The influence of power distance on leadership behaviours and styles
- Case studies of Japanese and French companies operating in Sweden.

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Sandhiya Goolaup
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ABSTRACT

As a result of globalization and increase interdependence of the world economies, people from different cultures are interacting more frequently. However, most problems and misunderstandings occur when members of one culture assumes that their own unconscious values and beliefs are equally appropriate in other cultures. Typically, this is more prominent in an international business setting where companies are increasingly operating outside their usual working environment and interacting more with people belonging to other cultures.

Even though, there are a huge number of studies which have focused on assessing the behaviours prevailing in different cultures and countries, we have noticed that there is a lack of literature aiming to find the leadership behaviours and styles becoming prevalent when there is a shift from one culture to another. More specifically, we have observed that there is a theoretical gap in the literature for understanding the behaviours which leaders adopt when they move from a high power distance culture to operate in a country classified as low power distance. Additionally, even on the basis of the extensive literature review conducted, it has been noticed that there are no studies which have aimed to find out the reasons behind adopting the prevailing leadership behaviours and styles.

To achieve the purpose of this study, a qualitative research design and semi structured interviews were conducted with twelve managers in two different companies. Typically, a French and a Japanese company (both classified with high power distance index) operating in Sweden (classified with low power distance index) were selected. The data was analyzed using grounded theory and appropriate coding (open and selective coding) was adopted to generate sub-categories and categories which would help to explain the phenomenon being studied. As a result of the analysis undertaken, we have found out that both companies belonging to the high power distance culture have adopted distinct leadership styles. Basically, the French company has adopted a directive leadership style owing to the increasing influence which it receives from the home culture whilst the Japanese company has adopted a participative leadership style. It has also been found that the prevailing leadership behaviours are because of a number of factors like; the management cultural beliefs, labour laws, local employees, decision making process, monitoring and supervision process and influence from the host culture.

Keywords: leadership styles, power distance, cross cultural leadership, leadership behaviours, path goal theory.
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

The idea behind this study is to assess the leadership styles and behaviours which companies from high power distance cultures adopt when they start to operate in a low power distance country. In relation to that, this chapter starts by highlighting how leadership styles from a cultural perspective has evolved, the importance of studying this topic and provides an overview of the major concepts. Thereafter, we provide an outline of the problems and clarify why it is important to have a study within the context of Sweden. Following these, the introduction concludes with the delimitation and an outline of the forthcoming chapters of this thesis in order to provide the reader with a clear organization of the thesis.

1.1 Background of the study

In this era of rapid globalization and increasing interdependence of the world economies, having an understanding of cultural differences influencing companies is becoming more and more important. Globalization affects mostly multinational companies as they are exposed to different working environments belonging to different nations and cultures. Even though globalization has brought many opportunities, it has also created many complex challenges. As highlighted by the CEO of Coca-Cola, “as economic borders come down, cultural barriers go up, presenting new challenges and opportunities in business” (Javidan and House 2001 p.291). In relation to that, an important challenge has always been in terms of understanding the cultural values and practices that are present in different parts of the world as there has been a misconception that the same behaviours are considered to be equally appropriate and applicable in every culture. Thus, given the importance of understanding how and why these cultural factors influence organizational behaviour, there has been a flux of studies in this field during the last few decades. Particularly, there has been an upsurge of studies which have focused on relating the concept of leadership styles and behaviour which are applicable and present in different cultural and national contexts (e.g., Yukl 1989, Suutari, 1996, Kuchinke 1999, Ardichvili 2001).

A review of the literature pertaining to cross cultural leadership depicts that most extant studies have focused on first the identification and measurement of cultural dimensions and then on using those dimensions to identify the prevailing leadership styles and behaviours in different contexts and nations. For instance, in a comparative study undertaken by Ardichvili and Kuchinke (2002), aiming to find out how leadership styles differ across six different countries (Russia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Germany and US) it was found that culture was having a major influence and there were significant difference in the leadership styles prevailing in each country. In this study the cultural framework of Hofstede (1980) was used. A review of the literature reveals that one of the most influential and widely used cultural dimensions is of Hofstede (1980, 2001). In his earlier study
Hofstede (1980) identified four cultural dimensions; individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance and power distance. Later, he added future orientation as a fifth and indulgence/restraint as a sixth dimension (Hofstede, 2001, 2010). Those six dimensions have basically focused on how a specific national culture can be characterized, how they perceive different behaviours, attitudes, beliefs and do things within the society and consequently in organizations.

Generally, one or most of the above mentioned dimensions have been used in various cross cultural leadership studies. Of particular interest, when studying leadership behaviours and styles within a specific culture, power distance has been deemed to be the most feasible indicator. Various studies have argued that although the other dimensions are equally important in dictating leadership styles and behaviours, however, power distance can provide the most specific indication as it directly analyses the relationship between the leaders and subordinates, compared to the other dimensions which consider more wider processes and structure within an organization (e.g., Smith, Peterson and Misumi 1994, Dorfman et al., 1997, Smith, Peterson and Schwartz 2002). According to Hofstede power distance is defined as “the extent to which the less powerful members of a society expect and accept that power is distributed unequally” (1980, p 45).

Within the context of cross cultural leadership, power distance has been used in dictating the leadership style and behaviours prevailing as it assesses the ways in which power and status are distributed in organizations. For instance, in high power distance countries like Japan and France (as classified by G. Hofstede, J. Hofstede and Minkov 2010, p.58-59), where all the powers are concentrated in the hands of the superiors, it is more likely that managers will adopt an authoritative leadership styles and will closely monitor their subordinates in order to lead to higher level of satisfaction, performance and productivity. In contrast, in low power distance countries like Sweden and United Kingdom (as classified by G. Hofstede, J. Hofstede and Minkov 2010, p.58-59), there is higher probability that there will be more focus on participative leadership and where subordinates will be consulted before taking any decisions, as such giving rise to collective decision makings. Thus, given those differences it becomes interesting and important to find out how do companies operate when they go outside their usual working environment and start to operate in cultures which are completely different from the cultures they belong to.

1.2 Problem Definition

Since Sweden has adopted the free trade policy there has been an increasing number of foreign owned companies which have been operating in the country. According to Statistics Sweden (2010) from 2001 till 2009, the percentage of foreign owned companies operating in Sweden have increased by around 54 percent. One of the biggest consistent increase in the number of foreign owned companies has traditionally focused on the Manufacturing and Service Industries and this is bound to increase even further in the future (Statistics Sweden, 2010 p. 62). Particularly it has been found that the number of foreign owned manufacturing companies is bound to experience the highest percentage increase in Sweden (Statistics Sweden, 2010 p. 63). This as such provide us the impetus to narrow our research to the manufacturing industry. Given this outburst of foreign manufacturing companies, there is high probability that companies having different power distance index will operate
in Sweden. Indeed, differences and clashes might arise as different cultures and nations have distinct ways of perceiving and doing things.

Dorfman et al., (1997, p.233) have also argued that there has been a general tendency to view most of the values as being universal rather than culturally specific. Basically, major problems can arise when members of one culture assumed that their own unconscious values and beliefs are equally appropriate in other cultures. Thus, as suggested by Javidan and House, this will create a demand for managers who are able to deal with people from other cultures and have appropriate knowledge about cultural differences and similarities among countries (2001 p. 292). In short, this acknowledges the importance of having culturally sensitive companies which are able to adjust their leadership styles and behaviours accordingly when working in a foreign environment.

A thorough analysis of the leadership literature within the cross cultural management context revealed that there has been a Herculean number of studies which have been conducted up to date and it is still gaining continuous attention (e.g., Ardichvili and Kuchinke, 2002, Smith, Dugan and Trompenaars, 1996, Suutari, 1996). Basically, most of the studies conducted to date have been involved in dictating which leadership styles and behaviours have proved to be the most appropriate depending on the prevailing culture and national context. Of utmost importance as highlighted by Dickson, Hartog and Mitchelson (2003 p.738), people from different cultures tend to associate different characteristics and behaviours typical to leaders belonging to different cultures. They further argued that in trying to dictate the most prevalent factors shaping such images of effective leadership, the cultural dimension of power distance has been the most prevalent (2003 p.739).

A more narrow review of leadership literature which has used power distance as a cultural dimension reveals that most of the studies that have used comparative researches up to now have produced mixed results (e.g., Kanungo and Mendonca 1996, Dorfman et al. 1997, Bu, Craig and Peng 2001). For instance, in a study conducted by Mellahi who took a completely different approach to assess the origins of leadership perceptions of Asian, Arab and African managers (who had received a Westernized MBA education) found that they were having similar leadership values and styles (2000 p. 305). On the other hand, the majority of studies have showed that usually leaders cannot choose their styles at will but what is feasible depends to a large extent on the cultural conditioning of a leader’s subordinates (Dorfman et al.1997, Kuchinke 1999). In another study conducted by Dorfman et al., (1997) who compared the leaders’ behaviour in five countries (United States, Mexico, Japan, Taiwan and South Korea) found that differences in power distance between those countries did have an impact on the leadership styles adopted. Based on their findings, they argued that in countries relatively high in power distance like Mexico and Taiwan, directive leadership had positive impact while countries relatively low on power distance index, like United States and South Korea have more preference towards a participative leadership (1997 p.264-265). Similarly, Kuchinke’s (1999, p. 35) survey revealed that Germans have a preference for more transactional leadership style (reward-oriented) compared to American who are more adept to transformational style (creation of positive changes in the followers).

Generally, most of the cross cultural leadership studies which have been conducted to date have focused on finding out what kind of leadership values, behaviours and styles are more
prevalent in different cultural contexts and countries. Consequently, there is also a lack of studies which have explored the kind of leadership styles and behaviours those companies adopt when they start to operate beyond their boundaries, particularly in an opposite culture. This is also in line with Jogulu (2010, p.716) who argued that there has been relatively few studies which have considered the possible influences on leadership styles, the differences in leadership approach that are practiced in other countries and how generalizable the leadership styles are. He further argued that leadership styles are generally culturally biased, thus there is a need to learn new behaviours and skills which leaders adopt when they operate in a new cultural environments (2010, p. 716). In order to fill this gap the current study will aim to make a contribution in this area. Basically, it is believed that research in this field is important as “culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin” (Schein 1997, p.15).

For instance, considering the case of Sweden which has been classified by Hofstede (1980, p.51) as belonging to a low power distance country, it is more likely that managers allocate more authority to their subordinates. In a study conducted by Avery (2005, p. 30) he found that Swedish followers usually expect a consensual leadership style as they focus more on group decision making. However, given the number of manufacturing companies that operate in Sweden, there are many companies which are present and have their roots both from low and high power distance cultures. Scholars have argued that generally in high power distance countries an authoritative leadership style and close supervision are practiced whilst such kinds of values and behaviours are inconsistent within the Swedish culture which belongs to a low power distance culture (Hofstede 2001, p.107, Holmberg and Akerblom 2006, p. 312). Consequently, it becomes important to study the leadership styles and behaviours prevailing as studies have found that lack of knowledge could leave negative consequences such as, mistrust, employee dissatisfaction, problem with communication and to name a few (Appelbaum and Shapiro, 1998, p. 218). (Deng and Gibson, 2008, p.183). Thus, it becomes important to explore the kind of leadership styles and behaviours those high power distance countries adopt when they have their operation in a low power distance culture and why such an approach is being adopted.

1.3 Research Question

In relation to the above discussion, the research question of the study is thus formulated as follows:

Which leadership styles and behaviours do foreign manufacturing companies’ belonging to high power distance culture adopt when they operate in low power distance culture and why are they inclined to use such an approach?

1.4 Purpose and Significance of the research

As outlined above, this study is focused on exploring the leadership styles and behaviours which companies from high power distance cultures adopt when they operate in a low power distance culture. In addition, it will focus on why they are inclined to adopt such a
particular approach. Hence, the significance of this study rests on both the theoretical and practical contributions it can make with respect to this shift in operation.

At a theoretical level, this study firstly seeks to provide an assessment of the leadership styles and behaviours which prevail when companies from high power distance shift to operate in a low power distance culture. Secondly, it will depict those factors which influence the adoption of the prevailing approach. This as such will aim in providing an understanding of why a particular leadership style and behaviour has been adopted. Finally, the theoretical basis of this study draws from an inter-disciplinary approach which is sourced from disciplines like organizational behaviour (leadership) and psychology (culture) to build a theoretical model.

On the other hand in terms of its practical contributions, the findings of this study will enable the managing directors and owners of foreign manufacturing multinational companies (specifically those belonging to a high power distance culture) to better adapt their leadership styles and behaviours. Specifically, this study will provide insights on which leadership styles and behaviours need to be adopted in order to avoid cultural clashes, better meet the behavioural needs and expectations of the local employees and stakeholders as well as experience a successful operation in the host country.

1.5 Delimitation and Scope of the Study

One of the main delimitations of this study is that focus will be made primarily on one cultural dimension – power distance. The other cultural dimensions, like individualist v/s collectivist, femininity v/s masculinity and uncertainty avoidance even though they have equal importance in dictating the leadership styles and behaviours in an organization will not be considered as the focus of those dimensions are more towards how individuals think of themselves within the organization (section 3.1.3 of chapter 3 will discuss more on this aspect). Basically, the limited scope of the other dimensions and the purpose of our research probe us to consider only the cultural dimension power distance. Similarly, the Path Goal Theory of House (1971) leadership model was considered given its high applicability in understanding leadership behaviours and styles. Another delimitation of this study considers managers perspective rather than subordinates perspective when assessing leadership styles and behaviours.
### 1.6 Outline of the thesis

**Table 1: Outline of the thesis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter 1 Introduction</th>
<th>Provides the readers to why there is a need to study leadership from a cross cultural perspective and presents the main purpose of this study. In shorts, it provides basic information to contextualise the topic being discussed.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 2 Research Paradigm</td>
<td>Presents the research strategy selected for this study, laying emphasis over the philosophical underpinnings under which this study has been constructed. Highlights are also made on how the literature has been selected and the sampling approach undertaken.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 3 Theoretical Framework</td>
<td>Presents the frame of reference of this study which is developed around what is considered to be the core concepts of the study; major theories related to culture and leadership are discussed. In short, a review of past studies are made in order to shed light over how this field has been evolving and guide us towards having a better understanding of the current state of knowledge developed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 4 Methodological Framework</td>
<td>Provides the reader with an overview of how the data was collected, and finally highlighting the method to be used to analyze the data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 5 Empirical Findings</td>
<td>Presents the reader in a narrative format the most relevant data collected through the qualitative study based on the number of categories which have emerged from both case A and B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 6 Analysis of Empirical Findings</td>
<td>In this chapter, the finding of the data presented in the previous chapter is analysed. Specifically, it will aim to provide an overview of the leadership adopted in those selected company and answering what have probe them to adopt such an approach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 7 Cross Case Analysis</td>
<td>Referring to the previous chapter, this chapter aims to answer the research questions presented in chapter 1. Specifically, it ends with a theoretical model, illustrating the factors which has probe towards the adoption of a particular leadership style.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapter 8</td>
<td>Conclusion</td>
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<tr>
<td>Provides the reader with a re-discussion of the purpose and findings, the contribution made, as well as the academic and practical recommendations of this study. Finally, it ends with some suggestions for future research.</td>
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<th>Chapter 9</th>
<th>Research Trustworthiness</th>
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<tr>
<td>This chapter presents the reader with issues related to the credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of this study.</td>
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CHAPTER 2
RESEARCH PARADIGM

While the previous chapter provides a brief background and define the main purpose of this research, this chapter covers the research paradigm which underlies how the study is designed and conducted. Basically, it argues for the choice of the subject and how our prior knowledge helped in framing and contributes to the current investigation. Further highlights have also been made regarding the epistemological, ontological, scientific approach considered, the sampling approach adopted, the secondary sources used and whether any criticism can be directed towards the data source used.

2.1 Choice of Subject

The choice of this subject has been natural for both of us due to the fact that we both represent different cultural backgrounds and have experienced significant differences in perceiving and interpreting things. Given the cultural clashes that we have been experiencing, this has heightened our interest to find out how this occurs in the business world. Certainly in this era of increasing globalization, where people from different countries and cultural background are meeting the world is becoming more like a “melting pot”. This is much more prevalent in the business world where many companies are increasingly operating outside their home countries, interacting with people from different cultures and thus are exposed to these different cultural clashes. Given our keen interest to find out how they adapt their operation when they move outside their countries/cultures, we started to look for different academic journals about the topic. Indeed, there are a growing number of studies within this field. But interestingly, we found out that there is a lack of research which has considered the leadership approach used when a company starts to operate outside its usual cultural context. This fact further increased our curiosity and interest to contribute in this area.

2.2 Researchers’ Preconceptions

There is a general belief that our experiences, beliefs and attitudes greatly shape the way we view reality and knowledge. Indeed, this has also influenced the way that we selected and processed the information. Foremost, our educational and professional backgrounds are one factor which has prompted us to choose this subject. Given that we are both Management students and have taken courses related to Cross Cultural Management and Organizational behaviour, we believed that our acquired knowledge and skills would be helpful while carrying out this research. Further to that, both of us have experienced working in multinational organizations and through this journey we have come across people belonging to different cultural background. This has particularly shaped our understanding of how people belonging to different cultures behave, interpret and relate things. Thus, we firmly believe that this will help us to make a better contribution in this field. Moreover,
given our ambition to pursue our future career in a multinational company, having an understanding of these cultural differences and how we are expected to behave while working in such kind of organization will be considered as an additional competence.

2.3 Sociology of Knowledge

Ponterotto defined research philosophy as the conceptual roots undergirding the quest for knowledge (2005, p. 127). That is, it refers to the way knowledge is developed by the researcher. It is worthwhile to note that the way the researcher developed knowledge is affected by the way he or she views the world. Since the research philosophy that one selects significantly impacts on what we are investigating it becomes important to have an understanding of how this affects the current study which primarily aims to explore the leadership behaviours and styles adopted by foreign companies. Commonly, incorporated within the philosophy of science are beliefs or assumptions regarding: ontology and epistemology (Long, White, Friedman and Brazel 2000, p. 190).

Ontology concerns the nature of reality and being. According to Ponterotto, ontology addresses “what is the form and nature of reality and what can be known about reality?” (2005, p. 130). Basically, there are two aspects of ontology which views reality; objectivism and constructionism. The objectivism is based on the fact that individuals cannot influence the other world and there is only one reality (Bryman and Bell 2011, p. 21). In contrast, the constructionism or subjectivism believes that there are multiple human realities and they are all equally valid. Given that this study focused on exploring the behaviours of managers by probing deeper to have an understanding of why they are adopting a particular styles, this gives it a constructionism stance. The constructionism paradigm is also deemed to be the most applicable within this context as it is believed that each respondent will view and interpret realities differently. Similarly, Berger and Luckmann argued that when there are multiple realities (specifically when culture is the main variable) this called for a constructionism paradigm which would enable us to probe deeper into the subject (1966, p.150).

There is another philosophical stance, the epistemological paradigm which elaborates on the manner in which knowledge can be transmitted to others. Typically, this paradigm embraces different perspectives like positivism and interpretivism. The literature has portrayed positivism as a form of philosophical stance which adheres closely to the hypothetico-deductive method (believed in single reality) while the interpretivism assumes that there are multiple and equally valid realities (Morgan and Smircich 1980 p. 492, 493). With reference to this study, which aims to have an understanding of how culture influences leaders’ behaviour it is believed that this can be achieved by recognizing how their sense-making activities occur within the framework of their life-worlds. In order to be able to interpret that, this as such called for an interpretive paradigm. Weber (2008 p. 5) also argued that knowledge of the world is intentionally constituted through a person’s lived experienced rather than existing beyond the human mind, thus further arguing about the need to adopt an interpretive paradigm in order to explore the leadership behaviours. In addition, Berger and Luckmann (1966, p.150) who articulated the social construction of reality argued that knowledge which is socially constructed is highly influenced by culture.
They further argued that, each individual has constructed different social realities and what can be considered real in one culture may not be so in another (Berger and Luckmann 1966 p. 164). In short, it is clear that culture basically involves studying subjective viewpoints and different ways of perceiving and interpreting those viewpoints. Thus, this called for an interpretive paradigm which allows the researchers to have a deeper and better understanding of how culture influences leaders’ behaviours and styles.

