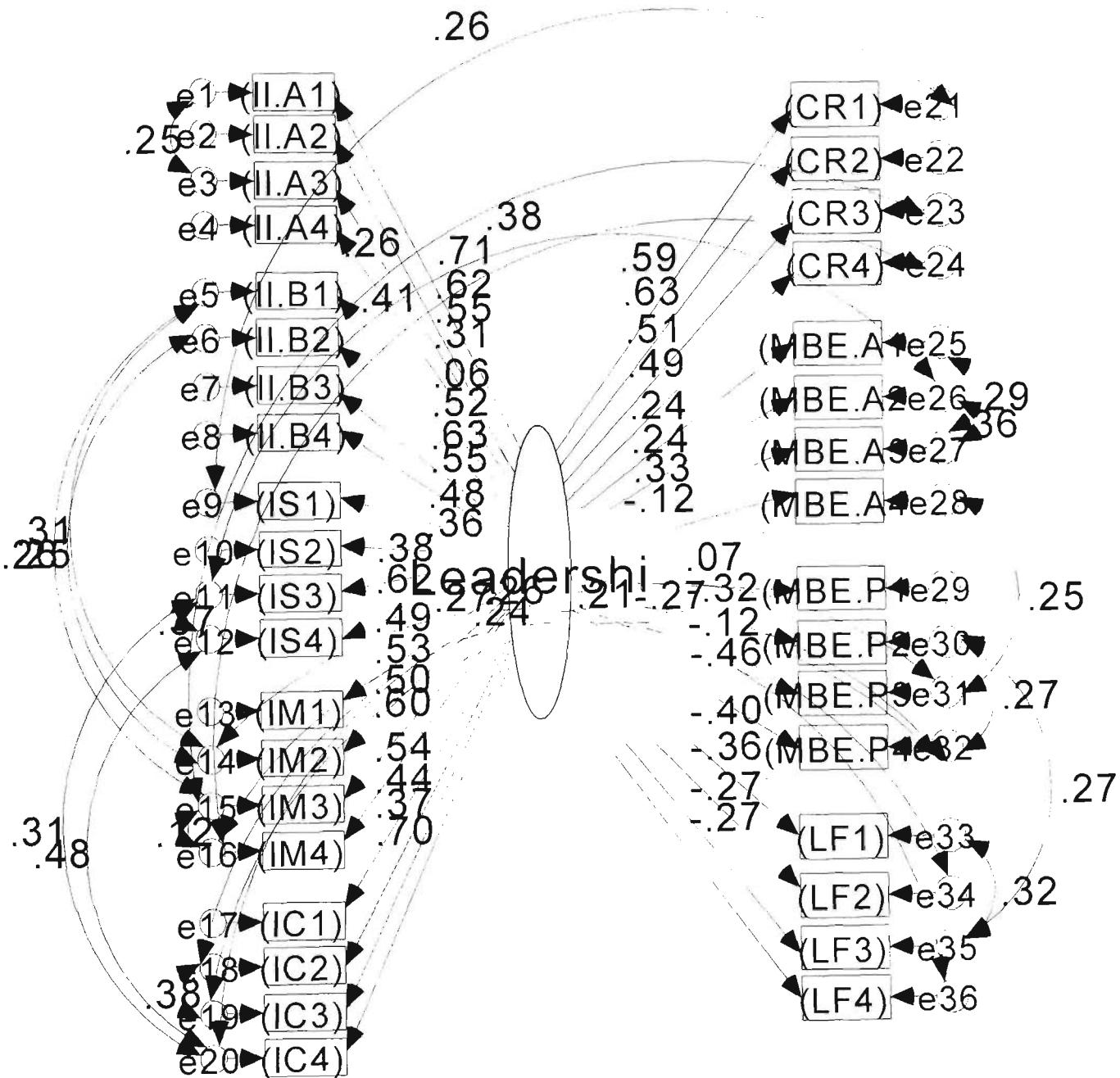
Three Correlated Factor Model 1st Analysis