2.4 Scientific Approach Adopted

The scientific approach is considered as an important part of any research as it dictates how the researchers have dealt with the theory and empirical parts. Accordingly, the literature argues that there are mainly two research approaches which can be considered; inductive and deductive. The inductive approach entails the building of theories by starting with observations of specific instances and seeking to establish generalizations about the phenomenon under investigation (Hyde 2000 p. 83). In contrast, Hyde also argued that the deductive approach is focused mainly on theory testing by first using established theory or generalization and then on seeking to see if the theory applies to specific instances (2000 p. 83). Given the main highlights of those two main approaches, it is clear that the deductive research process subscribes more to quantitative research whilst the inductive approach to a qualitative process. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009 p. 127), it is often advantageous to combine both deductive and inductive approach. Given the main purpose of this study, a mixed approach of inductive and deductive was deemed to be relevant.

Basically, as will be depicted in the theoretical section of this study, it has considered existing cultural dimensions and leadership styles model to define an appropriate integrated framework for our study, which gives it a deductive approach. Furthermore, we believed that the deductive approach plays an important role in structuring the research as it produces foresight about the primary purposes, categories and questions which could be inductively approached. Then using this model, this study intends to apply it from a different perspective to find out how culture influences leadership styles when the cultural background changes. In this case there will be generation of new theory as it is tackling a situation where companies from high power cultures shift to a low power distance culture, which we believe gives it an inductive approach. Additionally, in the words of Patton (1991 p. 194), a combination of these two approaches seems to be present when the evaluator are open to whatever emerges from the data collected (inductive approach) and then as the enquiry reveals patterns and major dimensions of interest, the evaluator may begin to focus on verifying and elucidating what appears to be emerging from the literature review (deductive approach). Thus, with reference to this study, the inductive approach is also deemed to be appropriate as focus will be made on the development of specific categories which will emerge from the data collected. Last but not least, it is worthwhile to note that even though both theories and empirical data will be interwined, the connection between them will be flexible since the objective is not to seek theory validation but the discovery of what and why aspects.
2.5 Nature of the Study

Given that the basic focus of this study is on the “what” and “why” part and a small sample will be used to allow for more in-depth and rich data an explorative orientation is deemed to be feasible. Besides, in line with the above presented philosophy, this interpretivism approach usually portrays an explorative type of study which aims more at searching and discovering new knowledge. This is also the case of this study. Even though, there is a vast number of studies related to cross cultural management and cross cultural leadership, there is a lack of relevant studies which have considered the leadership styles and behaviours which become prevalent when a company from a different culture starts to operate in a completely different culture to what it originates from (considering power distance as a cultural dimension). Thus, this lack of relevant studies was interpreted as a rational for a study with an explorative orientation. The general intention behind adopting this approach was also to have a more in depth analysis and to be more open on what will be found in the field rather than focusing to test well-founded conclusions. This approach is also deemed to be suitable for the purpose of this study as the data collection will be done in an exploratory manner, therefore, allowing new information which was not initially considered for the research to arise.

2.6 Research Strategy

Research strategy refers to the way a research is conducted and can be classified into quantitative and qualitative research. The former emphasizes quantification in the collection and analysis of data whilst the later emphasizes words. According to Merriam (1988, p.67), a qualitative approach is deemed to be the most appropriate when a study aimed to provide a detailed description of any situations, events, people or observed behaviours. Given that this current study has adapted an explorative approach and considers the opinion and perception of managers in order to be able to meet its main purpose, a qualitative research method is advocated. This is also in line with Hammersley (1992, p.165) who argued that a qualitative research method is deemed to be more feasible when there is a need to understand the perspectives of people, to explain and describe people’s behaviours. The explorative nature of this study also favors this kind of method as this study intends to use a few units rather than a large number of units. Besides, undertaking a qualitative study allowed us to perceive the view of the participants and study the “which” and “why” behind the adoption of a particular leadership style and behaviour. Thus, the flexibility of such an approach also allows us to follow emerging lead questions and adapt it in order to better understand the interviewees’ behaviours. Furthermore, as discussed above the main reason behind adopting an explorative approach is basically to help in discovering the phenomenon and characteristics which are still unknown, thus this implies that a qualitative method which emphasizes the contextual embeddedness of the social phenomenon is the most feasible. In addition, given that we intend to present raw data which is detailed and in depth, this approach is deemed to be the most suitable as we can present factual and descriptive data which represent the participants in their own terms.
2.7 Research Design

According to Malhotra and Birks (2007, p.70), to determine the research design of a particular study, the objective of the research and how the empirical findings would be used should be considered. Thus, for the purpose and nature of this study we are prompted to use a qualitative case study. According to Merriam, (1998, p.30) the case study method is appropriate when the focus of the research is on answering exploratory, descriptive or explanatory research questions based on either a single or multiple case studies. Given that this study aimed to adopt an exploratory stance and focus on why aspect, this probes towards the feasibility of adopting a case study design. Indeed, as stated by Yin (2003, p.35), the case study as an empirical inquiry is useful when the researchers aim to investigate a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context.

Merriam (1988, p. 31) also suggested that the case study design is the most feasible when the research problems involves developing a new line of inquiry and needs further conceptualization of factors or functions. Undeniably, this is also in line with this current study as we aimed to find out the leadership behaviours and styles prevailing when there is a shift from one cultural context to another (from high to low power distance culture). Additionally, Yin (2003, p. 50) suggests that the case study has some distinct advantages when (a) the focus of the study is on answering “why” questions; (b) you cannot manipulate the behavior of those involved in the study and (c) it is important to be responsive, to convey a holistic and dynamically rich account of a phenomenon (Yin, 2003, p.50). Relating to that, we believe that all these contingencies mentioned by Yin correspond to the research situation in this case. Foremost, the aim of delving into understanding “why” a particular leadership behaviors or styles are being adopted have prompted us to first find out “what” kind of leadership behaviours are prevailing. Secondly, given that the aim of this study is to find out the leadership behaviours, we believe that behavior as a phenomenon is highly subjective thus, there is a need for an in-depth understanding of their behaviours and understanding why they are adopting the said behaviours. Lastly, relating to this study, we believe that having a richer and in-depth data will provide us with better understanding of the behavioural aspects those leaders adopt.

2.7.1 Type of Case Study Design Orientation

Once we have determined that the research question of this study can best be answered by using a qualitative case study, there was a need to consider the type of case study orientation to be conducted. Thus, the core issue is related to whether a single or a multiple case study shall be carried out. For the purpose of this study, a multiple case-study was deemed to be appropriate. Yin (2003, p. 47) argued that multiple case studies can be used to either predict similar results (a literal replication) or to predict contrasting results for predictable reasons (a theoretical replication). In relation to this study, a multiple case study was deemed to be appropriate mainly for the convincing reason that selecting two companies belonging to two different high power distance index will enable us to also compare differences in leadership styles and behaviours and we may identify some commonalities between them which may be prevailing. In relation to this approach, Merriam (1988, p. 45) argued that such a triangulation of case findings will also give
greater validity to the generalization of the result. Indeed, we also cannot deny the fact that even this type of design has its advantages and disadvantages. As stated by Yin, one of the most prominent advantage is the evidence created from this type of study is considered to be robust and reliable but as he further added it can also be extremely time consuming and expensive to conduct (2003, p.48). Merriam (1988, p. 45) also argued that interpretations based upon multiple case studies are more “convincing” than an interpretation based upon one case only.

2.8 Sampling Techniques used for this study

After the choice of an appropriate research design, it becomes vital to select the sampling technique to be used for this study. Choosing a study sample is an important step in every research project since it is rarely practical and efficient to study the whole population. In this case a representative sample is usually considered. Given the nature and the stance which this study has considered by opting for an interpretive paradigm and a multiple case study research design which has naturally led to a qualitative approach, this has helped in shaping a desired sampling approach. Thus in relation to the purpose of this study, a non-probability sampling has been deemed to be more relevant as we aim to provide illumination and understanding of complex psychosocial issues and answering humanistics questions such as the ‘what’ and ‘why’ aspect of the prevailing leadership behaviours and styles. Indeed as argued by Merriam (1988, p.47), a non-probability sampling is reasonable when the choice is for a qualitative case study and the study is aimed at discovering what occurs, why and the implications of what occurs.

Within the non-probability sampling methods there are various approaches which could be used. According to Marshall (1996, p. 253) there are three broad approaches to select a sample for a qualitative study; convenience, judgemental and theoretical sampling. For this study, a purposive or judgemental sampling was used to determine the initial individuals and companies which would be contacted. Purposive or judgemental is a sampling method which is based on establishing the criteria, bases or standards necessary for units to be included in the investigation (Merriam 1988, p. 48). Referring to the nature of our study, purposive sampling was considered as it allows greater flexibility in the types of individuals being sought. As argued by Patton, purposeful sampling is powerful as it helps in selecting information-rich cases for in-depth study (1990, p.169). Furthermore, given that our study aims to understand the subjective reality from our participants and we want to reach people who can share their unique slice of reality, a purposive sample is considered to be theoretically viable.

2.8.1 Selection Criteria for the Case Companies

In relation to the above discussion which has paved the way towards the use of purposive sampling approach, a set of research criteria was established to select the most appropriate case companies for this study. Table 2 below illustrates each criterion and the reasons why they were deemed to be important for determining the case companies’ sample.
Table 2: Case Companies Selection Criteria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Reasons Behind</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The selected companies should belong to high power distance cultures/countries.</td>
<td>This is the most important criterion as this study aims to analyze the leadership behaviours adopted by companies from low power distance culture when they operate within a high power distance cultural context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The selected companies should be classified as manufacturing multinational corporations operating in Sweden.</td>
<td>This criterion is crucial as multinational corporations have many dimensions and can be viewed from several perspectives (ownership, mix of managers belonging to different nationalities and business strategy). Thus, this is considered as an important criterion as we intend to study leadership behaviours from a cultural perspective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The chosen companies should have different level of managers.</td>
<td>This criterion is deemed to be important as this study intend on interviewing high or middle level managers only. Besides, we believed that if there are different level of managers this provide a better overview of the relationship between subordinates and managers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They must belong or be part of the manufacturing industry.</td>
<td>Given that this study has narrowed its focus by considering only the Manufacturing industry because of the highlighting importance it has within the Swedish economy, it was another criteria used when selecting the companies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Given the purpose of this study, a list of companies particularly in the manufacturing industry operating in Sweden which originated from a high power distance culture were identified through the world wide web. Once a list has been established, those companies were send emails to inquire about their interests to participate in our studies. A follow up call was also made to confirm their participation. Keeping in mind those four criteria and the cost and time limitations we were constraint with; the first two companies which responded to our request were approached. They both belonged to high power distance index and originated from France and Japan. Even though, those two manufacturing multinational companies were classified as having different high power distance index, they were deemed to be appropriate as this difference enabled us to further analyze the key
differences which might exist between them and provide a broader overview of the leadership styles being adopted by high power distance culture originated companies when they are operating within the cultural context of Sweden.

2.8.2 Selection Criteria of the Respondents

Once the case companies were selected, a similar sampling approach (purposive) was used to determine the respondents who will be part of our study. Indeed, considering the purpose of this study, a set of criteria was established as depicted in table 3 below. Based on those criteria, a number of respondents in those two companies were contacted and invited to take part in our study.

Basically, the first contact was made with the Human Resource Managers of each companies and they were provided with the list of criteria we were looking in the respondents. Afterwards, a list of respondents which matched those criteria and who were willing to participate in our study were provided, together with their current position, email address and phone number. Those respondents were then contacted to further explain the purpose of our study and to schedule the interviews.

Table 3: Selection Criteria of the Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Reasons Behind</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The selected respondent must be either a high or middle level manager</td>
<td>This criterion is important as in most organization, high and middle level managers have the power to dictate and influence the behavior of their subordinates. Thus, they were the main target of our study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He or she must be comfortable speaking English</td>
<td>It is believed that in order to be able to establish a rapport between the interviewer and interviewee a common language is required. Since English is the only common language which we are both comfortable within the context of Sweden, this was part of the required criterion.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.9 Size of Research Sample

Once the sampling technique of this study has been established and we have decided to consider high or middle level managers working in the French and Japanese manufacturing multinational corporation, it then became important to determine the size of our research sample. According to Marshall (1996, p.523), an appropriate sample size for a qualitative
study is one which adequately answers the research question. In addition to that, Kvale and Brinkmann (2009, p.60) proposed that the samples size can vary from 5 to 25 individuals and the required number of subjects usually becomes obvious as the study progresses and as new categories or explanations stop emerging from the data (data saturation).

Thus, in relation to this study the number of respondents to be included was more or less intuitively decided on. Once it became obvious that new subjects were adding very little or no new knowledge, it was concluded that the point of saturation was reached. In both cases (French and Japanese Company), we noticed that data collection saturation were reached upon the sixth interviewee and no new knowledge was being contributed. Thus, overall 12 interviews were conducted in both the French and Japanese Companies.

2.10 Literature Selection

In order to achieve the main objectives of this study, both primary data and secondary literature sources were used. The following chapter (Chapter 3, Theoretical Framework) which provides an overview of the main theories, have focused on illustrating theories related to culture, leadership and cross cultural leadership. Those key concepts and previous studies which have been detailed in the next chapter are also an important element of the integrated framework which has been devised in chapter 3 of section 3.10. However, given the vast number of articles which could be found related to this area, the search was narrowed down by using keywords such as; cross cultural leadership, leadership styles, leadership behaviours, culture, power distance and amongst others. Basically, the different secondary literature sources used for the literature review were retrieved from Umea University Library database like; Emerald Journal, Business Source Premier (EBSCO), Web of Science and Google Scholar. In order to ensure the high validity and reliability of those literature sources, renowned academic journals such as; Academy of Management Journal, Management International Review, International Journal of Cross Cultural Management and Journal of Cross Cultural Psychology, amongst others were used. In addition to those academic journals, books and websites were also used. Particularly, additional references were found indirectly by referring to other articles and books. Last but not least, to ensure the trustworthiness and quality of the data used, care was taken when selecting the articles, reports, books and websites.

Scholars have argued that it is important to adopt a critical stance towards the type of information and sources used for the theoretical framework in order to assess their credibility (Ary, Sorensen and Razavieh, 2010, p.63). In relation to this study, some of the major reference sources which have been used might be regarded as old. For instance, references belonging to Hofstede (1980) which is the main cultural dimensions model used for this study and leadership model of House (1971) and House and Mitchell (1974) might be considered to be old. Nevertheless even though those major references are old, we cannot deny the fact that those researchers are highly prominent and well acknowledged within the field of cross cultural leadership. For instance, the latest version of the book “Culture and Organizations: Software of the Mind” co-authored by Hofstede in 2010, still highlights the prominence of those cultural dimensions. This as such implies that these
sources are considered to be trustworthy. In addition even though they are relatively old, we cannot consider these sources to be less reliable as they are still being cited by other researchers who are writing for prominent Journals. Indeed, as argued by Alvesson and Skoldberg (2009, p.114) an article does not have to be outdated just because it was published a long time ago but what matters is the information is still current. Nevertheless, care has been taken that the most recent sources are used wherever it is relevant.

2.11 Description of the Research Process

This section will provide an overview of the research process which has been used to conduct this study. As depicted in the diagram below (figure 1), the researchers first started by selecting a suitable topic and an appropriate research gaps by having a thorough review of literature related to cross cultural management. Once an appropriate area has been selected, as reflected in the diagram below, in the next step the data selection will then be considered. Basically the identification of the location and potential data sources which are associated with the research question will be identified. Once this decision has been made, according to Egan (2002, p. 283), it becomes vital to initiate the data collection process based on the selected study setting. It is important to note that under this research framework, the data collection and the data analysis are inter-wined together in order to determine the point of saturation. In addition, as suggested by Egan (2002, p.284) this process is important as it helps in checking for emerging categories. A detailed explanation of the data analysis undertaken will be presented in Chapter 4. Finally the study will conclude when sufficient theory has emerged from the data and a new theoretical model based on the analysis of the data will be created. This will aim to present a better understanding of the social phenomenon under study.
1. Initiation of the Research

2. Literature Review

3. Data Selection

4. Initiation of Data Collection

5. Data Analysis
   - 5a. Coding the first set of data
     - Naming
     - Comparing
     - Memoing
   - 5b. Ongoing application of codes
   - 5c. Comparing and revising codes
   - 5d. Checking for emerging categories
   - 5e. Forming categories
   - 5f. Applying and modifying emerged categories and their properties
   - 5g. Assessing the level of needed elaboration of categories
   - 5h. Clarification of developed concepts

6. Concluding the Research Process

**Figure 1:** Illustration of the Research Process used for this study

*Source:* Adapted from Egan (2002, p.281)
CHAPTER 3
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This third chapter describes the theoretical framework of this study. While the previous chapter provided a brief background and defined the main purpose of the research, this chapter begins by providing a review of key theoretical concepts. This chapter will illustrate an overview of concepts pertaining to culture and leadership in organizational settings and various models developed. Based on these discussions the most appropriate model will be chosen as a theoretical framework. Additionally, overviews of what kind of leadership behaviours and styles have been deemed to be more feasible in different nations and cultures will be discussed. It will conclude with a summary of the main findings from the reviewed literature.

3.1 Culture as a construct from the lens of cross-cultural management

Of central concern in all cross-cultural research is how to define culture. Culture as a concept has been used in various disciplinary, ranging from anthropology, sociology, psychology and management. During the last few decades it has been increasingly linked to the study of behaviours in organizations. There are still heated debates among various scholars on what is the correct definition of culture. Triandis (1996) found very controversial perspective for the definition of culture. Based on a thorough analysis that he has conducted, he found out that some studies have argued that culture can be considered as being part of the human part of the environment, whilst others have linked it to shared behaviours, shared cognitive behaviours or as a system of competencies shared by a group of people. Thus, in relation to the above, it becomes important to distinguish among the definitions of culture for two reasons. Firstly, different leadership researchers have used different definitions when referring to culture. Secondly as argued by Ayman and Korabik, leaders in a diverse and multicultural society need to become aware of the complexity of how the phenomenon of culture has been conceived in order to have a better understanding of cross cultural leadership(2010 p. 158).

One of the earliest definitions given by Kluckhohn (1951, p. 86) posits culture as the “patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting, acquired mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups”. This definition emphasizes how distinct groups of individuals have different values and behaviours. Another widely used definition given by Hofstede (1980 p.43) portrays culture as the “software of the mind” and as the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the inhabitants of one country from another. Basically the definition given by Hofstede (1980) focused on the deep invisible values which differentiate one country from another. The underlying assumption of his definition is that country which share similar languages or are within the same geographic boundaries do not necessarily have similar cultural values. In a more
revolutionized discussion by House et al., (1999, p.172) while attempting to define culture by relating it to organizational behaviour, they argued that leadership behaviour is influenced by culture and it can primarily be operationalized in two different ways based on existing leadership research. Firstly, the characteristics that are visible such as country boundaries and secondly when these visible characteristics allow for categorization of people into social groups such as nationality.

Recently, Connerley and Pedersen (2005) proposed a more integrated definition of culture which has been linked with studies on leadership behaviours and values. In their definition, culture is considered as a “complex multidimensional and dynamic phenomenon consisting of both visible and invisible characteristics that influence leadership” (2005 p. 4). Pertaining to this definition, they even argued that people with different characteristics (such as nationality, ethnicity and languages) will experience and perceive the world in a different way whether those differences are based on internal differences, external differences or in the way they are treated by others (2005, p.4-5).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors (Year)</th>
<th>Main highlights in each definition of culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kluckhohn (1951)</td>
<td>Distinct thinking, feeling and reacting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hofstede (1980)</td>
<td>Software of the mind, distinct invisible values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House et al. (1999)</td>
<td>Visible values, categorization of people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connerley and Pedersen (2005)</td>
<td>Invisible and visible values, different ethnographic characteristics, different experiences</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Given this wide array of definitions and based on an evaluation of the main keywords for each of them as depicted in Table 4, we can deduce that culture has been mainly used as an explanatory variable in comparative research for organizational behaviour. From the above table, it is also clear that most of the definitions have focused on categorization of people (mainly focused on differences between people) based on either some invisible values, visible values or a combination of both. This table clearly shows that people from different cultures are different from each other. Thus we can assume that there is a high probability that there is a high variance in the behaviour between group of individuals and organizations.