$x^2/df = 2.08$
GFI = .66
AGFI = .62
RMSEA = .08
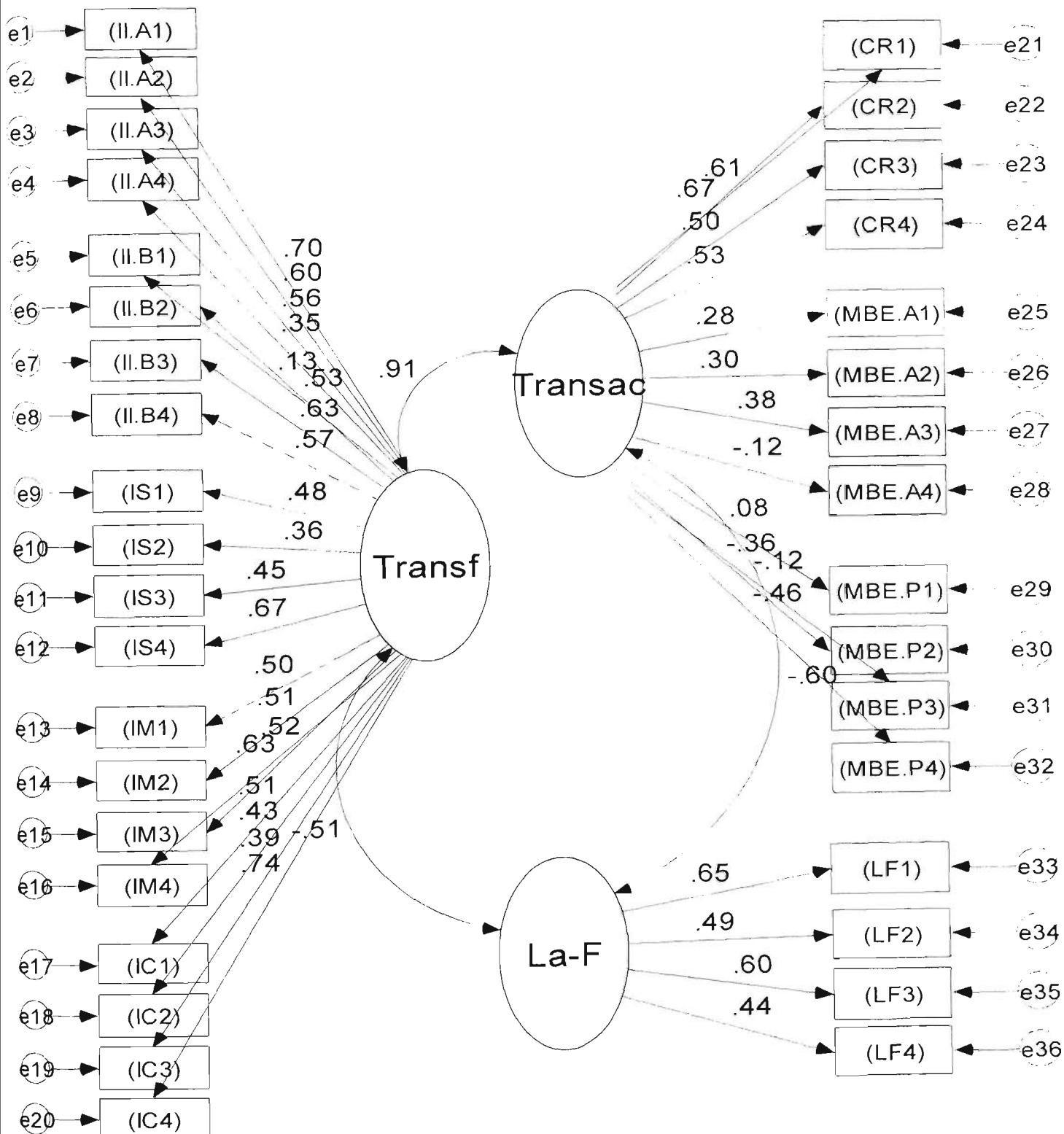
Three Correlated Factor Model 2nd Analysis
(Transformational, Transactional, and Laissez Leadership)