As illustrated in Figure 2 below, in most of the cross cultural comparative management studies, culture is considered as the explanatory variable which influences the development and reinforcement of beliefs. This same belief helps in shaping the individual organizations’ way of doing, understanding and perceiving things. This is also in line with Smircich (1983 p. 343) who argued that the cultural context (can be in terms of country) generally helps in shaping the patterns of attitudes and action in each individuals.
organization members. However, given the purpose and main objective of our studies, culture will be addressed based on the definition provided by Hofstede (1980 p. 43), as the shared values and beliefs which distinguishes the inhabitants of one country from another. In order to have better understanding of the concept of culture from a cross cultural perspective, various scholars have argued that culture as an explanatory variable can be useful to explain the difference only if the various dimensions are identified in order to facilitate the interpretation of cultural differences (Leung 1989 p.703, Soares, Farhangmehr and Shoham 2007 p. 279). The next section will thus provide a critical review of the different cultural dimensions which have been identified so far by different prominent researchers.

![Figure 2: Culture and Comparative Management (adopted from Smircich 1983 p. 343)](image)

### 3.1.1 Cultural Dimensions

Given the complexity of the term culture and difficult-to-define construct as discussed above, Triandis et al., (1986 p. 258) proposed that the best way to understand culture is first to identify the dimensions of cultural variations. Adding a cross-cultural component to leadership research usually makes the process even more complex but without a workable framework to help narrow and guide cross-cultural leadership research, there is high probability that there will be little coherence to the research being conducted. For this purpose, various studies have attempted to develop cultural framework to depict different cultural value dimensions based on which different societies and countries can be compared (e.g., Hofstede 1980, 2001 and 2010, Chinese Cultural Connection 1987, Trompenaars 1997, Schwartz 1994).

Within this context, cultural value was treated as part of national cultures and was defined by Hofstede (2001, p.9) as “a broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others”. Based on that, we can deduce that it refers to those differences which distinguish the members of one group or category of people from another. Among the most prominent
researchers who have aimed directly at identifying the cultural dimensions are Hofstede (1980, 2001 and 2010), Chinese Cultural Connections (1987), Trompenaars (1997) and Javidan, et al.,(2006) for the GLOBE project. Given these increasing number of researchers who have made a contribution in this area, the next section will aim at providing a brief outlook at those different frameworks. In relation to that we will then choose which of those cultural frameworks is appropriate for our study.

### 3.1.2 Hofstede’s Cultural Dimensions

The Dutch social psychologist Geert Hofstede is one of the researchers arguing for such a framework. He is considered as a central figure in the development of literature on cultural variations and the dimension-based approach for assessing and classifying cultures. Hofstede’s (1980 p.44) well-known study was based on the response of 116,000 personnel from the IBM American-owned multinational companies operating in around 40 different countries. Based on a series of questionnaire allocated during the period 1971 to 1973 which were, predominantly based on tapping work-related values, Hofstede identified four cultural dimensions within which different countries can be classified; individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, uncertainty avoidance and power distance (1980 p.44). In a later work, with the collaboration of the eminent psychologist Bond, Hofstede (2001 p. 164) added a fifth dimension long and short term orientation also referred to as the Confucian dynamism. Most recently, G. Hofstede, J. Hofstede and Minkov (2010 p. 277) identified a new dimension commonly known as the indulgence - restraint dimension. However based on a thorough review, we have noticed that one of the most widely applied dimensions within the context of organization behaviour are the first four dimensions which he derived from his unique and extensive empirical investigations at IBM subsidiaries.

In the word of Hofstede, the first dimension individualism exists when people defined themselves primarily as separate individuals whilst collectivism is characterised by tight social networks (2001 p. 235, 236). Basically, the individualism-collectivism dimension describes the relationship between the individuals and what degree they feel they are “on their own” rather than part of a larger group identity. When comparing highly collectivist societies like Japan and Hong Kong with individualistic societies like America and Australia (as classified by G.Hofstede, J Hofstede and Minkov, 2010, p.95-97) significant differences can be found related to the work values prevailing. For instance, in the individualistic society the relationship between the employer and employee is primarily considered as a business transaction while in collectivist it resembles more like a family relationship with mutual obligations towards each other (Hofstede 1980 p. 45-48).

On the other hand, the second dimension masculinity-femininity generally reflects the degree to which a culture emphasizes competition and achievement. According to Hofstede (2001 p.313-314), in a masculinity society, there is more likeliness to be perceived as being assertive, tough and stressing on the acquisition of money unlike in feminine culture where there is more focus on warm social relationships and quality of life. Typically country like Sweden which is classified as being highly feminine by Hofstede with an index of 5 (1980,
p.54), the working environment will be such that there will be higher emphasis on giving
privilege to the welfare of their employees and valuing men and women equally. However,
in masculine society like Japan with an index of 95, more importance is usually given to the
quality of the task completed and women and men are given different status in the
company. Similarly, in a study undertaken by Slater et al. (2002, p.204), they found out that
in masculine culture like Mexico, there is more focused for honour assertiveness and
toughness among its male members rather than displaying nurturing and caring behaviours
among both male and female members.

Referring to Hofstede’s work, he claims that the third cultural dimension, uncertainty
avoidance reflects the extent to which members of a society feel uncomfortable in
unstructured situation (1980 p. 45). Within this context, organizations are supposed to
typically reduces uncertainty by establishing formal rules, rejecting deviant ideas and
behaviours and by providing their employees with greater career stability. When
considering this dimension, it is important not to confuse it with risk-avoidance as
uncertainty avoidance is associated mainly with preference for clear rules and guidance. In
the study undertaken by Hofstede (1991 p.113), countries were rated according to their rule
orientation, employment stability and stress. Using this cultural dimension and aiming to
find out the major differences found in countries belonging to different cultural context,
Alder found that in high uncertainty-avoidance countries such as Greece, Portugal,
Guatemala and East Africa there is more focus on offering lifetime employment whereas in
low uncertainty-avoidance countries such as Denmark, Singapore and United States there
are higher job mobility (Adler and Gundersen 2008 p. 54, 55).

The fourth dimension, power distance, is related to the inequalities which exist in different
societies. Hofstede defined it as the “extent to which a society accepts the facts that power
in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally” (1980 p.45). Alternatively, it is
the extent to which subordinates are not expected to express disagreement with their
supervisors and the supervisors are not expected to consult with their subordinates in the
decision making process (Hofstede 2001 p.102). In other words, within the organizational
context this inequality is reflected in the relations between leaders and subordinates. This
specifically relates to how willing are employees to accept that their boss has more power
than they have? For instance, in high power-distance countries such as India, France and
Poland (as classified by Hofstede 2001 p.87), it is considered important to consult the boss
before doing any jobs or before taking any decision whilst in low power-distance countries
like Sweden and Denmark, employers expect subordinates to rely on their skills and initiate
actions on their own.

However, the last two added dimensions the long and short term orientation (Confucian
cosmism) and the indulgence- restraint have not been of major interest among scholars
compared to the above mentioned four dimensions. Those two dimensions are basically
independent of the IBM studies. According to Hofstede (1991 p. 164-166) the fifth
dimension Confucian cosmism deals with ‘time orientation’ and consists of two
contrasting poles; ‘long-term orientation’ versus ‘short-term orientation’. The long-term
orientation refers to positive, dynamic and future oriented culture while the short-term
orientation represents a negative, static, traditional and past-oriented culture (Hofstede 2001
p.359-360). In an in-depth analysis conducted by Fang (2003 p.348), he argued that the
Confucian dynamism cannot be used within an organization context as this dimension was originally used to explain the economic growth of nations. Finally, the *indulgence versus restraint* (IVR) was conceived based on an assessment of people happiness in society. Indulgence was related to the tendency to enjoy life by allowing free gratification whilst restraint was the conviction that such gratification needs to be curbed and regulated by strict social norms (G. Hofstede, J. Hofstede and Minkov 2010 p. 281). Adapting this to the workplace context, the IVR states that in countries like Russia and mostly Eastern Europe there are higher probability that those organizations expect their employees to have a serious attitude when doing their work compared to countries like Norway and United States where a jovial environment is expected to prevail (G. Hofstede, J. Hofstede and Minkov 2010 p. 288-294).

To summarize, based on the above cultural dimensions conceived by Hofstede (1980, 1991, 2001) we can deduce that the four cultural dimensions (individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, uncertainty avoidance and power distance) affect both individuals and organisations and the integration between them. The dimensions of power distance and uncertainty avoidance basically influence the structure and function of organisations and this lead to the different implicit models in people’s mind of what an organization should be (Kessapidou and Varsakelis 2002 p. 269). The power distance dimension also leads to a society’s preference for a particular leadership styles which can be more applicable in low or high power distance countries. On the other hand, the two other dimensions individualism-collectivism and masculinity-femininity relate primarily to how people think of themselves in the organizations rather than focusing on the overall organizations. In relation to the above discussion, it thus becomes clearer that power distance in contrast with other dimensions provides deeper insight to analyse the leadership approach within an organization. In addition, this dimension explicitly focused on how managers behave and the approach they used when they are dealing with their subordinates. Referring to the purpose of this study, we believed that this dimensions would better help us to identify the leadership behaviours and styles prevailing within the context of our study.

### 3.1.3 A review of other Prominent Cultural Dimensions Studies

Corresponding to Hofstede’s (1980, 1991, 2001, 2010) findings there has been a flux of studies which have been dedicated to test his framework, refine and develop other cultural dimensions. Among the most prominent studies which were built based on Hofstede’s work comprised of the Chinese Cultural Connection (1987), Trompenaars (1985, 1997), Schwartz (1994, 1999) and the Global leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE, 1991) study. The table 5 below depicts an illustration of those major studies together with emphasize on the different cultural dimensions which have been identified and their definitions.
### Table 5: Summary of Cultural Frameworks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Framework</th>
<th>Dimensions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Chinese Cultural Connection (1987)** | **Integration** – focuses on social stability, being trustworthy and enjoying close friendship and it can also be characterized by having tolerance for others.  
**Confucian Work Dynamics** – looks at a society’s search for virtue and it emphasizes the social hierarchy or structure.  
**Human-Heartedness**- deals with an individual’s level of social consciousness or awareness.  
**Moral discipline**- focused on keeping oneself under control in relation to other |
| **Trompenaars (1993, 1997)**           | **Universalism-Particularism**- Based on values which guide behaviour of individuals. Particularistic values interpersonal ties, while the universalistic values are abstract societal expectations.  
**Achievement- Ascription**- Achievement is status which is filled through ability, effort and competition. Ascribed is status which is largely predicated on who a person is.  
**Individualism-Communitarianism**- the extent to which a society focused on having an individualistic approach compared to embracing a more group perspective.  
**Neutral-Emotional**- describes the extent to which feelings are openly expressed and are deemed to be acceptable to display publicly.  
**Attitude to time**- refers to how members of a society view the past, present and future.  
**Specific-diffuse**- the extent to which we engage others in specific areas of life.  
**Attitudes to environment**- refer to the urge and ability to control nature or it is the nature that controls us. |
| **Schwartz C (1994)**                  | **Conservatism or embeddedness**- maintaining the status quo, propriety and restraint of actions or inclinations that might disrupt the solitary group or the traditional order in which people are embedded.  
**Intellectual autonomy**- emphasizes the desirability of individuals’ pursuing their own ideas and intellectual directions independently.  
**Affective autonomy**- emphasizes the desirability of individuals’ pursuing affectively positive experience.  
**Hierarchy**- highlights the legitimacy of an unequal distribution of power, roles and resources.  
**Egalitarianism**- the desire to forfeit selfish interest in favor of the group.  
**Mastery**- getting ahead through active self-assertion.  
**Harmony**- fitting harmoniously into the environment |
**GLOBE (2004)**
(sample managers in 68 different countries)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural Dimension</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty avoidance</td>
<td>the extent uncertainty is avoided by relying on established social norms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power Distance</td>
<td>the extent and acceptance of unequal distribution of power.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional collectivism</td>
<td>the degree collective distribution of resources is rewarded.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-group collectivism</td>
<td>the degree individuals express pride, loyalty and cohesiveness in society.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender egalitarianism</td>
<td>the degree the society minimizes gender role differences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future orientation</td>
<td>the degree to which the society engages in future planning, investing and delaying gratification.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human orientation</td>
<td>the degree individuals are rewarded for being fair, altruistic, friendly and kind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance orientation</td>
<td>the degree individuals are rewarded for performance improvement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>the degree individuals are assertive, confrontational and aggressive in social relationships.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In a study undertaken by the Chinese Cultural Connection (1987, p.150) which predominately sample students from 22 different countries, they found the prevalence of four cultural values; integration, Confucian work dynamism, human-heartedness and moral discipline. A closer analysis of those definitions showed that these dimensions can also be related to the cultural dimensions identified by Hofstede (1980). Foremost, the first dimension integration can be linked with Hofstede’s (1980) power distance dimension as they both aimed at identifying the degree of power distance which is seen as examining the relationship between a superior and a subordinate. This is also in line with Ralston et al. (1993 p. 258) who argued that there is a close coherence between those two dimensions and they are both indicators of the degree of centralization which is deemed to be appropriate within an organizational context. Highlights can also be made on the long and short term orientation of Hofstede (1980) which portrays the same characteristics as the Confucian work dynamism. Indeed we have noticed that they are both driven by a strong desire to save “face” which implies a need to order relationship by status and to respect the order of that status. The third dimension human-heartedness which in relation to a business setting may be viewed as presenting a contrast between the task-oriented and people oriented styles of management is also comparable to Hofstede’s masculinity dimension. According to Ralston et al. (1993, p.258) it is comparable as they are both focused on the philosophy of being tough and assertive.

Similarly, a thorough analysis of Trompenaars’ work (1985, 1993, and 1997) which presented a seven-dimensional model of national culture differences argued that those dimensions are particularly relevant to the conduct of international business. In relation to
the seven dimensions which he found out, he argued that five of them describe relationships with people (universalism versus particularism, individualism versus collectivism, neutral versus emotional, specific versus diffuse and achievement versus ascription) whilst the other two, orientation in time and attitudes towards the environment are more general dimensions covering wider aspects (1993, p.29). Through a review of the above definitions in table 2, we have found significant convergence or similarities in relation to Hofstede’s works (1980 and 1991). Particularly, the first dimension universalism/particularism can be related to the individualism-collectivism dimension of Hofstede (1991) which focused on the in-group relationship. With reference to that, it is plausible to also conclude that particularist societies will be collectivist whilst the Universalist societies which endorsed those individualist values will be aligned with individualism. There is also a linkage between the individualism-collectivism dimensions of Hofstede (1980) and Trompenaars (1993, p.59) achievement-ascription dimension, as striving for achieved status is more likely to occur in individualistic societies than in collectivist societies (Smith et al 1996 p. 239). Likewise, a close coherence was found between individualism-communitarism dimension of Trompenaars (1993) and Hofstede (1980) individualism and collectivism dimensions which focused on the group or individual. A linkage to the neutral-emotional dimension is also feasible with Hofstede (1980, p.49) masculinity and femininity dimension as the masculinity society are expected to be more open and express their feelings openly compared to the femininity society which are more likely to oppress and adopt more soft values. In addition, the attitude to time dimension which focused on time is comparable with Hofstede (2001, p.366) long-term orientation which equally focused on time orientation. Last but not least, considering the specific-diffuse and attitudes to environment dimension, no linkage can be found with Hofstede’s dimensions. This is also in line with Magnusson, Wilson, Zdravkovic, Zhou and Westerjohn (2008, p.185) who argued that those two dimensions are not applicable within an organizational context as they focused mainly on the social and environmental aspects.

Still building on the prominent work of Hofstede (1980, 1991), Schwartz (1994, 1999) surveyed value preference of some 60,000 individuals in 63 countries. Based on his findings, separate individual- level and country-level data analyses were conducted. He identified seven country level values orientation and it was classified as; conservatism, intellectual autonomy, affective autonomy, hierarchy, egalitarianism, mastery and harmony (as depicted in table 5 above).

In relation to the cultural dimensions identified by Schwartz (1994) we can deduce that some of his findings correlate more or less with the dimensions conceived by Hofstede (1980). The conservatism, hierarchy and egalitarianism can converge with Hofstede (1980) power distance dimension as they are related in assessing the relationship between the subordinates and managers within an organization and how powers are distributed. This is also in line with Soares, Farhangmehr and Shoham (2007 p. 280) who argued that those three dimensions converge with Hofstede (1980) power distance dimension. On the other hand, the mastery dimension can be linked with Hofstede (1980) masculine dimension as it relates to the need of being tough and decisive. Similarly, harmony is associated with Hofstede (1980) feminine dimension as it pertains to the soft values and in need of a harmonious environment to thrive. Finally, according to Soares et al. (2007 p. 280) the intellectual/affective autonomy can converge with the individualism-collectivism dimension
as it was conceived on the basis to the extent to which an individual feels part of a group and like to do things collectively or individually.

Another prominent study most recently inspired from Hofstede (1980) is the GLOBE study which was conceived by Robert J. House in 1991. It is one of the most influential cross-cultural researches which have been conducted so far to validate the relationships between culture and leadership effectiveness. The GLOBE developed its cultural dimensions based on a review of extant organizational and cultural theory, together with interviews and focus groups conducted in around 62 countries (Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck 2004, p.669). In this study, they found nine dimensions of culture; uncertainty avoidance, power distance, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, future orientation, human orientation and performance orientation (refer to table 2 above for a detailed definition). A closer analysis dictates that most of the dimensions identified in this study correlates with the cultural dimensions of Hofstede (1980, 1991). The first two dimensions uncertainty avoidance and power distance are similar to that as identified by Hofstede (1980) and they have the same characteristics. For the dimension institutional collectivism and in-group collectivism given that they are focusing on dictating the degree to which there is in-group focus to having an individualistic approach we can see the coherence which exist between that of Hofstede (1980 p.45) individualism and collectivism dimensions. The gender egalitarianism covers the extent to which there is equality between males and females and this is linked to Hofstede’s masculinity and femininity dimension (1980 p.46, 47). Likewise, the future orientation is similar to that of Hofstede’s (2001 p.351-370) long term orientation as they both relate to future actions and results. Lastly the three dimensions, human orientation, performance orientation and assertiveness are all based on analyzing the soft and hard values and equality which exist in a society. In line with the above discussion, Hofstede (2010, p.1339) also argued that all the dimensions identified in GLOBE has close similarity with the different cultural dimensions that he has identified with only the name being changed. He also stated others have been broken into different components like gender egalitarianism, human orientation, performance orientation and assertiveness but they all relate to his dimension masculinity and femininity.

To sum up, based on the above discussions and as depicted in Table 6 below which has tried to compare Hofstede’s (1980, 2001) cultural dimensions with other approaches it is clear that there is a high level of convergence across approaches. Most of the dimensions which have been identified so far are more or less similar with that identified by Hofstede (1980, 2001). As illustrated in table 5 below there is a high level of coherence between the findings of Hofstede (1980, 2001) and with the findings of other scholars. This as such further justifies the relevance of his dimensions. There are also a few studies which have found this kind of convergence across the various dimensions (e.g., Ralston et al. 1992, Smith et al. 1996, Soares et al. 2007) and they all agreed that there is a high level of coherence between Hofstede’s work and with other researchers. In relation to its high level of similarity, this further justifies the use of Hofstede cultural dimensions for this current study. Based on that, the next section will aim to further support its application and implication for using this framework for this study.
Table 6: Comparison of Hofstede’s cultural framework with other models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hofstede (1980, 2001)</th>
<th>Masculinity/Femininity</th>
<th>Individualism/Collectivism</th>
<th>Power Distance</th>
<th>Uncertainty Avoidance</th>
<th>Long-term orientation</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chinese culture Connection (1987)</strong></td>
<td>Human Heartedness</td>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Confucian work dynamism</td>
<td>Moral discipline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Schwartz 1994</strong></td>
<td>Mastery/Harmony</td>
<td>Intellectual/Affective autonomy</td>
<td>Conservatism/Hierarchy, Egalitarian</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Trompenaars 1993, 1997</strong></td>
<td>Neutral/emotional</td>
<td>Universalism/Particularism/Individualism</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Attitudes to time</td>
<td>Specific/diffuse Attitudes to the environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GLOBE (2004)</strong></td>
<td>Gender Egalitarianism</td>
<td>Institutional Collectivism</td>
<td>Power Distance</td>
<td>Uncertainty Avoidance</td>
<td>Future Orientation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Performance Orientation</td>
<td>In-Group Collectivism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Human Orientation</td>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.4. Implication and justification for selecting Hofstede’s cultural framework

Despite the proliferation of Hofstede-inspired empirical research over the last three decades, there has been a number of studies which have criticized the applicability and originality of his work (e.g. Sondergaard, 1994, McSweeney, 2002, Peterson, 2003). Although, his research sample is the largest and most internationally diverse of its kind, critics cite the samples’ single US multinational as a limitation. According to Steel and Taras (2010, p.230) IBM itself is known to have a strong culture of its own which might proved to have an impact on the validity of his result. Another major criticism of Hofstede’s work is the assumption that the entire domestic population is homogenous. As
argued by Nasif et al. (1991, p. 82), this is highly deceptive as most nations have different ethnic groups. Moreover, various scholars have also noticed that Hofstede tend to ignore the importance of community, and the variations of the community influences (Dorfman and Howell 1988, p.129, Smith, 1998, p.62) when conducting his survey.

On the other hand, despite the criticism which the doctrine of Hofstede has been subjected too, it also has a number of salient characteristics which gives it a distinct identity and makes it the most feasible framework to be used for cross cultural research and specifically applicable for this study. Before Hofstede’s work, culture was often treated as a single variable and it has never showed how this phenomenon can be unpacked into independent dimensions. This “unpackaging” approach which have lead into the emergence of new independent dimensions within the field of cross cultural research have further helped in the development of landmark studies like the GLOBE, which helped in better understanding how culture has an influence in an organizational settings (Minkov and Hofstede, 2011 p. 12). On that basis, we can further argue that his cultural framework has an important implication for this study due to the fact that this framework has been the most useful and valid when undertaking cross-cultural research. In addition to this, the wide applicability of Hofstede’s national cultural framework in a number of management studies has proved that the framework is the most feasible and has higher probability of producing more concise result when applied in a cross cultural perspective (Soares et al. 2007, p.280). Last but not least, the first five dimensions which he created also has a better edge compared to other studies as his work has aimed to assign indexes to all nations under the study, and linked the dimensions with demographic, geographic, economic and political aspects of a society (Kale and Barnes, 1992, p. 101) a feature which is unmatched compared to other frameworks developed.

In short, compared to other studies which have been undertaken like the Chinese Cultural Connection (1987), Schwatz (1994) and Trompenaars (1997) which have been discussed in the above section, Hofstede’s (1980, 2001) work has proved to be the most comprehensive. Typically, his framework will be appropriate for this study as it has proved to be the most robust in terms of the number of national culture samples; it has gained a lot of acceptance and other studies which have been linking culture with the studies of organizational behaviors have all argued about its high reliability and its ease of application (e.g, Suutari 1996, Dorfman et al 1997, Ardichvili 2001).

3.1.5. Final Remark of the Cultural Dimensions Framework

Based on the above review and discussion of some basic concepts related to culture and prominent cultural dimensional framework, much insight has been gained in understanding and selecting the right cultural framework to meet the purpose of this study. Following, the selection of the cultural dimension framework, the next section would now aim to present a comprehensive review of some of the most prominent leadership theories. It is believed that it is first crucial to have an understanding of the cultural dimensions which can be used and after that we can select the leadership model which would best suit the purpose of our research. Indeed, this is also in line with Dickson et al. (2003, p. 735) who argued that one
way to approach the research of the relationship between cultural differences and leadership is firstly through the identification and measurement of cultural dimensions. Referring to that, the next section would now aim to have a thorough overview of the different leadership theories and how they have been linked to cultural researches.

3.2 Culturally-Linked Leadership

Over the last few decades the studies of leadership in organizations have undergone a sea of change. Management research has indicated that culture profoundly influences all aspects of management behaviour, especially that of leaders’ behaviours (Berrell, Wright and Van Hoa 1999 pp.578). Given that the business world of today resembles a ‘Global Economic Village’ where various cultures are interacting on a daily basis, there have been wealth of studies which have been using a cultural framework for investigating various aspects of leadership (e.g., Dorfman and Howell 1988, Dorfman et al. 1997, Ardichvili 2001, Aditya and House 2002). Owing to the increasing popularity of linking culture with the studies of leadership this has given rise to a new legitimate and independent field of studies commonly known as cross-cultural leadership. In particular cross cultural leadership as an area of research has gained a lot of prominence starting from the late 1980s to early 1990s. Even today, as businesses continue to venture into the global market, there is a need to understand the influence of culture on organizational behaviour as this impact the way business are done across different cultures and nations. Specifically leaders working in multinational companies are the ones who are the most affected by this process of globalization as they are exposed to differing cultural values and beliefs (Ardichvili and Kuchinke, 2002 p.99). As argued by Jogulu (2010 p. 708) globalization poses numerous challenges for leaders, which has increased the necessity for understanding and acknowledging culturally-linked leadership styles and behaviours. In order to have a better understanding of the mentioned concept, we will first aim to have an understanding of leadership as a concept and how it has been evolving over the years.

3.3 Evolution of Leadership Theories

The mystery of how leaders can ignite the best performance out of their subordinates dates centuries back. Particularly, leadership has been one of the most elusive topics of study for social scientists. In the modern history of social sciences, different theories of leadership have evolved. A review of the leadership literature reveals an evolving series of ‘schools of thoughts’ from “Trait” theories to “competency” leadership. According to Turner and Muller (2005, p. 50), over the last seventy years there have been six main schools of leadership theory which has emerged; trait, behavioural, contingency, visionary, emotional and competency school. Whilst early theories have tended to focus upon the characteristics and behaviours of successful leaders, later theories have considered the role of followers and the contextual nature of leadership. In order to have an understanding of how leadership has been linked within a multicultural context, it is important to first have an overview of how these theories have evolved. It is believed that this review would enable us to select an appropriate school of thought best suiting the purpose of this study.
3.3.1. The Trait School (1940s)

The trait school which was prominent until the 1940s arose from the “Great Man” theory. This school dictates that great leaders are born rather than made and they share some common traits. A review of this theory also state that the trait theory is basically focused on making distinctions between the characteristics of leaders and non-leaders. According to Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991, p. 49 - 56) the overall six traits; drive and ambition, the desire to lead and influence others, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, intelligence and technical knowledge are those that every effective leaders should possess. However, it is important to note that traits alone do not make leaders successful, but rather other measures contribute to the success of leaders as well. Indeed, we believed that one of the foremost traits for the leader is to be able and have a desire to lead others. For instance, in a study undertaken by Turner and Muller (2005, p.50), they argued that an effective leaders should possess traits pertaining to three main areas, abilities (certain leadership/management skills, personality), self-confidence and physical appearance (encompass the appearance of a leader). On the other hand, even though this theory has been widely accepted, we have noticed that one major limitation of this school of thought is that almost as many traits as studies have been undertaken can be identified. This is also in line with Bolden et al., (2003, p. 6, 7) who stated that the number of traits found in a number of studies have proved that this theory is generally inconclusive and absence of one leadership traits does not necessarily mean that the person cannot be considered a leader.

3.3.2. The Behavioural or Style School (1940s-1960s)

This school of thought was popular starting from the 1940s till the 1960s. Under this school, it is assumed that effective leaders behave in a similar way but they do not necessarily share similar traits. This behavioural or style school believes that good leaders do not have to be born but they can also be developed and they tend to adopt certain styles and behaviours (Turner and Muller, 2005, p. 50) which makes them efficient. Under this school, prominent scholars who made major contributions are the works of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) and Blake and Mouton (1978). A review of their works have depicted that there is a general belief that leaders usually adopt similar behaviours like; concern for people or relationship, concern for production, use of authority, involvement of the team in decision-making (in term of formulating the decision and choosing options) and being flexible versus applying the rules (Turner and Muller, 2005, p.50). However, like any other school of thoughts, even this school has shortcoming. For instance, in an in-depth review of the behavioural school undertaken by Bolden et al., (2003, p.8), they argued that this paradigm took a narrow focus when it analysed of what constitutes effective leadership in different situations. Basically, they argued that in practice no formal business would adopt only autocratic or democratic style but there can be a combination or a style that reflects one or other’s characteristics.
3.3.3 The Contingency or Situational School (1960s-1970s)

Given the limited scope of the behavioral theory, the contingency theory also known as the situational theory was popularized mainly by Fielder (1967), House (1971) and Robbins (1997). According to Turner and Muller (2005, p. 51), the situational theory states that what would make an effective leader depends mainly on the situation which prevails. In the work of Fielder (1967), he argued that there is no single best way for managers to lead but rather its situation which create different leadership styles. Typically, he argued that the different leadership styles depend mainly on three conditions; leader member relations, task structure and position power (1967, p.80). As claimed by Bolden et al. (2003, p 6) leadership styles and approaches can be situation specific and depending on organization different styles of leadership can be applied. Typically, the situational variables determine application of one or another leadership style based on its relevance and effectiveness in a particular organization. This school indeed states that several factors within as well as outside the organization determine the style and approach which need to be prioritized depending on the prevailing circumstances. Another prominent scholar belonging to that school whose theory has gained huge acceptance is the path-theory of House (1971). The idea behind the path-goal theory is that leader must help the team find the path of their goals and guide them in that process (1971, p. 326). In a later version of the path goal theory developed by House and Mitchell (1974, p. 90), they identified four leadership behaviors; ‘directive’, ‘supportive’, ‘participative’ and ‘achievement-oriented’ leaders. Particularly, we believed that the contingency leadership theories related to House’s Path -Goal Theory could provide an appropriate theoretical framework for this study as it was primarily designed to test leadership impacts in different situations and context. Given that our study is aimed at finding the leadership behaviours and styles prevailing when companies from high power distance culture starts to operate in low power distance culture (relating to a shift in situation and context), it would help us to better meet the purpose of this study. Section 3.5 of this chapter would provide a more in-depth analysis of House’s Path Goal Theory.

3.3.4 The Visionary or Charismatic School (1980s- 1990s)

This school of thought was popularized by Bass (1985) and it arose mainly from the study of successful business leaders leading their organizations through change. Accordingly, two types of leadership styles were considered to be more effective in bringing changes in organizations; transformational and transactional. With reference to his work, he argued that the transformational leaders aimed to motivate their subordinates to perform at a higher level by inspiring their followers, offering intellectual challenges, paying attention to individual developmental needs, and thus, leading followers to transcend their own self-interest for a higher collective purpose, mission, or vision (1997, p. 131). Similarly, Bass contrasted the transactional leaders as the process of negotiating, offering subordinates’ rewards in exchange for the attainment of specific goals and completion of agreed-upon tasks (1997, p. 132). A more thorough review of the leadership model which he had developed depicts that there are major characteristics which were used to further distinguish between transactional and transformational leaders. Table 7 below illustrates those major
characteristics of transformational and transactional leadership which were based on the findings of a series of surveys and case evidence conducted by him.

### Table 7: Characteristics of Transformational and Transactional leaders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transformational Leaders</th>
<th>Transactional Leaders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Charisma</td>
<td>Contingent Rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspiration</td>
<td>Management by Exception (active)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual Stimulation</td>
<td>Management by Exception (passive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual Consideration</td>
<td>Laissez-Faire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Bass (1990, p.22)*

After a thorough analysis of this school of thought, we have identified some major shortcomings and limitation of Bass leadership model. One major shortcoming we have noticed is under this type of leadership style, subordinates do not possess enough power to influence a leader who is highly idealized. In addition, in this age of increasing competition where organizations are trying to retain their employees and have a more loyal workforce, we can easily conclude that the transactional leadership style solely does not exist. Ideally in practical life we believed that, there will be a mixture of both leadership styles which are more likely to prevail depending on the circumstances and situation which the organization is going through.

### 3.3.5. The Emotional Intelligence School (late 1990s)

This school of thought has gained much momentum starting from the late 1990s. Basically, the idea behind this theory is the leader emotional intelligence plays an important role in dictating his success or failure and that of his team performance. Popularized by Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002, p.15), they identified four types of emotional intelligence; self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. Basically, in their study, they classified self-awareness and self-management as being part of personal competence whilst, the other two as relating to the possession of social competence. In addition to that, out of these emotional intelligence, they further identify six types of leadership styles; visionary, coaching, affiliative, democratic, pacesetting and commendation (2002, p. 25). Based on an in-depth analysis Turner and Muller argued that there is a clear correlation between the emotional intelligence and leadership styles which they identified (2005, p.53). Indeed, they found out that the first four styles (visionary, coaching, affiliative and democratic) foster resonance in the team and usually lead to better performance in appropriate circumstances whilst, the last two styles (pacesetting and commendation) can foster dissonance (2005, p.54). Similar to other school of thought, one major criticism of this model is the ignorance of other important aspects like attitudes, behaviours and other internal and external characteristics which equally plays an important role in becoming an effective leader.
3.3.6 The Competency School (2000s)

The Competency theory is one of the latest leadership models which were popularized by Dulewicz and Higgs (2003). Based on a review of this leadership model we have noticed that this new school encompasses the previous five schools. Indeed as argued by Turner and Muller (2005, p.54), it looks deeper into the leader’s personal characteristics (pertaining to Trait and Emotional Intelligence School), knowledge and skills, which includes intelligence and problem solving ability as well as management skills. The competency school also covered the possibility of building different competency profile in relation to the different leadership styles. In other words, we can say that this school of thought aims to assess the different competencies which leaders need to adopt to make them more efficient. Basing his work on other studies undertaken by Marshall (1999) and Kets de Vries and Florent Treary (2002), who have aimed to identify types of competences which determine leadership performances, Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) identified three types of competences which determine managerial performances; intellectual, managerial skills and emotional.

To summarize the above discussion we can infer that each school of thoughts have adopted a unique approach and have been analyzing leadership theories from different perspectives. Thus, in relation to our study which is aimed at analyzing leadership behaviour, the contingency school which focuses on studying the behaviour and styles of leaders is deemed to be the most appropriate. In a later section this will be more detailed on this school of thought.

3.4 Leadership as a concept

A review of the literature dictates that for much of the 20th century yet there is no generally acceptable definition of the term leadership. Basically, there are over 350 definitions of the term leadership which exist and it has been defined differently by a number of scholars. According to Suutari (1996 p. 391) there are as many ways of defining leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define it. Even though, none of the hundreds of definitions of leadership is agreed upon as the so-called correct definition, Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (2002, p.22) argued that most reflect the notion that leadership involves an interaction between the leader, the followers and the situation. In addition, we have noticed that while trying to define leadership, it usually encompasses three mains elements; group, influence and goals. Table 8 below provides an overview of the different ways leadership has been defined and how they are mostly related to those three elements.
### Table 8: Examples of definitions of leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors (Years)</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>House and Shamir (1993)</td>
<td>Leadership is the ability of an individual to motivate others to forego self interest in the interest of a collective vision and to contribute to the attainment of that vision and to the collective by making significant personal self-sacrifices over and above the call of duty, willingly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yukl (1994)</td>
<td>Leadership is the processes affecting the interpretation of events for followers, the choice of objectives for the group or organization and of work activities to accomplish the objectives for the group or organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House and Javiden (2004)</td>
<td>The ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute towards the effectiveness and success of the organizations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


For the purpose of this study, leadership will be defined and considered based on the definition given by House and Javiden (2004). Indeed, as argued by Chhokar, Brodbeck and House (2007, p. 5) this definition is best suited when the focus is on understanding culture-specific differences in leadership and organizational practices, as it was conceived to find out if some aspects of leadership are universally valid or culture specific. In addition, given that the main focus of this definition is on organizational leadership rather than general leadership, we believed that it would enable us to stay focus and better meet the purpose of our study.

On the other hand, given that this study aims to focus on leadership behaviours and styles, it becomes important to have an outlook of how they have been defined in the literature. According to Selvarajah et al. (1995, p.40), leadership behavior has usually been considered as the values, attitudes and styles of managers which are specific to the performance of the management task. Given that there is a close relation between the term leadership behaviours and styles and that they are inter-related with each other, we will consider them to be similar and will be used interchangeable. Indeed, we cannot deny the fact that it is the set of behaviours and action displayed by the managers or leaders which gave them a particular style.

### 3.5 Leadership styles and Behavioural Framework adopted for this study

The path goal theory of House (1996) is focused on analysing the relationship between leaders and subordinates in an organization and basically it looks at how leaders influence and motivate their subordinates. The underlying idea of this theory is that leaders are in a position to provide their subordinates with relevant cognitive clarifications to make sure that the employees can fulfil the tasks and receive intrinsic satisfaction and rewards.
Basically, the path-goal theory was first mentioned in House (1971) when he was trying to explain the effects of leaders’ behaviour on subordinate satisfaction, motivation and performance. In a later version of Path-goal theory, House and Mitchell (1974) argued that the leadership behaviour can also be seen as a source of satisfaction and motivation for subordinates (p.84).

The path goal theory of House (1971) has been deemed to be the most appropriate model for our study as it possesses different characteristics which make it attractive as a basis of model for leadership behaviours in different cultures. Different studies have argued that this model has been found useful in leadership research in different cultures (e.g. Al-Gattan 1985, Dorfman and Howell, 1988, Dorfman et al.1996) as it was developed specifically to study leadership behaviours and styles in organizations and its applicability can easily be transferred from culture to culture. Similarly, Dorfman et al. (1996, p.236) argued that there are three main reasons why the path goal theory model of House can be the most viable. Firstly they stated that this model includes etic leader behaviour which can be identified and described in all the cultures studied. Secondly, the model incorporates mediator variables which help to track the causal impacts of leadership behaviours on outcomes. Finally it is the only model developed so far which incorporate situational moderator variables dealing with culture. Given the high applicability and feasibility of this model for our study, the next sub-section will aim to provide a detailed overview of the four types of leadership behaviours which have been illustrated by House and Mitchell (1974).

3.5.1 Directive Leadership Behaviours

A review of the literature dictates that the *directive leader behaviour* aims to reduce the role ambiguity of subordinates by setting clear structure of work to be implemented and procedures to use to attain the expected outcome. According to House and Mitchell (1974, p. 81-97) there are various behaviours which give leaders directive leadership styles. Among those behaviours which are more prevalent under this leadership styles comprised of:

- Clarification of expected performance as well as assigning tasks for their implementations
- Scheduling and coordinating work
- Clarifying policies, rules and procedures
- Assigning specific non-negotiable goals
- Using contingent reprimands to facilitate cooperation from followers, subordinates or group members.

In a more detailed study undertaken by Muczyk and Reimann (1987, p.304) they argued that directive leadership styles can further be sub-divided into *directive autocrats* and *directive democrats*. The directive autocrat leadership behaviour is more likely to prevail when the leaders make decisions unilaterally and also supervise the activities of subordinates very closely (Muczyk and Reimann 1987 p.304-305). On the other hand, they argued that the directive democrats behaviours occur when the leaders invite full
participation from subordinates in decision making but still supervises very closely to make sure they carry out their democratically assigned tasks properly (1987, p 305). Even though, directive leadership behaviour has proved to be effective when quick decisions need to be taken and when the subordinates are inexperienced it can also be an impediment as it does not encourage diverse perspectives (Hmieleski and Ensley 2007, p. 870).

By analysing leadership behaviour from a cultural perspective we can deduce that directive leadership is more influential in countries with high power distance index rather than low. For instance in a study undertaken by Dorfman et al. (1997 p.264), they found out that in high power distance countries like Mexico and Taiwan, directive leadership have proved to be the most effective and important behaviour as they are societies which are highly status conscious. They further argued that this kind of leadership styles have a positive impact in terms of reducing role ambiguity among subordinates and in influencing the commitment level of employees (1997 p.265). In contrast, they found out that in low power distance country like USA directive leadership styles have proved to be ineffective and led to very low level of organizational commitment.