$x^2/df = 1.62$

GFI = .74

AGFI = .69

RMSEA = .07

Nuttawuth Muenjohn
The effect of culture on the leadership behavior of Australian expatriate managers in Thailand
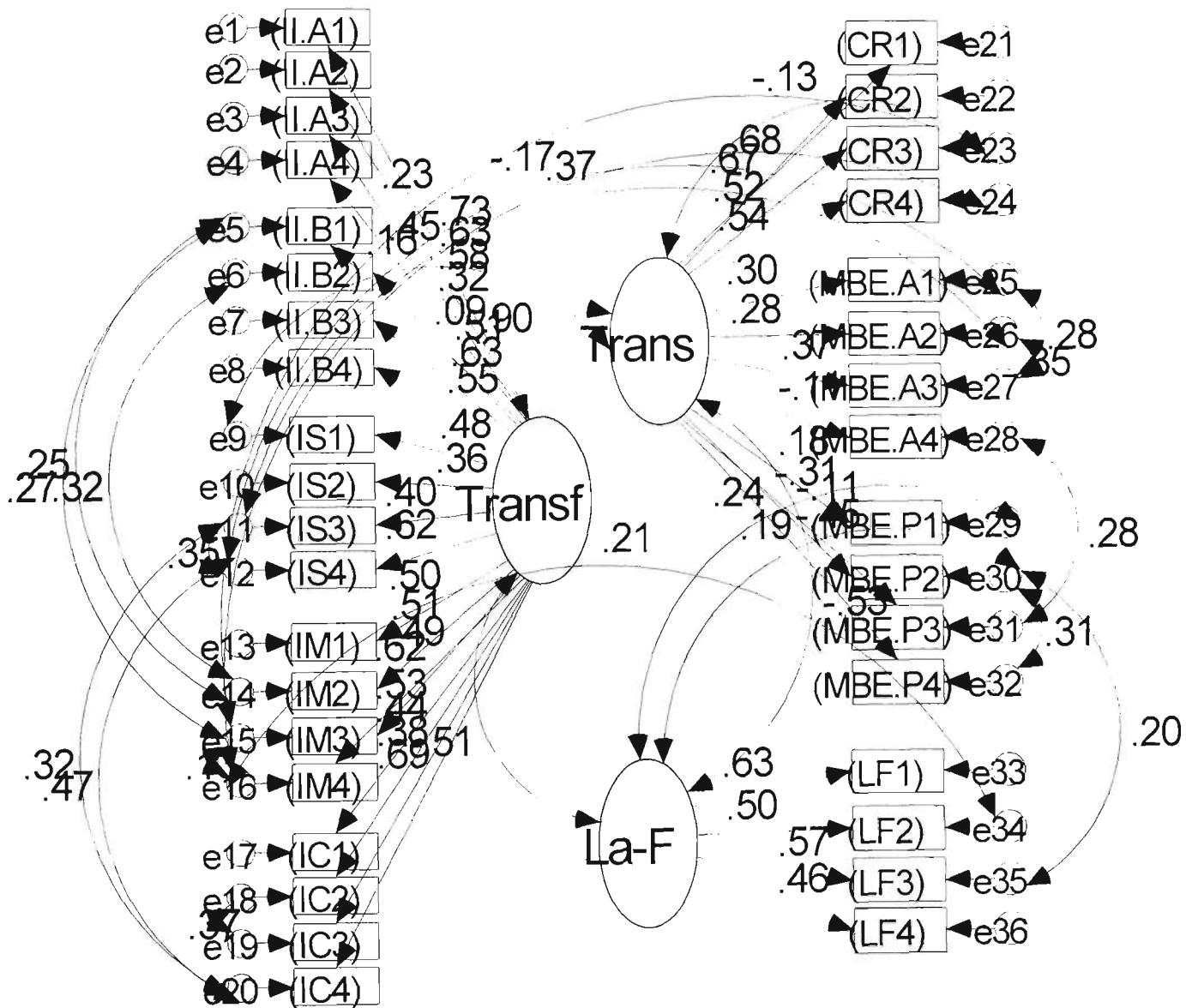
Nine Correlated Factor Model 1st Analysis