3.5.2 Supportive Leadership Behaviours

The second leadership behaviour identified by House and Mitchell (1974) argued that supportive behaviours occur when a leader is friendly and considerate of the needs of his subordinates. According to House (1996 p. 326, 327) a leader is deemed to display a supportive behaviour when he is mainly concerned with ensuring a friendly and supportive working environment for his employees, paying attention for their welfare and building trust within the organization. Studies have showed that supportive leaders have generally been deemed to be considerate and available to listen to followers’ problems. Indeed we cannot deny the fact that having a supportive working environment usually leads to increase self confidence of subordinates and higher job satisfaction. Considering its application within a cultural context, Dorfman et al. (1997, p. 242), argued that this type of leadership behaviour has proved to be widely present in low power distance culture like America. Similarly, in another study conducted by Dickson et al. (2003), they found the applicability of supportive leadership behaviour present in both low and high power distance countries (in Western and Asian countries). However, they further argued that even though they have noticed the prevalence of supportive behaviours within both type of culture, it yielded higher level of satisfaction in low power distance culture.

3.5.3 Participative Leadership Behaviours

The third leadership behaviour identified by House and Mitchell (1987) portrays participative behaviour as any kind of behaviour which is directed towards the encouragement of subordinates influence over decision makings. In short, this leadership style is oriented towards managers who share a consensual decision making with their subordinates to achieve a common objective. Indeed as argued by Nystrom, (1990, p.303) he found out that this kind of leadership style aims to increase the participation of followers
by providing them with greater discretion, attention, influence, support, information and other resources and to share the issues of problems solving with followers by consulting them before making a decision. There has also been much discussion that the prevalence of participative behaviour within the organisation has produced psychological empowerment which in turns has led to increase in organizational commitment and autonomy (Huang et al. 2006, p.347). On the other hand, considering the above mentioned leadership style from a cultural perspective, Dorfman et al., (1997, p.256) claimed that participative behaviour has proved to be more efficient in lower power distance compared to high power distance culture. Particularly, they found out that in Taiwan (which is classified as a high power distance culture), the presence of participative behaviour has proved to have a negative impact in organizational commitment. In contrast, Sweden belonging to a low power distance culture reported a positive impact and experienced a higher level of organisational commitment and subordinates satisfaction.

3.5.4 Achievement Oriented Leadership Behaviours

Finally, a review of House and Mitchell’s (1987) work dictate that achievement oriented leadership are any behaviour which are directed towards encouraging performance excellence by setting challenging goals, emphasizing excellence in performance and in instilling confidence that the subordinates will strive for higher standard of performance. In short, this type of leadership behaviour has been proved to lead to higher standards of performance and to create self-confidence among subordinates. This type of leadership behaviours are usually deemed to be viable and applied when subordinates have the required knowledge and expertise to conduct the allocated task. Given the degree of authority and delegation which needs to be allocated to subordinates in that type of leadership we can argue that this will be more prevalent in low power distance countries. Indeed, as argued by Hofstede (2001 p.107) in low power distance countries leaders rely more on the personal experience of the employees and give them the freedom to complete the allocated tasks.

3.6 Studying culture-based differences in leadership

A review of the cross-cultural leadership literature dictates that mostly the four cultural dimensions (power distance, individualism-collectivism, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity-feminity) provided by Hofstede (1980, 2001) have often been used as variable to dictate the prevailing leadership styles within an organization. In order to have an overview of how those different dimensions have been linked with leadership theories or model, we will provide an outlook of how those individual dimensions have been considered in literature. Of utmost importance, we will focus on shedding light on the cultural dimension power distance as it is the main variable chosen for this study.
3.6.1 Power distance and leadership

According to Dickson, Hartog and Mitchelson (2003, p. 737) power distance is one of the most influential cultural dimension which has been used to have an in-depth analysis of cross-cultural leadership research. Specifically, power distance as a cultural dimension has been used to dictate the leadership styles and behaviors in an organization as it deals directly with the expectations and distribution of power, authority and status. Various studies have also used this dimension to analyze the relationship which exists between supervisors and subordinates and how they differ across countries and sub-culture (e.g., Adsit et al., 1997, Bu, Craig and Peng 2001). For instance in the study undertaken by Adsit et al., (1997, p.394) they found out that in low power distance culture where there were limited dependence of subordinates on their supervisors, there was a preference for participative behavior. In contrast, they also found that in high power distance culture where there is usually a strong dependence of subordinates on their supervisors, autocratic behaviors were more prevalent. Similarly, in another study conducted by Offermann and Hellmann, (1997, p. 343) they found that autocratic and paternalistic management approach were more prevalent across high power distance countries whilst democratic approach were more widely present across low power distance culture.

On the other hand, in trying to dictate the leadership styles and behaviors (specifically when using power distance as a measurement variable) which prevail, there are various authors who have argued about the different processes and structures which need to be analyzed. According to some researchers, (Lachman, Nedd and Hinings 1997, p.48 and Muczyk and Reimann 1987, p.303) those processes and structures which help in shaping the leadership styles and behaviors are basically centered around the decision making process, coordination, degree of control and direction, organization hierarchy the participation level of employees and the process involve in setting goals. Foremost, decision making as an element is usually supported by a formal management system in place. Indeed, the management system dictates how the strategic, functional and tactical decisions are taken and who needs to be consulted before taking any decisions. In analyzing the decision making process from a cultural perspective, Pascale (1978) found that there are significant difference between high and low power distance culture. In his paper, he argued that there was more prevalence of participative decision making in low power distance culture compared to non-participative approach being more prominent within high power distance culture. Similarly, Hofstede (2001, p.90) found that in low power distance culture managers consider their subordinates’ suggestions before taking any final decisions whilst in high power distance culture, only managers are involved in that process.

Another process and structure which helps in dictating the leadership style in high or low power distance countries are the coordination and control system in place. According to Lachman et al. (1997, p. 49) coordination refers to the way in which different people works together and within the context of their studies they state that the monitoring system in place are more likely to be vertical in high power distance countries and horizontal in low power distance countries. In other words, based on the finding of Lachman et al. (1997) we can assume that there will be a top down approach in high power distance countries where mainly head of departments or superiors will be involved in this process. In contrast, in low
power distance countries the monitoring system will be in such a way that it will follow a horizontal structure, where line managers might be involved in coordinating and monitoring different group of employees.

Similarly, Pascale (1978) has found that another important structure within the organization which helps in dictating the leadership style is the organizational hierarchy. For instance in the study undertaken by Lachman et al. (1994, p.48), they found that there are different hierarchical structure which exist in countries belonging to different cultural backgrounds. Based on the comparative survey which they conducted in Japan and United States, Lachman et al., (1994, p. 49) found that in a low power distance country like US, the organization hierarchy is more likely to be horizontal in structure compared to Japan where it is more vertical. Basically, we can assume that in countries like Japan belonging to high power distance cultures, the activities will be organized around different functional departments whilst in US (being classified as a low power distance culture) there will be lesser layers between the head of the organization and lower level employees. Last but not the least, the way that objectives and goals are set are another important aspect which according to De Souza and Klein (1995) emphasized whether the leaders get their subordinates involved when they are formulating company goals and objectives. Accordingly, they argued that supportive leaders usually initiate their subordinates in the process as it is believed that this makes them feel valued within the organization, whilst, it has generally been argued that achievement oriented leaders encourage performance excellence by setting challenging goals (De Souza and Klein, 1995 p. 480).

To conclude, we can state that power distance as a cultural dimension has indeed a big influence in dictating the leadership behaviours and styles prevailing within an organization. Thus, based on the above discussion there is no doubt that leadership behaviours and styles prevailing tend to differ from high to low power distance culture.

3.6.2 Other cultural dimensions linked with leadership behavioural studies

Even though power distance as a cultural dimension has been one of the most influential variables used in dictating the leadership behaviours and styles prevailing across different cultures, the other three variables provided by Hofstede (1980) have also been considered in cross cultural leadership studies. In relation to the dimension individualism-collectivism, Jung and Avolio (1999, p. 210) argued that in individualistic cultures, managers are more prone to adopt a transactional leadership style whilst collectivist cultures have shown a preference for transformational style. As they further highlighted, the presence of transformational leadership style within the collectivist culture has generated more ideas whilst individualist has generated more ideas with a transactional leader. Similarly, in a study undertaken by Bochner and Hesketh (1994, p. 240) in a large, culturally diverse Australian bank they found that persons from individualistic cultures reported significantly less likelihood of working in a team rather than alone compared to persons from collectivistic culture.
With reference to the other dimension, *uncertainty avoidance* (UA), Hofstede (2001, p. 168) argued that countries with low UA have employees which are more tolerant to organizational change and are more willing to take risks compared to employees from high uncertainty avoidance culture. Given that researchers have showed the strong theoretical relationship which exists between perceptions of uncertainty with aspects of decision making and policy formation (e.g, Hmieleski and Ensley, 2007) we believed that relationship between UA and leadership behavior in organizations is likely. Indeed, as argued by Offermann and Hellmann (1997), managers from high uncertainty avoidance culture are perceived to adopt behaviours which are more controlling, less delegating and less approachable than managers from low uncertainty avoidance culture. Finally, even though the cultural dimension *masculinity-femininity* which was identified by Hofstede (1980) has been used to a lesser extent to analyze studies related to organizational leadership behavior and styles, some authors did acknowledge its relationship in assessing leadership behaviours. For instance, in a study undertaken by Adsit et al. (1997, p. 390), they found that in femininity cultures, managers were more prone to display behaviours which emphasized cooperation and good working relationships. On the other hand, they also found that in masculine culture, there was higher emphasize on promoting an assertive, challenging and highly ambitious working environment.

In relation to the above section which has aimed to provide an overview of how the different cultural dimensions of Hofstede (1980) has been linked with studies from leadership behaviours and styles we have gained a thorough knowledge of its applicability from a cross cultural perspective. Indeed, we have noticed that each country depending on their cultural dimension classification have adopted different leadership behaviours and styles. Thus, given that this study aimed to consider a low power distance culture country like Sweden, and two other high power distance cultures like France and Japan as classified by Hofstede (1980) the next section will provide a comprehensible review of those selected countries. As depicted in the chart below (figure 3), Sweden has the lowest power distance index compared to France and Japan which are ranked in a higher position.

![Figure 3: Power Distance Index of France, Japan and Sweden as classified by Hofstede (1980)](image)

**Figure 3**: Power Distance Index of France, Japan and Sweden as classified by Hofstede (1980)

**Source**: Hofstede 1980, p.51, G.Hofstede, J. Hofstede and Minkov, 2010, p.58,59
3.7 Leadership styles and behaviours prevalent in Sweden

It has often been claimed that among all the European countries, Sweden possesses a distinctive leadership style which is often referred as “Swedish Style”. One prominent characteristic which various studies have acknowledged is the consensus decision making and open dialogue which seems to be prevailing within the Swedish organizations (Smith et al., 2003, Holmberg and Akerblom 2006). Basically, it has been argued that the development of the consensus culture is connected to the fact that Swedish population is unusually homogenous compared to other countries (Holmberg and Akerblom, 2006, p. 311). Indeed, we cannot deny the fact that the organization culture is such that everyone’s opinions, ideas and experiences are respected and listened to, since all are considered as potential contributors to the accomplishment of the task in place or to the solution of the problem being dealt with (Smith and Eyjolfsdottir, 1996, p. 493). This as such portrays an element of trust where it is normal for the Swedish managers to consult his or her subordinates and delegate responsibilities to them and this usually result into a group process. As stated by Smith et al., (2003, p. 493), its only when they speak ‘on behalf’ of the group that they are taken seriously. Similarly, Hofstede (2001, p. 92) found that in low power distance culture like Sweden, leaders or managers tend to display behaviours which are more considerate and they see more need for interaction facilitation behaviours.

Another hallmark which is typical to Swedish leaders is the hands-on approach which allows them to act quickly, using practical strategies to accomplish pragmatic business goals and achieve immediate results (Peters and Kabacoff, 2010, p. 4). Indeed, based on that it is clear that Swedish managers spend less time developing and utilizing guidelines and procedures or monitoring progress to goals in a systematic way. This is also in line with Suutari (1996, p.686) who found that Swedish managers have been seen as those who create lower order and formalization of structures. Furthermore, referring to Swedish managers’ behaviour, studies have argued that they have been found to display friendly and informal attitudes, even though they have a somewhat reserved style when interacting with others (Taleghani et al., 2010, p. 101). Undeniably, it has been widely acknowledged that although they are reluctant to state clearly what they want and expect from others, Smith and Eyjolfsdottir (1996, p. 495) found that Swedish managers let others know what they think of them and whether the other person has met their needs and expectations.

Based on the above characteristics and behaviours adopted, it is clear that Swedish leadership styles are highly peculiar and distinct in nature. Definitely, we cannot deny the fact that a lot of emphasis is placed on promoting a participative culture where everyone is expected and encouraged to contribute. Classified as being a low power distance culture (PDI 31), Hofstede (2001, p.60) also found that in countries like Sweden, it’s inclined to endorse more participative leadership styles.

3.8 Leadership styles and behaviours prevalent in Japan

Several writers have highlighted the distinct leadership approach which Japanese managers have been known to embrace. Early researches have emphasized on values like familial
aspects of the Japanese workplace, the ideal of harmony, the importance of reciprocal obligation and group motivation which are present (Dunphy, 1987 and Taka and Foglia, 1994). Other more recent studies have also stated that the Japanese approach comprised of building trust, employee loyalty, recognizing employee accomplishments, decentralizing decision making and employing consensual decision making (Swierczek and Onishi, 2002 and Tang et al., 2000).

Among all those values, one of the most prevalent behaviours which most researchers have argued to be widely present within Japanese organizations is the element of trust. According to Taka and Foglio (1994, p. 139), there is a general belief that group members should try to understand other members feelings and expectations by constructing a harmonious group relations. Thus, it is believed that this has prompted the leader to take an extremely important role in fostering group solidarity by promoting mutual trust. Another Japanese management philosophy is the open communication and consensual decision making which is incorporated within the organization. In a study undertaken by Fukushige and Spicer (2007, 511), they found that owing to the long term employment practice in the organization, there is extensive focus on face-to-face communication. Thus, this has led to the development of a closer and more open relationship between subordinates and managers. Besides, given the increasing focus which they put on maintaining a harmonious group relation, there is also the consensual decision-making process culture which prevails. As advocated by Tang et al., (2000, p.539), managers in Japanese organization will not decide until those who will be affected by the decisions have had sufficient time to offer their views and are willing to support the decision. Similarly, Corbett (1986, p.72) found that Japanese managers rely strongly on team approach by encouraging people to speak up when they disagree with a decision. Additionally, given that the Japanese philosophy is based on long working tenure and developing a network of friendships, Tang et al. (2000, p. 540) argued that the Japanese management philosophy is such that everyone knows his or her place in the status hierarchy.

In short, based on the above discussion it is clear that Japanese managers are automatically more involved as a mentor in teaching employees by exercising patience and reinforcing the company practice, which enables subordinates to decide what to do in a given situation (Fukushige and Spicer, 2007, p. 520). Similarly, Earley and Erez (1997) found out that there is the prevalence of participative management style within the Japanese organization and to some extent it can be authoritative, owing to the importance which they placed on status and the hierarchical structure present. On the other hand, in relation to the findings of Hofstede (2001) which classified Japan a being a high power distance (PDI - 54), he argued that in such culture there is a strong dependence of subordinates on their supervisors and it can be highly hierarchical.

3.9 Leadership styles and behaviours prevalent in France

Classified as being part of high power distance culture (PDI- 68 as classified by Hofstede (1980), France has got some notable leadership characteristics which make it distinct compared to other cultures. Scholars have argued that French culture display behaviours
which depicts full power of decision making and control on the organization and they see less need for group decision making and autonomy-delegation behaviours (Suutari, 1996 and Taleghani et al. 2010). Emphasized have also been made on other evident specifications like, the presence of formality, mightinees, superiors’ expectation of inferiors and respect for superiors (Peters and Kabacoff, 2010, p. 5).

Referring back to characteristics which are pertinent for a high power distance culture like France, highlights have often been made on the steep pyramidal structure which characterise the organization. Indeed, in a study undertaken by Schramm- Neilsen (2000, p. 8), it was found out that managers of each pyramid make decision independent of his subordinates and it is based on a centralised approach. In relation to this fact it thus becomes clear that in France, participatory methods in decision making are not common but as advocated by Brodbeck et al. (2000, p.18), it is the wisdom and smartness of the leaders which are considered of primordial importance. Further attentions have also been made on the little delegation of authority and tight control of subordinates’ activities which are present within such kind of organization. Similarly, in a study undertaken by Taleghani et al., (2010, p. 102) they found out that close monitoring over subordinates activities are one of the most prevalent behaviour, as many French managers have been stressing on the fact that they want to be aware of each and every activities of their subordinates. Another important aspect which is present within French organisation and has helped to frame the behaviour of leaders is the heavy emphasis on written rules and rigid procedures (Schramm-Neilsen, 2000, p. 6). Thus, it is believed that such aspect would lead to avoiding face-to-face confrontation in the authority relationships between superiors and their immediate subordinates.

Other prominent characteristics which have been recognized by scholars and which are part of French leadership philosophy are their personal style of being outgoing, operating with a good deal of energy, intensity, emotional and their tendency to use instincts when taking any decisions (Suutari, 1996, p.676). Last but not the least, based a thorough review, we can deduced that French managers on general allow less participation of their subordinates in decision making and delegate less. Besides, there is also less emphasis on cooperation, group work and less active in giving information to subordinates.

### 3.10 Integrated Framework

In relation to the above sections which have aimed to provide an overview of major concepts and theories related to cross cultural leadership, specific models which best suit the purpose of this study have been selected. Referring back to the literature on culture, there are a wide number of cultural dimension frameworks (Hofstede (1980), Chinese Cultural Connection (1987), Schwartz (1994), Trompenaars (1997) and GLOBE (2004)) which have been developed. On the other hand, even the leadership theories have evolved from different school of thought during the last few decades, from traits (1940s), behavioural (1960s), contingency (1970s), visionary (1980s), emotional intelligence (1990), to competency (2000s) school of thoughts. Given this wide array of models and area of focus available, Hofstede’s (1980) cultural dimension and House’s Path Goal leadership model (1971) were deemed to be the most appropriate given the purpose and context of our study.
As illustrated in figure 4 below, the current state of knowledge has provided indication of how the cultural dimension power distance has been linked with House (1971) leadership behaviours and styles. It is important to note that in most of the comparative studies undertaken up to now, it has been found that in countries with high power distance index; there is the prevalence of directive leadership behaviours and styles. On the other hand, the literature also indicated that in countries with low power distance index and depending on their rankings, there might be preference for participative, supportive or achievement oriented leadership approach. Thus, in relation to the framework developed, it is important to note that the interconnections between the different concepts presented are intended to be flexible. In other words, the linkages were made based on what have been found out in a review of the literature so that it will help us in providing a broader overview of what is being analyzed and allow the researchers to find new information.
**Figure 4:** Integrated Framework from the selected cultural and leadership model.
3.11 Area of research contribution

After a thorough analysis of the current state of knowledge, a framework which explains the overall conception of the study was designed (as depicted in the figure 5 below). The framework has been illustrated in order to visually help us understand the social phenomenon being studied and visualizes the existing gap. Referring back to the literature presented, it is clear that most of the studies undertaken up to now have focused on undertaking a comparative stance. Indeed, we have noticed that there is a dearth of studies which have focused on the leadership behaviours and styles being adopted when there is change from one cultural context to another (considering power distance as a variable). In relation to this gap, this study aims to find out the leadership behaviours and styles being adopted when companies from high power distance culture starts to operate in low power distance cultural context. As depicted in the model below (figure 5), the transition from a high power distance context to low power distance could lead either to an integration or mitigation of the leadership behaviours and styles being adopted (that is, it can be in line with the home or host culture). Thus, given this integration or mitigation of leadership styles which might occur, it is believed that there must be some influential factors which must be framing towards the adoption of the prevailing behaviours, which probe us to further inquire why this particular approach is being adopted.

It is important to note the framework below is designed to be flexible in nature in order to help us in designing the interview guide and allow us as researchers not to be constraint by having a narrow perspective. Undeniably, the idea behind this framework is also to be able to use all types of information which will be gathered from the interviewees and which can lead to better understanding of the phenomenon under study.

Figure 5: The framework illustrating the area of contribution
CHAPTER 4
METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

The previous chapter which has illustrated the theoretical framework of our study has specifically aimed to show where the gaps are situated and where knowledge still needs to be contributed. After this thorough analysis we now aim to fulfil this gap by demonstrating how the data collection will be designed and finally how the analysis of the data was conducted.

4.1 Choice of Data Gathering Techniques

As elaborated in chapter 2, the selected research strategy for this study is based on a qualitative approach with a multiple case study chosen as a research design. We believed that it is the most appropriate strategy used for this study as it provides better insight on which types of leadership behaviours and styles are adopted by high power distance cultures when they operate in a low power distance context. Besides, given that we intend to have a more in-depth analysis on why they are adopting the prevailing leadership behaviours and in being more open on what will be found in the field, the selected approach is the most feasible.

On the other hand, considering the wide array of qualitative techniques which exist to collect data, interviewing has deemed to be the most appropriate as it enabled us to be in closer proximity with the respondents we are interviewing. According to Guba and Lincoln (1985, p. 35), an interview may be defined as a conversation with a certain purpose and it may be carried out in different ways, depending on the personality of the researcher, who the interviewees are, and the clarity of the research question. However, for the purpose of this study, the last point (research question) was considered in particular when the method for conducting the interviews was designed for this study.

As argued by Ponterotto (2002, p. 398), this technique also enables the researchers to enter the world of culturally diverse participants and better understand how they perceive and describe a particular phenomenon. Indeed for this study, we believed that this technique would be suitable as we require rich and detailed answers of the phenomenon under study and deeper insight into the thoughts of the interviewees. In addition to that, Barriball and While (1994, p.329) stated that the interviewing technique is well suited as it provides the opportunity to evaluate the validity of the respondents’ answers by observing non-verbal indicators which are particular useful when discussing sensitive issues like culture.

4.1.1 Semi Structured Interviews

According to Saunders et al. (2009, p.53) qualitative interviews have usually been clustered into structured, semi-structured or unstructured. However for the purpose of this study, we have opted for a semi-structured interview as the mean of data collection because of three primary
considerations. Foremost, as argued by Barriball and While (1994, p.330) they are appropriate for the exploration of perceptions and opinions of respondents regarding complex and sensitive issues. Indeed, given that this study intends to find out the type of leadership behaviours which are prevailing within the selected company and why they are adopting such practice, (focusing on the ‘what’ and ‘why’ aspect), we believed that there should be a structure to follow in order to ensure that we are fulfilling the purpose of our study by asking relevant questions. The design of those questions was basically formed by having a thorough review of relevant concepts and by bearing in mind the purpose of this study. Secondly, this data collection tool was selected as it enabled us to probe further for more information and even give the respondents the opportunity to elaborate more on point of interest which could potentially add significance and depth to the data obtained. Besides, using the semi-structured questionnaire is valuable as it allows us to explore and clarify inconsistencies within the respondents’ account. Last but not the least as stated by Kvale (2007, p. 42), this type of tool provides a flexible and open structure which allow a conversation flow between the interviewer and interviewee.

4.1.2 Interview Guide used as a Conveyor of Intentions

According to Kvale (2007, p. 56) an interview guide is a script which structures the course of the interview more or less tightly. As enclosed in Appendix 1, the interview guide is also a brief list of memory prompts of areas which need to be covered during the interview. In relation to this study, an interview guide was deemed to be necessary because of three main reasons. Foremost, it served as an “ice-breaker” in the interview encounter as it provides us with something to being talking about and it allows rapport to be created between the interviewer and interviewee. Secondly, as argued by Krauss et al. (2009, p. 246) an interview guide is needed as it may provide an impression of efficiency. Indeed, this may be a good thing when professional managers are interviewed, because there is always an opportunity cost involved. A manager might feel that he or she could use the time in another, more effective way rather than spending it on a friendly chat with a stranger.

Referring to the interview guide of this study, it was developed based on a review of the literature and on concepts which we believe reflects the theoretical framework that we want to analyze. Basically, the interview guide is divided into different parts and covering several themes like; task allocation, goal setting and performance improvement process, relationship with employees, monitoring and control, communication and decision making process. While formulating the interview guide, the designing steps provided by Krauss et al. (2009) was considered. As depicted in figure 6 below, it comprised of five steps which according to the same authors if followed, elicit more focused responses from participants and accommodates themes that emerge in the early stage of data analysis (2009, p.247). To extract more information, care was also taken that the interviewer’s questions were open-ended, simple and easy to understand by the respondents. Indeed, as argued by Kvale (2007, p. 60), the questions should be formulated in such a way that it prompt the interviewees to generate rich descriptions and examples of the topic being addressed.
Figure 6: Interview guide designing process used for this study

Source: Adopted from Krauss et al. (2009, p.247)

Thus, to ensure that the interview guide generates rich and relevant information, a variety of open ended questions were formulated comprising of introductory, follow-up, probing and indirect questions. Firstly, some introductory questions related to the background of the respondents and working experience were asked. Additionally, in order to keep in mind important issues which need to be addressed, follow-up questions such as “why do you adopt such an attitude?” or “what did you do in such a situation?” or “how did you approach this issue?” were also pre-designed. Finally, to extract more details from the interviewees, probing questions such as; could you please tell us more about…, I am not quite sure I understood… Could you give me some examples? You mentioned… could you tell us more about that? What stands out in your mind about that? Specifically, those probing questions were asked when further clarifications or new unchartered topic has been introduced by the respondents and it was considered to be of relevance to the analysis of the data.

Finally, it is worthwhile to note that even though a semi-structured interview was used, the attached interview guide was used mainly as a guideline and includes some relevant topics which we wanted to explore, but it was not used in a strict manner. Basically, it was on our own judgment and tact that we decided on how closely to stick to the guide and how much to follow up the interviewees’ answers and the new directions they may open up. Last but not the least, before allocating the actual interview guide it was subjected to a few pilot testing with friends. Based on the trial sessions we had, a few modifications were made in relation to the wording of a few questions. Specifically, revision was made of terms or words which could be confusing and could lead to specific answers without allowing the interviewee more room to better express himself or her. It is also important to note that the interview guide was not presented to the respondents before the interview so that they would not prepare static answers for the different questions and would answer in a more natural manner.

4.2 Collecting the Data

As discussed before, overall twelve interviews were conducted from both of the companies. However, out of those twelve interviews held, six of the interviews were conducted in the French company using telephone whilst another six face-to-face interviews were within the Japanese company. From both case companies (the French and Japanese companies) one woman and five men were interviewed. To ensure that all the data was preserved for analysis, all interviews were recorded and written notes were made so that we do not miss any social cues such as body
language (especially during the face-to-face interview). Written notes were also considered in case there is malfunctioning of the tape recorder and to check if all the questions have been answered. During the face-to-face interviews, a small unobtrusive tape recorder was placed between the interviewer and the participant whilst a telephone recording control device was used for the telephone interviews. Nevertheless, for this study, audio recording was considered more important than note-taking as it makes it possible to keep quotations as close to the original statements.

In relation to the gathering of the data, it was collected within a period of two months and on average each interviews (for both telephone and face-to-face) lasted for one hour. It is worthwhile to note that at the outset of every interview a list of issues were addressed in order to maximize the time spent getting the informant to share information. Specifically, they comprised of:

- Getting permission for conducting interviews from the Human Resource Managers of the company
- Booking the interview date and time
- Making the investigator’s motives and intentions and the inquiry’s purpose clear
- Protection of the company name and respondents through the use of pseudonyms was ensured.
- And permission to record the interview was asked before starting.

4.2.1 Face-to-Face versus Telephone Interview

As mentioned above in the Japanese case company face-to-face interviews were conducted. Face-to-face interview being one of the most common forms of interviewing was advantageous since we could easily perceive non-verbal communications signs, such as face and hand expression as well as body language. Besides, any discomfort, stress and problems that the respondents experiences were detected through frowns and nervous taping which was unconsciously exhibited by the respondents. Indeed as argued by Opdenakker (2006, p. 65), this provided the interviewer with a lot of extra information which can be added to the verbal answer of the interviewee on question. Further, we have noticed that this form of interview has provided us as interviewers the opportunity to create a good interviewing environment, which have helped to develop a better rapport with them.

On the other hand, given some constraint which we faced from the French Company in having face-to-face contact due to the travelling cost, time limitations and availability of all the respondents within the planned interview days, the possibility of making telephone interviews were considered. Especially in this study, telephone interviewing was considered as an important strategy as it provided us with opportunity to obtain data from potential participants who are difficult to access in person. But conducting telephone interviews has some disadvantages too. Foremost, we cannot deny the fact that communication is not entirely an oral matter but it involves the use of body language and this is lacking in the telephone interviews we conducted. Similarly, given that we had no view on the situation in which the interviewee is situated, this lessens the possibilities of creating a good interview ambience. Nevertheless, even though a
telephone interview is not likely to have the same benefits when compared to face-to-face qualitative interviewing, efforts were made so that we do not compromise the quality of the data collected. Specifically, we had informal conversations with the managers before and after the interviews were conducted in order to develop a rapport. As argued by Legard, Keegan and Ward (2003, p.143), this is vital as it helped to develop rapport with them and gain insight into further information which they left out or forgot during the formal interview. Indeed, these conversations have allowed us to further understand their perceptions and point of views from where they provided the answers to the formal interview.

4.3 Data Analysis

After the interviews have been conducted with the managers, it was time to compose the cases. The interviews were digitally recorded and a verbatim transcription was conducted at the end of each interview. The interviews were transcribed using the same words which were originally used by the interviewees in order to maximise the exactness of the interview (Flick, 2006, p. 288). Non-verbal cues such as laughter, long pauses or any other facial expressions were also transcribed in order to approximate the written translation to the original oral interview. In transcribing the interviews, Kvale (2007, p.38) method of numbering each interventions were employed in order to allow better orientation of where the quotes were taken from. For instance, for the first case and the first respondent, the code A-01 was employed while the code B-01 was considered for the second case and for the first respondent of that company. Once the transcription was completed, they were sent again to the informants for checking and confirmation. This was partly done for ethical and reliability reasons.

Once the transcription of the data was completed it was time to analyse the data. Given the purpose of this study and the methodological stance adopted, this has probed us to consider the constant comparison method presented by Glaser and Strauss (1967) to analyse the data. According to Lindvall et al. (2010, p. 3) the constant comparison method is an analytical approach which is aimed at constructing theory which is well grounded in empirical data. Given the nature of this study, grounded theory was deemed to be appropriate as we intend to generate theory through systematic data collection. Indeed, even the methodological stance discussed above has directed us to consider the use of grounded theory. According to Egan (2002, p. 284) in using this analytical approach there are a number of key steps which should be used in processing the data; coding of data, identification of code categories and finally writing the cases based upon both primary and secondary information.

According to Egan (2002, p.285), coding has been identified as the initial analysis activity for establishing categories and it involves the process of naming, comparing and memoing. In relation to this study, the coding process was undertaken after the transcription. Basically each line from the interview transcript was analyzed, named and selective phase were used to organize the data. During the coding process, the formed codes were also compared with different excerpts which resulted in changes and adjustments of the coding categories. This was specifically done in order to make them cover statements and observations which appear to be related to each other. An example of how the code was developed into related category (moving from text, open codes, selective coding and category) has been illustrated in figure 7 below. An
open coding was first done followed by a selective coding which involved putting the open codes into clusters, re-reading the material and then re-coding with a more specific focus. As the coding process was proceeding, the emergence of categories were modified and organized into sets.

Another important aspect which is part of the coding process is memoing. As suggested by Egan (2002, p.285) this is important as it allows the analyzers to write down comments and ideas which have been evoked during the coding process and field study. Indeed, for this study memoing was helpful in writing the case. Last but not the least, when the themes had been identified, all statements were recorded and some adjustments was done in order to fit the coding categories and makes it fit the raw data better. Considering suggestion given by Glaser and Strauss (1967, p. 28), care was also taken so that the coding categories fit with the data set.

**Figure 7:** An illustration of the analyzing process moving from text to category

Following a similar approach we have adopted in the illustration given above (figure 7), each and every excerpt was examined from the 12 different transcriptions we had. First, an open coding which involves breaking down, examining, comparing and conceptualizing the data was adopted. Once the open coding was conducted, a selective coding was done in order to select the main category and relate it to the other categories. After each and every relevant excerpt was coded they were then grouped together in order to merge similar categories emerging. As depicted in table 9 below, a number of categories and sub-categories in both case companies have emerged based on the coding undertaken.
Table 9: Main categories and sub-categories developed from the data analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employee Involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules, guidelines and process oriented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top down approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance oriented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural influence from Corporate Headquarters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence of leaders’ cultural background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence of local culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-categories</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Host country management philosophy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control over final decision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home country management philosophy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close supervision of subordinates</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 5
EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

As discussed in the methodological framework chapter, two case studies; one French and one Japanese manufacturing multinational company are used because of their relative differences found in the cultural dimension of power distance as compared to Sweden. The chapter will provide an overview of the French company (Case A) and the Japanese company (Case B) which participated in the study and a detailed illustration of the main categories which have emerged will be presented for each company.

CASE A – FRENCH COMPANY

5.1 Overview of the French Manufacturing Multinational Company

The selected French manufacturing multinational company is one of the largest tire manufacturers in the world. To better understand its market and meet its customers’ needs, the company is organized into different product lines; Passenger cars, Trucks, Earth Mover, Agricultural and Two Wheels. Located in many countries around the world, the company has branches which are dedicated mainly to marketing, sales, development and customer services (Commercial activities). In Sweden, the company had its first branch operationalized in Stockholm during the year 1920s. However, since 2003 it has been re-organized into being the head office for the Nordic countries. Today there are around 300 employees who work in the office situated in Stockholm and they are mainly involved in activities related to marketing, communication, business control, sales, and group services for the other Nordic branch countries (Norway, Finland and Denmark) and customer services. The interviewees of the company who took part in this study are two directors and four high level managers who are mainly involved in the provision of services. Those six respondents have different positions, experiences, age, gender and cultural background. The table 10 below gives an overview of the general background of the respondents interviewed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee Code</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Working experience in current company (No. of years)</th>
<th>Cultural Background</th>
<th>Current Position</th>
<th>Number of subordinates under their responsibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A-01</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Swedish with Finnish roots</td>
<td>Personnel Director</td>
<td>5 direct Managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-02</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>Agricultural Sales Manager</td>
<td>4 sales organizations in the 4 Nordic Countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-03</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Iranian</td>
<td>Fleet solution Manager</td>
<td>25 employees and 2 middle level Managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-04</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>Customer Service</td>
<td>8 employees</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.1.1 Rules, Guidelines and Process Oriented

A common category emerging throughout the interviews which many interviewees relate is the highly process and rules oriented organization which they perceive it to be. Numerous mentions have been made regarding the various indicators, guidelines, rules, policies and working procedures which they have to follow and closely monitor. As stated by interviewee A-01, “the company is extremely involved in process work and there are many rules and policies which need to be followed, this is very much unlike other Swedish companies I have worked before”. On the other hand, even though interviewee A-04 indicated that the company is highly processed and rules oriented, he stated that it is primarily for the benefits of the company, “I think that there are many rules and regulations, but I think in the long run it is for the welfare of the company”. Comparable statement was made by interviewee A-03 who stated that “I will say that it is important and of a necessary level because we are a big multinational company”. Likewise, interviewee A-06 also indicated that those rules are to a required level given the size and structure of the organization. “They are to an acceptable level. They ask us for information and they provide us guidelines to fill the information and we do that” (Interviewee A-06)

On being probed on the different procedures and guidelines which need to be followed, interviewee A-02 also acknowledged the presence of many work processes. “We have strict procedures where we have Annual Performance Review called APR, this is a good tool that work, you have processes for setting annual objectives and guidelines for completing a specific job”. Accentuating more on the different guidelines which need to be respected, interviewee A-05 highlighted how in his department this seems to be present. In his own words he stated, “Yes, we have many guidelines, like how the sales people plan, organize their works, how much time they need to spend on customers site and what kind of customers they have to work with. Of course we are closely measuring this, we have lot of procedures, clear rules on how to apply pricing, discount rules. What the different departments are allowed to do and what not and this is closely monitored”.

Using follow up question to inquire where those rules and guidelines are coming from, the managers acknowledged that they are mostly received from their superiors located in France. For instance, A-03 noted how important it is for him to follow the guidelines which he receives from France and he remains firm on believing that the same rules and policies need to be applied as they are working for French Company and there is a need to adapt. As argued by interviewee A-03, “I try to be a role model and always follow the rules and guidelines. Sometimes flexibility may be needed but I try to do without it, try to stick to the rules and show my subordinates that it does work”. On being probed, how flexible the organization is on adapting certain rules and
guidelines within the context of Sweden, most of the respondents indicated about the presence of very low flexibility. As stated by the different interviewees below;

“We are following the central rules, quite little flexibility, except the local legal requirements. If it is not legal we follow the central guidelines. Not much flexibility” (Interviewee A-01)

“I would say rather limited flexibility and our rules are more strict than flexible. Instructions are pretty clear and when they are clearer, the flexibility is lower” (Interviewee A-05)

Given the high importance which they placed on respecting the guidelines and rules within the organization, we have noticed that the monitoring and control aspect becomes even more crucial. As indicated by interviewee A-03, they have the Sales Force Automation system which is used to monitor the employees’ progress and to see if they are respecting the guidelines in place. As indicated by him, “I am using the Sales Force Automation tools to synchronize and have the visibility of what my subordinates are doing in the field”. Likewise, interviewee A-05 also disclosed how he closely monitored his subordinates to ensure that they are in line with the objectives and working guidelines. “I have a lot of control of what my subordinates are doing and where they are at the moment... I monitor by checking the objectives regularly and tasks that need to be completed. I try to narrow down the objectives into KPIs that will measure how the team is proceeding. This allows me to clearly go through it and assess which one are being achieved and those not being achieved”.

To summarize the above category it is clear that there is a lot of emphasis on the provisions of guidelines and rules in order to implement the tasks. Given the importance which are placed on closely following those rules, we have noticed that this have induced towards adopting strict monitoring system.

5.1.2 Employee Involvement

Another category emerging is the level of subordinates’ involvement in the company. Overall most of the interviewees have emphasized on trying to create a friendly and supportive working environment by getting their employees more and more involved in the different processes. Interviewee A-01 has specifically mentioned how she believed in doing things differently compared to French managers in order to create a friendlier working environment. As was stated in her own words; “I do it very differently as French managers would do it. We have a very open environment, we discuss all the issues and problems and we decide together in a very democratic Swedish way”. She further explained how she has been involved in trying to delegate more responsibilities and in creating an open door policy for her subordinates. Indeed, she highly believed in being a more flexible leader even though she complained about herself receiving a more autocratic approach from her superiors who are located in the headquarters in France. As she further noted, “I have to be flexible, I work mainly with Swedish people but my boss located in the headquarter France works differently with me, they are more autocratic and have a very strong organizational culture” (Interviewee A-01).
Comparable statement was also made by respondent A-04 who acknowledged the importance of group decision making in order to make changes more acceptable. “When people are involved in the discussion of ideas it is much easier for that person to accept the change, so my point is that we usually try to hear the pros and cons. I usually take the decision when it is not clear and there is no consensus”. Similarly, respondent A-03 stated that employee involvement is a useful tool, since they have the relevant expertise and knowledge and their suggestions should be considered as well. As he highlighted, “Sometime if a campaign is to be set up, I do ask input from them as they are the guys who work in the market and they know about the customers’ needs” (Respondent A-03). Adding up, another interviewee also emphasized on adopting a similar approach in order to embrace a more consensual working environment, “If it is an important decision of course we want to hear from them, people are reporting to us and we tried to make them involve in the decision making process and even during the meeting we tried to get their point of view well understood. We collect different opinions then decide collectively. If it is not possible then the Managers make the decision”. (Interviewee A-05)

Probing deeper into how employees are involved into the different activities, further emphasized was made on how different suggestions which were received from their subordinates are taken care of. For instance, interviewee A-04 explained how he believed that accepting suggestions from his subordinates are important as they are the only one who can improve their jobs. As he stated, “if somebody comes with an idea we usually go through it, it can happen that idea came before when we had individual or informal meeting I say that we can bring it into the internal meeting. I’m not an expert in their jobs and we need a discussion of that idea. I appreciate the internal discussion of the idea so that there are different points of view on the table. If the idea is straightforward we take it and implement it”. Equal emphasized was made by Respondent A-06 who added that “idea is often taken into account and used in the project associated and if it is a good idea it is taken right away and applied”. However, even if the other interviewees have acknowledged the use of suggestions from subordinates, interviewee A-05 further stated how the final decision is always taken by the management team. In his own words, “even though suggestions are accepted from subordinates, we have formal approaches which need to be followed and it is always the management team who decides which one is to be used or not”.