$x^2/df = 1.90$
GFI = .71
AGFI = .65
RMSEA = .08
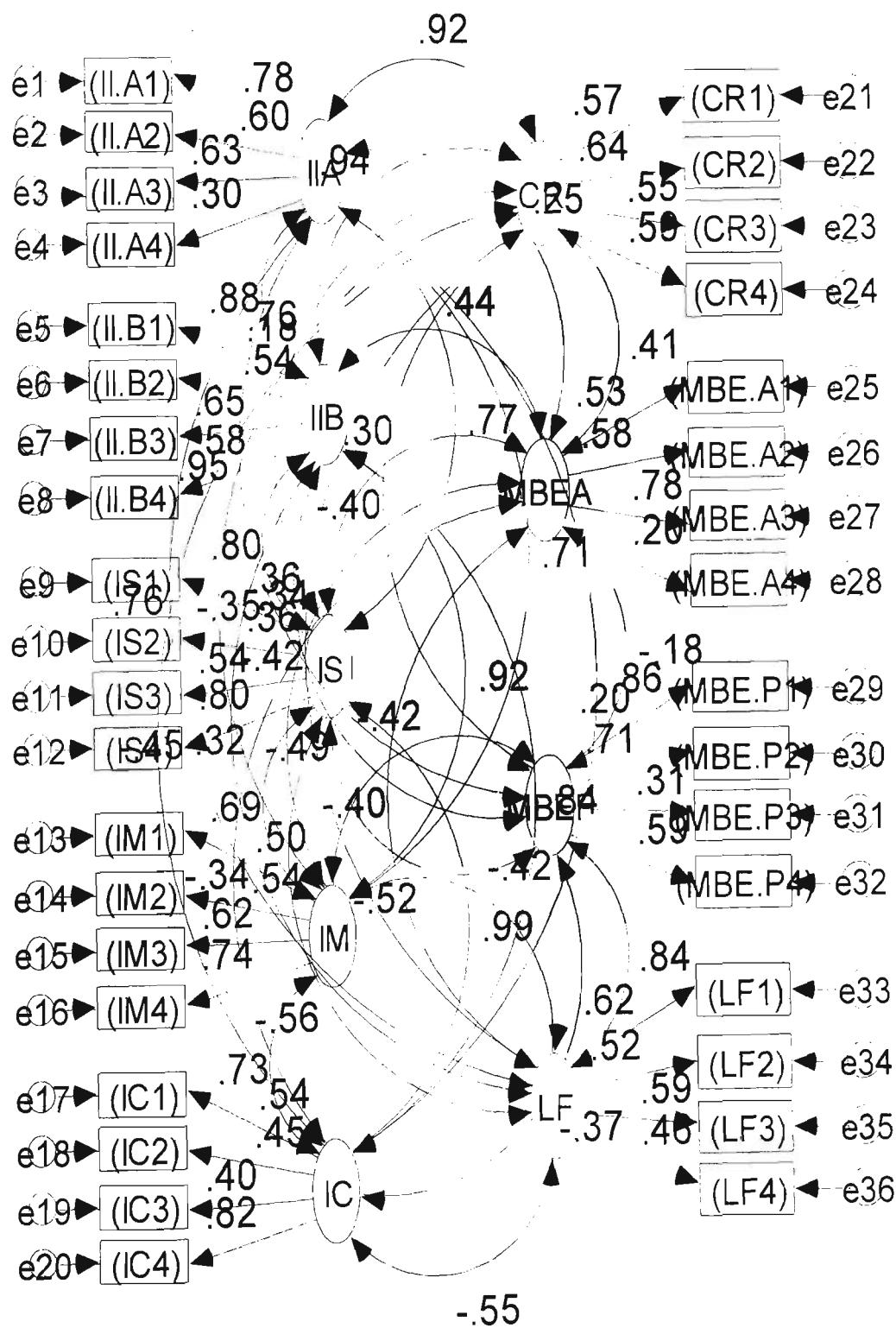
Nine Correlated Factor Model 2nd Analysis
(Full Leadership Model)