To sum up, based on the findings under this category, it can be deduced that there is a consensus working environment which prevails and employees are at the centre of discussion and decision making process. Nevertheless, it is worthwhile to note that the extent to which they are involved are limited as it is always the management team which has the final say.

5.1.3 Top down approach

Based on an extensive review of the information received from the different respondents, it is clear that there is the existence of a hierarchic culture and some degree of top down approach which is typical to the French culture. The first interviewee A-01 clearly highlighted this but also acknowledged the fact that it is much more hierarchical in France compared to the Nordic countries. “It is very hierarchical and plenty of top down decisions. This is due to the fact that it is French Company, but it is much more hierarchical in France, than it is here in Nordic... But according to me within the context of Sweden, it is perceived to be overly hierarchical” (Respondent A-01). Additionally, comparable statement was made by interviewee A-05 who
acknowledged the existence of a French organization structure, “It is mostly a hierarchic culture and some amount of top down approach but this kind of approach is much more prevailing in the headquarter in France. In Sweden our culture is shared decision making but here they are applying a more top down approach”.

Similarly, respondent A-02 emphasized on the top down approach which seems to be prevailing when it concerns the decision making process in the company. “It’s always the direct manager who decides. If I am not a direct manager then I tell their managers what I want and how it should be undertaken”. He also added how this in turn influences him to adopt a top down approach when it comes to him dealing with his subordinates. For instance, when he allocates specific objectives to his subordinates, he stated that; “I give them yearly objectives then with monthly check up... but those objectives I rarely discuss with them because they are in line with the business orientation and it has been given from the headquarter”. Likewise, another respondent also stated how this frames his behaviour towards his subordinates and urged him to adopt a top down approach. “I try to discuss my management method with them, make them understand why they have to do it in a particular way” (Respondent A-03). On the same ground, respondent A-06 stated, “I need to give them direction to ensure they are on the right way and they understand what they are supposed to do. I have devised a Team Specific plan, where everybody tasks is listed so that they know what they have to do. Each individual has clear objectives so that they know what they need to deliver”.

Probing more on the way objectives are formulated and allocated within the company, interviewee A-03 accentuates on the top down process prevailing, “The objectives within my team I dictate and the objectives I get are given by my managers. It is a top down approach regarding objective break down”. Respondent A-04 also emphasized similar aspect but argued that the implementation process is mainly Nordic; “The way of setting up objectives is top down. I delegate the objectives which I get from my boss but the implementation depends on the manager... Now understanding why it works like that is because the main idea comes from headquarters in France but the way of implementing this idea is based on the leadership which the Nordic branch has adopted in realities”. Comparable statement was also made by interviewee A-05 who stated that, “Objectives are given by headquarter but here with the Nordic Managers we agree about the local adaptations”. Highlighting more on the possibility to adapt to the Nordic countries, respondent A-06 also stated that, “... even though it is hierarchical, here in the Nordic zone, people are free to work whichever way they want”.

To conclude the findings under this category, we can deduced that there is a top down approach which is present and it covers aspects related to the final decision making process and formulation of objectives. Even though, the objective setting is done in a top down approach it is worthwhile to note that the implementation process is adapted to the local context.

5.1.4 Cultural Influence from Corporate Headquarters

Another prevalent category which most of the respondents have been mentioning is the strong influence which the French headquarter has on their overall operation. Like it was highlighted by
one respondent, even though they are operating in the Nordic country, the French headquarter still dictate the final decision taken. For instance, although one of the respondent, acknowledged that working mostly with Swedes people need a more democratic approach where everyone are involved in the decision making process, she did accept that it is not the prevailing way in the company. As she stated in her own words, “the decisions made and the follow up of the decisions are not really Nordic, even though we know that it is not the right decision, we accept it” (Respondent A-01).

In line with that, another respondent also highlighted how there is no consensus which seems to be prevailing when it comes to objective formulation and decision. Basically, he mentioned that, it is the French headquarter who is involved in dictating the overall process and they are given specific guidelines which need to be followed to implement those objectives. As stated by the manager; “they keep reminding that we stick to the procedures. From France we get the objectives very early, saying that these are the objectives that we expect from your country. Thus, everybody has to adapt accordingly” (Respondent A-02).

Another interesting issue which interviewee A-01 brought up and which still reflects the control and influence from the French headquarter is the salary issues. According to her, in most of the Swedish companies there are negotiation between the managers and their subordinates regarding the salary level. But this system is not present in the company rather it is more focused on a French approach related to salary based on performance and responsibility level. Highlights were further made on how she found the excessive pressures she received from the French headquarters and how she tries to mitigate this effect when she deal with her subordinates. As she stated, “It’s very difficult to handle the excessive control and hierarchical way it is in France. I cannot express myself, I am controlled in one way from France but I have to deal with my subordinates in another way even though it can be tricky at times. I feel like a buffer in between” (Respondent A-01).

Similar discussion with another interviewee, emphasized how direct influence from the French headquarter has mould his leadership style. Accordingly, the following statement made by respondent A-03, reflects how his behaviour was highly influenced from the French headquarter. “Yes they are more direct within their culture, so I believed that I should be more direct with subordinates” (Respondent A-03). Likewise interviewee A-06, acknowledges that even though they are operating in a Nordic country, the prevailing leadership style is mostly French. As highlighted by him, “I think that the leadership style is quite French...”

To sum up the findings under this category we have noticed that the outlet in Sweden is closely monitored by the French headquarter and it has an influence over the way the organization is managed. Highlights have also been made on the way the headquarter mould the leadership styles adopted by the respondents and influence the approaches that they are undertaking.
5.1.5 Influence of Leaders’ Cultural Background

Another interesting category that we have identified is the cultural background of the respondents which have an impact over the adopted leadership styles and behaviours. This emerging aspect has incited us to find out whether the cultural backgrounds of the interviewees really have an impact on how they behave. In relation to that most of the interviewees were probed on whether they think that their cultural background has an impact on their leadership styles and behaviours. Specifically, we were intrigued to find this out as the selected respondents belonged to different cultural background. In respond to that, respondent A-01 clearly highlighted that she believed her personal traits is highly influenced by her cultural background which affects her leadership approach. She as such characterized herself as being quite direct while expressing herself with her team. As she noted “I think it is because of personality that I’m like this and I think Finnish people for example are more direct than Swedish people”. She further added that she believed that “managers with different cultural background have different leadership approaches and this is very much visible within the company which she works in”. This fact was also reflected in the interview with respondent A-03, who acknowledged that “the cultural aspects have an important role in framing his leadership styles”. Interestingly, he highlighted that his cultural background has influenced his way of working and this was obvious in the way he interact with his subordinates. As he further exemplified, “background totally affects, also it tells you if you have the potential enough to be flexible to adapt” (interviewee A-03)

Similarly, respondent A-06 accentuates how he believed that his cultural background has an impact on the way he built relationship with his subordinates. He further stated that he has noticed that the cultural background of managers highly influenced the level of control, trust and flexibility they seem to exercise. As he further noted, “People from one culture want them to be said what they have to do, others want the independence on the way they work... Other say stop, you have given me three objectives for this year already and this is way too much, I need only one” (interviewee A-06).

In the line with the above findings, specific highlights have been made over the way that the cultural background of the managers has an impact over the way they perceive, react and do things within the organization. Indeed, they believed that this framed their behaviours and has led them to embrace specific way of behaving.

5.1.6 Concluding Remarks

In relation to the above empirical findings of case A (French Company) which has been determined through the use of grounded theory, five categories have emerged. Thus in relation to the above findings, chapter 6 will provide a more in depth discussion of the prevailing leadership behaviours and styles being adopted and the reasons for using such an approach.
CASE B JAPANESE COMPANY

5.2 Overview of the Japanese Manufacturing Multinational Company

The second selected company is one of the Japanese pioneers in the area of mechanized logging which is involved in developing, manufacturing and marketing of forestry machinery. It has a number of plants and subsidiaries located all around the word. However, since 2004 the company has started its operation in Sweden and today this branch has become one of the leading manufacturer of forestry machines and its attachments. Having around one thousand and three hundred employees on a worldwide basis, there are four hundred employees who are working in the outlet located in Sweden. In that outlet, there are different departments like; Research and Development, Logistics, Production, IT, Planning, Information and Marketing, Human Resources, Maintenance and Sales and distribution. The interviewees of this company who took part in this study comprised of four senior and top level managers and two executives who worked for those different departments. The table 11 below gives an overview of the general background of the respondents who were interviewed.

Table 11: Background Information of the interviewee (Case B)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee Code</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Working experience in current company (No. of years)</th>
<th>Cultural Background</th>
<th>Current Position</th>
<th>Number of subordinates under their responsibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B-01</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>CEO/Director</td>
<td>Around 400 employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-02</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>Executive Vice President</td>
<td>10 Direct Managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-03</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>Planning, Information and Marketing Manager</td>
<td>4 employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-04</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>Vice President and Plant Manager</td>
<td>300 Employees out of which 6 are managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-05</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>Human Resources Manager</td>
<td>4 employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-06</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>General Manager for Logistic</td>
<td>12 Employees</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.1 Philosophy of the Japanese Company

Like any other multinational companies, the actual company has also emphasized a lot on different management techniques in order to improve performance and quality. Of prominent use within the organization is the widespread application of the GEMBA, Kaizen and PDCA approach (management techniques). These typical Japanese philosophies are all practices which are focused upon continuous improvement in the processes by going to the actual workplace to
solve the problems. Particularly, the main philosophical approach which is increasingly being used within the organization is the 4G and IK approach. This practice is based on going to where everything is happening, observe and see the reality with your own eyes, find the root cause and then make it visual. Thus, once the main problem has been identified the PDCA approach which is based on planning, doing, checking and action are implemented (as illustrated in the model below, figure 8). Similar as the previous section which has aimed to present the findings of case A, this section will also provide an overview of the responses received based on categories emerging from case B. Overall, five major categories have emerged which depicts the prevailing behavior of the respondents.

![Figure 8: PDCA Approach](image)

**5.2.2 Employee Involvement**

Throughout the interviews one major aspect which was continuously brought up by each and every interviewee was the focus on group decision making and group discussion which they acknowledged are part of the organization culture. On being questions about the decision making process within the organization, most of the respondents highlighted how they get their subordinates involved in the process and consider their suggestions before making any final decisions. As stated by respondent B-03, “It always involves the group, we always make decision together, and they are more experts than I am. I need to take responsibility as a manager but I will never make a decision without checking or controlling...the guy working with the website knows better than me, we discuss and come to the conclusion”. Similarly, even though other respondents acknowledged involving their subordinates in decision making process, they also mentioned that it is their duty to make the final decision. As stated by the different respondents;

“We have management meetings and each manager shares the information and then discuss within the group… Sometimes during discussions, the conclusion is very obvious; however, if
discussion is heated up and no conclusions then I take it, this is the way to do it” (Interviewee B-01)

“We discuss and come to the decision if that doesn’t happen I do it myself, somebody has to decide, and this is what we are paid to do. Somebody has to decide. I give the chance for everybody to participate that’s the difference between Japanese and American culture. Japanese has a little bit of American culture where the manager should decide everything. This doesn’t necessarily work well in Sweden” (Interviewee B-02)

Probing further on how they make use of the subordinates’ ideas and suggestions during the decision making process. The interviewees mentioned how they encouraged their subordinates to be proactive and usually consult them for suggestions. As highlighted by respondent B-04, “I consult with my team and he often has good ideas about different issues, it happens that I have to make a quick decision, and then I do not involve them before but after the decision. But most of the times they are involved before decision are made. They give me their opinions and then I decide or maybe I do it my way”. Similar statement was made respondent B-03 who highlighted the active role his subordinates have concerning that aspect, “We have some kind of formal meeting too where we make the protocol and we are working with those ideas and issues which we have decided together”. Likewise, interviewee B-02 mentioned how employees’ suggestions are considered to be an important part of the organization culture and they are highly encouraged to participate. As he emphasized, “That’s an important part of dialogue and I encourage everybody to participate in development of our department and organization. It’s part of the everyday work and I think part of the culture also. There is so much talk about getting bottom up management ideas and suggestions. Basically, it is all about working together and we are pretty good in that”. On the other hand, on being question about the work improvement processes within the organization, the CEO clearly highlighted that only managers are involved in that process and then they dissipate those information among their subordinates. As he stated, “We have management meetings and each managers share the information and then discuss within the group for the improvement to be taken. We call this action in this company kaizen” (Interviewee B-01)

To summarize, based on the empirical findings under this category, we can deduce that members of the management team are adopting mainly a consensus approach as employees are usually at the centre of discussion and decision making process.

5.2.3 Element of trust

One of the most prominent categories which many interviewees have been emphasizing relate to the element of trust which seems to be prevailing within the organization. On being question about the influence which the Japanese headquarter has on the allocation and monitoring of tasks, it was clear that the respondents were highly independent on the way that they managed the task as long as the end result is achieved. For instance, as indicated by respondent B-01, “The Headquarter has very small influence on my leadership and management. We are independent... there is flexibility on how to do things, they are only concerned about the end result”.

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Comparable statement was made by respondent B-02 who acknowledged how the headquarters in Tokyo has given them the freedom to manage and get the tasks done. As stated, “The Headquarter has a general idea, they want to have certain amount of operative profit and they want to have growth. They do not intervene into details. That’s very good. How Tokyo could know what can be done here, they trust us. We are given some objectives but not precise targets. They expect us to suggest how to proceed in details” (Interviewee B-02). Additionally, this respondent highlighted how they are expected to use their intuitions and judgment to fulfill those goals rather than implementing things based on detailed provided guidelines; “We have informal way of managing... we are given target but not in details, we are expected to use our intuition and subjective judgment”.

Probing further on how they as managers allocate the task to their subordinates and the monitoring system in place it was clear that a similar approach which is based on trust is used. As stated by respondent B-03, “We have a very Swedish way of management, they are working very much by themselves, under my guidance and there is no daily control. They are doing their work by themselves. I am only checking to see if they are on the right track.” Comparable statement was made by respondent B-05 who also acknowledged how her subordinates are independent in the way that they manage their tasks, “We used to have weekly meetings but now we have monthly meetings. They are acting by themselves they know the tasks, goals and deadlines”. Similarly, respondent B-06 and B-04 stated how they believed that the employees should be given their freedom and independence in completing the allocated tasks.

“Like for me, I give them the target, resources and deadlines. How they are going to do it is not important but they just need to fix it” (Interviewee B-06).

“I try not to intervene in daily issues; they should handle it by themselves” (Interviewee B-04)

This element of trust was also highlighted by respondent B-02 who emphasized how the subordinates are expected to solve the problems by themselves through the use of appropriate management technique, “4Gs and 1K are all about finding the root cause and the logic is that you should go to the place. For that you should trust the person for solving the problem” (interviewee B-02)

Thus in short, it becomes clear that managers and subordinates are given full independence and freedom to complete the allocated tasks and what matters more is the end result. Given that the Japanese headquarter believed on the experience and ability of the leaders located in the branch in Sweden, we can say there is an element of trust which is prevailing between the managers and subordinates. Thus, in relation to that we have noticed that this also encouraged the managers to adapt the same behavior towards their employees.
5.2.4 Performance Oriented

An extensive review of data received from the different respondents also dictates the performance oriented environment which prevails. Specifically, lot of focused was made on the number of Key Performance Indicators (KPI) which they need to achieve and closely monitor. Indeed we have noticed that most of the processes and structure within the organization depicts such kind of orientation which helps in dictating the behaviour of the respondents. As stated by one interviewee, “We are always involved in monitoring the KPI, we are involved in trying to achieve those indicators, we closely monitor how they are changing, why it has decreased or increased and take corrective actions if need be” (Respondent B-05). Comparable statement was also made respondent B-06 who acknowledged the presence of a number of KPI in his department, “We have a number of KPIs; they are all on a functional level. We follow it every week. All the functions have KPIs and we are all focused to work together to achieve the goals. We have yearly goals and we break them down on a weekly or monthly basis”. Likewise, another respondent also emphasized how the working environment has changed within the years and become more goal orientated. As he stated in his own words, “In the past we worked a lot with the budget. What we do now, we set new target every twelve weeks to challenge ourselves, so even if we reach the budget level, we do not stop there we set new targets...” (Respondent B-04)

Using follow up questions to probe deeper into how the different KPIs are monitored and achieved, emphasized was made on the supportive behaviour which they provide to their subordinates in order to meet the expected performance. As highlighted by respondent B-05, “I encouraged my subordinates to focus on trying to better understand the KPIs, the processes if need be and improve their performances. To avoid mistakes, I encouraged them to see how we can do better by analyzing the whole processes and system in place and implement the PDCA”. Similarly, respondent B-06 argued how those KPIs are reformulated in order to make it more workable for his subordinates. As he highlighted, “We change the KPI several times in order to find the right one based on the people working closer to the processes. By doing that we can easily address issues, increase or decrease the challenges if need be”. Likewise, another interviewee highlighted how he tried to support his subordinates by having a well structured process in order for them to meet the different targets. “We KPI matrix where each general manager report to me and if they have found any deviations, what kind of corrective actions they have been doing and what kind of support they need from me or other from the top management are usually discussed. Those KPI we monitor every week” (Interviewee B-04). Similarly, respondent B-05 pointed out how even the Japanese headquarter expect them to promote such kind of supportive behaviour. As stated in his own words; “They are continuously telling us to monitor and improve the KPI and processes. They have instructed us to devote a lot of time and effort to have the right results...most importantly they want us to provide the right direction to our subordinates”.

In line with the above statements and facts we can deduced that much emphasized are placed on promoting a highly competitive and goal orientated environment. In addition to the highly competitive environment which seems to be prevailing we have noticed that efforts are also being made to provide the required supports to their subordinates.
5.2.5 Influence of local culture

Another category which has emerged based on a review of the information received is the increasing influence which the local culture has on the way things are being done within the organization. Various respondents have highlighted how there has been an adaptability process of the local culture within the organization and now it looks more like a Swedish company. As stated by one interviewee, “It is typical Swedish management style that governs the company. I think there is no other way, no matter how much they try. We are around 400 employees here and they are mostly Swedish. They need to be managed in a Swedish way” (Interviewee B-02). Comparable statement was also made by two other interviewees who emphasized on the way the organization has changed and now it looks more like a Swedish company;

“Japanese came with a lot of frames, typical Japanese way and they probably had a feeling a lot of people are messing around. According to them it was very much unorganized, and then they brought all the meetings and protocols. It was like a tsunami at first but after it was fine, we had a lot of damage but we built up after. Now we are more organized Swedish company and less formal Japanese Management” (Interviewee B-03)

“I would say that it is very Swedish, with little influence from Japanese. We discuss a lot of things with employees and we get them involved. I think in general it has little influence of Japanese direct leadership or structure” (Interviewee B-05)

Probing deeper into how the different processes are controlled, it was clear that the Japanese headquarter has given the local branch in Sweden a lot of authority when it comes to implementation. We have noticed that it is on the responsibility of the organization in Sweden to adapt the processes in place and reformulate a correct action plan. As highlighted by this interviewee, “Targets for profitability, market share and general management are at some extents coming from the HQ, and I think that it is quite normal. But our task is to reformulate those missions to practical actions” (Interviewee, B-02). On the other hand, another aspect which reflects the local culture influence is the salary system in place. A system which is based on discussion and consensus seems to be prevailing. As stated by one interviewee, “… we have discussion with employee about the salary, we have certain rules every year we have an agreement with the labour union how much money we have to increase on a general level and then we go to the individual and we discuss it” (Interviewee B-05). Other aspects which showed the strong influence of the local culture was also the presence of the Fika culture within the organization. As mentioned by interviewee B-06, “In Sweden, we have this Fika culture; they have accepted that and did not try to change it”

In relation to the above statements, it thus becomes clear that the local culture highly influence the way things are being done within the organization and there is some level of acceptance from the Japanese headquarter to adapt the different processes and structure in place.
5.2.6 Concluding Remarks

With reference to the empirical findings of case B (Japanese Company) which has been determined through the use of grounded theory, there are four categories which have emerged. The different categories emerged have increasingly shown the influence which the local culture have on the overall operation of the company. To have a more in-depth discussion of the prevailing leadership within the Japanese Company, chapter 6 will provide more detailed together with the reasons being the adoption of the prevailing leadership behaviour and styles.
CHAPTER 6
ANALYSIS OF EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

In this chapter we will answer the research question by analyzing the empirical findings of this study based on the interviews conducted in the French and Japanese company. Specifically, it will start with the analysis and discussion of the presented findings and how they relate to the theories discussed in the literature review. Each case will be discussed individually and the leadership styles prevailing will be determined together with the factors urging towards such adoption.