$x^2/df = 1.61$
GFI = .84
AGFI = .78
RMSEA = .03
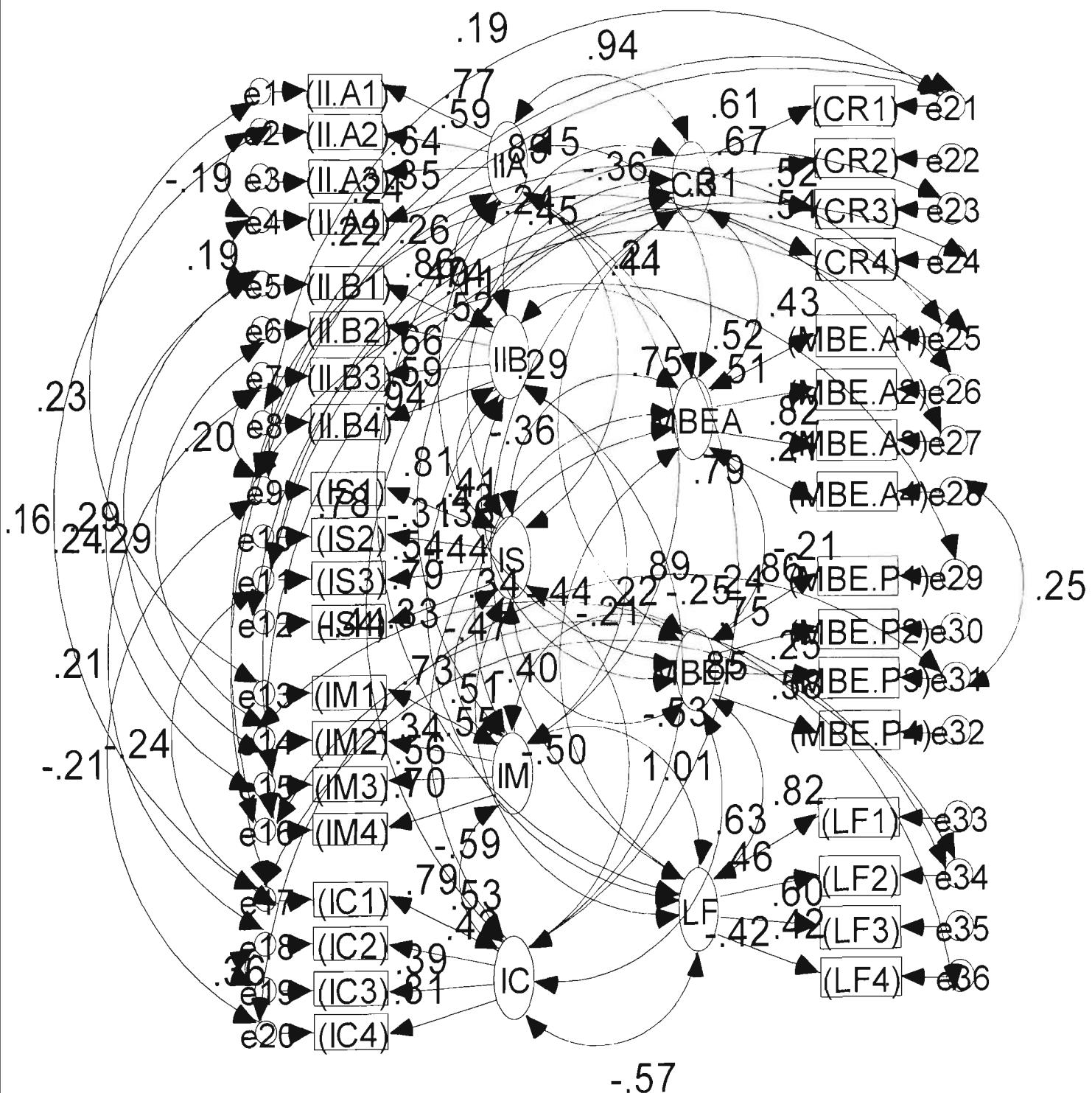
Appendix K: The MLQ permission

O.E.Consulta
ORGANISATION ENHANCEM ®

COPY

25th February, 1999

Dear Mr. Muenjohn,

Thank you for your recent application for an Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5x) Research Permission Set. I am pleased to say that the answers you have provided to the research conditions published on the O.E.Consultancy website are satisfactory and that your payment has been received.

Enclosed, please find a copy of the Manual (Technical Report), and the Permission Set which contains the Leader and Rater forms that may be reproduced (with the copyright notice intact) to the agreed quantity. Please note the conditions stated on the front cover of the Permission Set containing the forms and scoring key. The full Manual for the MLQ5x containing the validation studies and entitled 'Full Range Leadership Development' (1997; 169pp) is also available for sale.

O.E.Consultancy is the distributor for Mind Garden Inc. and all correspondence should be directed to this office.

We look forward to receiving the data from your research in due course. Should you require an extension license after one year from now please note the statements concerning this on the Permission Set front cover.

Yours faithfully,

Ray Elliott
Director,
O.E.Consultancy

Appendix L: Letter of ethics approval

Victoria University of Technology

PO Box 14428
Melbourne City
MC 8001 Australia

Telephone:
(03) 9248 1066
Facsimile:
(03) 9248 1064

City Flinders Campus
Faculty of Business and Law
300 Flinders Street
Melbourne

To Whom It May Concern

13 June 2001

Dear Madam/ Sir

This letter is to confirm that the Human Research Ethics Committee of Victoria University's Faculty of Business and Law approved the research proposal BHREC 99/2 *The Effects of Culture on the Leadership Behaviour of Australian Expatriate Managers in Thailand* on 15 April 1999. Copies of relevant correspondence are attached

Please contact me on 03-9248-1067 if you need any assistance or advice, or email me on Jean.Dawson@vu.edu.au

Yours sincerely

(Dr) Jean Dawson
Secretary, Human Research Ethics Committee
Faculty of Business and Law

Nuttawuth Muenjohn
The effect of culture on the leadership behavior of Australian expatriate managers in Thailand

Appendix M: Publications related to this thesis

Some parts of the current study were presented or accepted by international conferences.

Muenjohn, N. and Armstrong, A. (2000), '*Transformational Leadership: A Study of The Leadership Behavior of Australian Expatriate Managers in Thailand*', Paper presented at The Australian and New Zealand Academic of Management 2000 Conference, December 3-6, 2000, Sydney, Australia.

Muenjohn, N. and Armstrong, A. (2001), '*Leadership and Performance: The Impact of the Leadership Behaviors of Australian Expatriates on Work Outcomes*', Paper accepted by The 2001 International Conference in Management Sciences, June 2, 2001, Taiwan, ROC.

Muenjohn, N. and Armstrong, A. (2001), '*Exploring the Thai work-related values: Implications for expatriate managers*', Paper accepted by The Hawaii conference on Business, June 14-17, 2001, Honolulu, Hawaii, USA.

Muenjohn, N. and Armstrong A. (2001), '*Cross-Cultural Leadership: Identifying the key leadership behavior of Australian expatriates*', Paper accepted by The Hawaii conference on Business, June 14-17, 2001, Honolulu, Hawaii, USA.