CASE A – FRENCH COMPANY

This section will first start by providing an in-depth analysis and discussion of the different categories which have emerged. Specifically, it is believed that having a discussion of categories is useful as it would help us in better understanding the different processes, structure and behaviours which are prevailing within the organisation. As such based on those discussions we can better assess the prevailing leadership behaviours and styles within the current organization.

6.1 Rules, Guidelines and Process Oriented

In relation to the way the company has been structured, it is clear that there is increasing focus on closely following the rules, guidelines and on being process oriented. As highlighted by most of the interviewees, there are clear guidelines which need to be followed in order to complete the allocated tasks. Table 12 below illustrates some of the main quotations reflecting the high process and rules oriented environment in which the company operates.

Based on the above facts, it is clear that there is low level of flexibility when it comes to the local adaptation. Typically high emphasize has been made on having a very structured way of implementing and monitoring things. Most of the interviewees have also highlighted the increasing influence which the French headquarter has on the overall operation. However, this type of behaviour is not deemed to be surprising as scholars have argued that in high power distance country like France the need to provide close supervision is part of their cultures (e.g., Castel et.al, 2008). This is also in line with G. Hofstede, J. Hofstede and Minkov who argued that within the French culture, the need to closely supervise the subordinates have directed the organization towards the development and implementation of strict and detailed guidelines, rules and code of conduct which helps to frame the employees mind on how they should react, behave or complete any allocated tasks (2010, p.76-77).
Table 12: Rules, Guidelines and Process Oriented

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewees</th>
<th>Transcript Excerpt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A-01</td>
<td>“The company is extremely involved in process work and there are many rules and policies which need to be followed, which is very much unlike other Swedish companies I have worked before”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-02</td>
<td>“We have strict procedures where we have Annual Performance Review called APR, this is a good tool that work, you have processes for setting annual objectives and guidelines for completing a specific job”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-03</td>
<td>“I try to be a role model and always follow the rules and guidelines. Sometimes flexibility may be needed but I try to do without it, try to stick to the rules and show my subordinates that it does work”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-05</td>
<td>“Yes, we have many guidelines, like how the sales people plan, organize their work, how much time they need to spend on customers’ site and what kind of customers they have to work with. Of course we are closely measuring this, we have lot of procedures, clear rules on how to apply pricing, discount rules. What the different departments are allowed to do and what not and this is closely monitored”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-01</td>
<td>“We are following the central rules, quite little flexibility, except the local legal requirements. If it is not legal we follow the central guidelines. Not much flexibility”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-03</td>
<td>“I have a lot of control of what my subordinates are doing and where they are at the moment… I monitor by checking the objectives regularly and tasks that need to be completed”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, even though concern about the way the company seemed to be too much involved in those work processes have been expressed, there is also general acceptance among the respondents that in such big international organisation, such kind of practice is considered to be important. This however, contradict with the findings of Czarinska-Joerges who found out that Swedish management do not reply on formal rules but acknowledged that Swedish organisations are often encumbered with rules concerning procedures to be followed if changes are to be introduced (1993, p. 243). In relation to our findings, it also become clear that there are some levels of acceptance among the employees which exist, even though it has usually been argued that in Swedish organisation such an approach is deemed to be inconsistent with the belief of employees. As argued by Taleghani, Salmani and Taatian (2010, p. 101), in Swedish leadership there is a tendency to be in the middle of action and Swedish leaders usually spend less time developing and utilizing guidelines and procedures or monitoring progress to goals in a systematic way. Even though our current finding is inconsistent with previous researches, we can argue that this general acceptance can be due to the strong influence which they received from their leaders situated in France. Similarly, in a study undertaken by Smith et al. (2003, p.500) who found similar result as our study argued that Swedish strong reliance on formal rules and procedures can be also due to the emphasis which they put on fulfilling the requirement of legislations. In addition to that, emphasized has also been made by respondents on how they tried to be a role model and closely follow the rules and guidelines set up by the headquarters, which further depicts a characteristic of the acceptance of the French leadership culture and behaviours.
Thus, in relation to that we can deduce how there is a convergence of the French approach within the Swedish leadership system.

In short it can be said that the vast numbers of central rules and procedures they have to follow together with the strict monitoring and control system which originates from the company’s home country have promoted such kind of working environment.

6.2 Employee Involvement

An in-depth analysis also depict that employees are usually involved in different activities like; group decision making, discussion of ideas and suggestions for work improvement. Much emphasis have also been made by managers on how they tried to create a friendly working environment by getting their subordinates more and more involved in the different processes. As illustrated in the table below, there is an array of opinions which depict a consensus working environment.

### Table 13: Employee Involvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewees</th>
<th>Transcript Excerpt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A-01</td>
<td>“I do it very differently as French managers would do it. We have a very open environment, we discuss all the issues and problems and we decide together in a very democratic Swedish way”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-01</td>
<td>“I have to be flexible, I work mainly with Swedish people but my boss located in the headquarter France works differently with me, they are more autocratic and have a very strong organizational culture”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-04</td>
<td>“When people are involved in the discussion of ideas it is much easier for that person to accept the change, so my point is that we usually try to hear the pros and cons. I usually take the decision when it is not clear and there is no consensus”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-06</td>
<td>“Idea is often taken into account and used in the project associated and if it is a good idea it is taken right away and applied”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-05</td>
<td>“Even though suggestions are accepted from subordinates, we have formal approaches which need to be followed and it is always the management team who decides…”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It has been observed that even though the respondents acknowledged receiving an autocratic behaviour from their superiors located in France, efforts were also made to mitigate this effect at certain level. Particularly, different respondents have claimed how they consult each other before taking a decision and sometimes consider employees suggestion since they are experts in their jobs. As such, we have noticed that the reason for adopting such an approach was mostly because they are working with Swedish people who expect to be involved in the different activities. In relation to that we can state that the way they involved their employees depict a consensus approach which is typical to the Swedish rather than French leadership behaviour and style. Taleghani, Salmani and Taatian (2010, p.101) have also argued that the Swedish leadership style is mostly based upon group oriented decision-making by asking input and advise from
subordinates, respecting and valuing the ideas and wisdom of the team. In line with that, we can also state that such an approach belongs to companies originating from low power distance culture which believe that people need to be trusted and given responsibility by making them feel valued (Hofstede, 1980, p.46). Interestingly, we can also argue that such kind of behaviour can also be because of the influence of the 1977 Act of Employee Participation in Decision Making (MBL), also called the Act of Co-determination which might explain the urge to involve employees (The Swedish Institute, 1992 in Smith, Andersen, Ekelund, Graversen and Ropo, 2003, p.502).

Thus, in relation to the above discussion we can argue that there have been some mitigation effects in order to adapt it to the host cultural context. Typically, the host culture has clearly a very strong influence when it concerned getting employees involved into the different processes like decision making, consideration of employees’ suggestion and in creating a supportive working environment. This as such leads to feature which characterizes typical Swedish behaviour.

6.3 Top down Approach

In relation to the way the organization has been structured it is clear that there is a hierarchical structure which seems to be prevailing. As depicted in the table 14 below most of the respondents have highlighted the top down approach which is present. Specifically this was more prevalent when it comes to the final decision making, objectives setting and to some extent to the implementation of tasks where employees situated at the top level of the hierarchy have a lot of control over different processes.

Typically within the Swedish culture, scholars have argued that there is usually the presence of a top down and bottom up approach which seems to be prevailing where employees are used to consensus and a more informal working environment (Holmberg and Akerblom, 2006 p. 311). However, within the current organization we have noticed that the seniors and top level managers have full control over many strategic decisions, in objectives setting and in dictating the way that their subordinates should implement the allocated tasks. This as such clearly depicts a French leadership influence which according to Schramm-Nielsen (2000, p. 8) managers of each pyramid are supposed to make decisions within his area of competence, independent of his subordinates. Similarly, he argued that within such kind of organization, there is little or no delegation of authority, but strong management and tight control of subordinates’ activities as well as tight control of the functions of management (2000, p.8-9). Even though, such kind of practice is not feasible within the Swedish culture and various scholars have argued that Swedish are more probe towards building a consensus working environment by focusing on more time consuming political processes (e.g. Guillet de Monthoux 1991, Suutari, 1996, Smith and Eyjolfsdottir, 1996), the current finding portrays feature which belong to French rather than Swedish culture.
Table 14: Top down Approach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewees</th>
<th>Transcript Excerpt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A-01</td>
<td>“It is very hierarchical and plenty of top down decisions. That’s due to the fact that it is French Company, but it is much more hierarchical in France, than it is here in Nordic… But according to me within the context of Sweden, it is perceived to be overly hierarchical”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-02</td>
<td>“It’s always the direct manager who decides. If I am not a direct manager then I tell their managers what I want and how it should be undertaken”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-03</td>
<td>“I try to discuss my management method with them, make them understand why they have to do it in a particular way”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-04</td>
<td>“The way of setting up objectives is top down. I delegate the objectives which I get from my boss but the implementation depends on the manager”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-05</td>
<td>“Objectives are given by headquarter but here with the Nordic Managers we agree about the local adaptations”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus in relation to the above discussion, we have noticed that there is a general acceptance of this top down approach which has been integrated within the current organization. Basically the way that the French headquarters has been dictating how things need to be done around the organisation (aspects related to objectives settings, implementation of task and final decision making) has enforced a typical feature which pertains to the home country.

6.4 Influence of leaders’ cultural background

Based on an in-depth analysis, we have noticed that respondents belonging to different cultural background have a tendency to apply leadership behaviours which are concurrent to their cultures and where they originally belong to. Specifically, by interviewing respondents from different cultural background (Finnish, Swedish, Iranian and Spanish), we can claim that each of those respondents have demonstrated some distinct characteristics which frame their behaviours and ways of doing things within the company. However, there are also common behaviours which seemed to be prevalent among all the respondents interviewed, like the need to involve employees in different processes, promoting a friendly working atmosphere and other aspects which accordingly have been framed by following the organization guidelines and usual ways of doing things.
Table 15: Influence of leaders’ cultural background (Finnish and Iranian)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Transcript Excerpt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A-01</td>
<td>“I think one thing could be quite different that I’m quite direct in what I say and thinks clearly, I’m not afraid of taking conflicts I would say. I think it is because of personality that I’m like this and I think Finnish people are more direct than Swedish people”. (Finnish)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-05</td>
<td>“The rules and guidelines are pretty clear and I say that I expect my subordinates to closely follow them…rules are met to be followed, I want no excuse in that” (Finnish)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-03</td>
<td>“I try to discuss my management methods with them and make them understand why they have to do it that way and what their roles are within the organization”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I try to be a role model. I try to hundred percent follow the rules and guidelines. Sometimes flexibility may be needed but I try to do without it… I expect my subordinates to follow the same…” (Iranian)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand probing deeper into how their cultural background influenced their behaviours we have noticed that major similarities were found among the Finnish and Iranian respondents who have a tendency to portray more directive and authoritative behaviours. As depicted in the table 15 above it is clear that the Finnish and Iranian respondents have a tendency to display more direct attitude towards their subordinates when it concerned getting things done and also expect them to closely follow the rules and guidelines of the organisation. Interestingly, we have noticed that those respondents compared to others have showed lower interest in promoting a consensus working environment. Indeed this finding is concurrent to that found by Lamsa (2000 p.145) who argued that Finnish leaders have a tendency to be more traditional and stiffer than the Swedish. The scholar also added that Finnish leaders believe more in bearing the responsibility of the decisions alone and may not exhibit a management style which is as democratic as Swedish where everyone participates in the decision-making (2000, p.146).

Similarly, we have found that the Swedish and Spanish respondents have been displaying behaviours which emphasized more softer values of leadership like adopting a more caring attitudes towards their subordinates, taking care of how the workers feel mentally and showing more interest in maintaining their social relations compared to other respondents (refer to table 16 below for specific quotations). This informal touch of management technique has also been noticed by Kakabadse, Myers, McMahon and Spony (1995, p.23) who argued that these kinds of behaviours are prevalent among those cultures. Based on that we can claimed that the Swedish and Spanish respondents have a tendency to display more supportive behaviour compared to respondents from other cultures.
Table 16: Influence of leaders’ cultural background (Swedish and Spanish)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Transcript Excerpt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A-02</td>
<td>“My main concern is about creating a friendly working environment which is more social and willing to listen. I firmly believed in having social skills. Some might keep distance but might have good result business wise but in Sweden people appreciates an open door mentality” <em>(Swedish)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-06</td>
<td>“I have very open relationship with my subordinates. If they have any problems or not satisfied they can always talk to me. I usually have a meeting once in a month with each employee where we discuss more about soft issues... people have different stages in life and I have to adjust” <em>(Swedish)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-04</td>
<td>“I have been trying a lot to create a good relationship with my subordinates; I have been a problem solver and facilitator for them. I believed in taking care of how they feel mentally.” <em>(Spanish)</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to the above discussion which have helped us to have better insight into the different processes, structure and the kinds of behaviours which have been exhibited by the respondents, this now allow us to use those different categories to answer our main research question. The next sub-section will thus aim to provide an overview of the main leadership styles prevailing within the French originated company and the reasons behind the adopted leadership behaviours and styles.

### 6.5 Leadership styles prevailing within the French company and factors influencing such behaviours

With reference to the different themes which have been discussed; rules, guidelines and process oriented, employee involvement and top down approach, it is understood that there is a mixture of cultural approaches and features present within the current organization. Thus, in order to assess the prevailing leadership styles within the organisation it is believed that there is a need to find how those different features and characteristics are related to specific leadership styles and behaviour as discussed in chapter 3 (Theoretical framework).

As illustrated above, the presence of the rules, guidelines and process oriented and top down approach are features which have depicted the influence which the French culture has on the current operation of the organization. Indeed, we have noticed that those features are characteristics belonging to high power distance culture (like France) as asserted by G. Hofstede, J. Hofstede and Minkov (2010) and Schramm-Nielsen (2000) in their respective studies. Specifically, it has been noticed that the need to promote such type of culture is mainly because of the increasing importance which the interviewees put on being aware of everything going on within the organisation. Typically, this is being monitored by having a structured reporting system of all the works being done so that they can have control on their decisions. Even though such kinds of structure and processes have been imposed by the headquarters, this has definitely framed the behaviours of the managers, by urging them to adopt such kind of approach when
they are undertaking their daily activities. Thus, we can also argue that this highly rigid structured way of doing things within the organisation has probed towards the adoption of a top down approach which makes it easier to control the different activities and processes.

Table 17: France and Sweden PDI difference

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural Dimensions</th>
<th>France</th>
<th>Sweden</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Power Distance Index (PDI)</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>France + 37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher- more hierarchical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


On the other hand, even though it is typical Swedish cultural behaviour for the leaders to encourage full participation from subordinates in decision making, we have observed that he or she still supervises the subordinates very closely to make sure that they carry out their assigned tasks properly. In short, this has enabled us to acknowledge that although there is the belief that employee involvement is important in the decision making process, there is a more commanding rather than consensus model which predominates. Basically as discussed above, we firmly believed that one of the reasons for involving the employees in the decision making process might be because of the local law (1977 Act of Employee Participation in Decision Making) and owing to the fact that they are working primarily with Swedish employees.

We can also state that the host and home country have both been having an influence over the current operation of the organisation. In relation to the above discussion, it is clear that the home country culture seems to be having a stronger influence in dictating the kind of leadership behaviour prevailing. For instance, given the way that the organization seems to be structured by clarifying rules, procedures and policies with the scheduling and coordination of works we can clearly argue for the presence of directive leadership behaviour. This is also in line with House and Mitchell (1974, p.81-97) who argued that such kind of behaviour is usually prompted towards the setting up of clear structure of works to be implemented and procedures to use to attain the expected outcome.

On the other hand, we can also argue that there is some degree of participative behaviour prevailing as employees are involved in the decision making process. Even though we believed that the main reasons could be the 1977 Act of Employee Participation present within the host country culture and the fact that they are working mainly with Swedish people, we firmly believed that these factors might have probe towards the adoption of participative behaviour. Thus in line with the above argumentation, we can conclude that this has led towards the adoption of directive leadership behaviour prevailing with some extent of participative behaviour.

In addition to our findings, we can state that even though the current organization which belongs to a high power distance culture is operating within a low power distance culture (Sweden) it has integrated its home culture within the host country. Basically, studies conducted by Hofstede (2001, p.87) Offermann and Hellmann (1997, p.343) and Dorfman et al. (1997, p.264), have showed that in high power distance culture, there is usually a directive leadership styles which predominates.
CASE B – JAPANESE COMPANY

Similar as case A- French Company, this section would aim to assess the leadership behaviours and styles prevailing within the Japanese Company. It would also provide an understanding of the factors which are influencing towards the adaptation of such an approach by using information which has been grounded in the data. Foremost, it would start by analysing the different categories which have emerged in order to have better insight on how the different processes and structures have framed behaviours within the organization.

6.6 Employees Involvement

One key aspect which has been noticed and is of increasing importance within the organisation is the need to involve employees in decision making. Basically, we have noticed the presence of a highly consensual working environment, where the whole essence is based on sharing of information, extensive consultation among staffs in the decision-making process and the sharing of responsibility for the decisions. As depicted in the table 18 below there is an array of such kind of opinions and behaviours expressed by the respondents, which portrays a highly consensual working environment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Transcript Excerpt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B-03</td>
<td>“It always involves the group, we always make decision together, and they are more experts than I am. I need to take responsibility as a manager but I will never make a decision without checking or controlling…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-01</td>
<td>“We have management meetings and each manager shares the information and then discuss within the group… Sometimes during discussions, the conclusion is very obvious; however, if discussion is heated up and no conclusions then I take it, this is the way to do it”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-04</td>
<td>“I consult with my team and he often has good ideas about different issues, it happens that I have to make a quick decision, and then I do not involve them before but after the decision. But most of the times they are involved before decisions are made. They give me their opinions and then I decide or maybe I do it my way”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-02</td>
<td>“That’s an important part of dialogue and I encourage everybody to participate in development of our department and organization. It’s part of the everyday work and I think part of the culture also. There is so much talk about getting bottom up management ideas and suggestions. Basically, it is all about working together and we are pretty good in that”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to previous studies, we cannot deny that this consensual decision making is a characteristic of both Swedish and Japanese leadership behaviours (e.g., Whitehill 1991, Sethi, Namiki and Swanson 1994, Earley and Erez 1997 and Gill and Wong 1998). Indeed in a study conducted by Swierczek and Onishi (2002, p.193), they found out that within the cultural context of Japan this is commonly known as “group-oriented approach”. According to them, this “group-oriented approach” is based on small groups of employees who meet regularly to identify,
analyze, solve problems and make recommendations upwards through the organizational hierarchy (2002, p. 194). Thus in relation to the consensus behaviours which seems to be prevailing in the current organisation and the way that it moves from a bottom up approach when they consider suggestions, we can argue that there are some common attributes pertaining to both cultures which are present.

6.7 Element of Trust

It has been observed that one important aspect prevailing within the Japanese organization is the relationship between the subordinates and managers which is based on trust. As emphasized by most of the interviewees, they are highly independent and there is high level of flexibility when it concerns tasks implementation, allocation and problems solving situations. Table 19 below illustrates some of the excerpts which display the relationship between the subordinates and managers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Transcript Excerpt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B-01</td>
<td>“The Headquarter has very small influence on my leadership and management. We are independent… there is flexibility on how to do things, they are only concerned about the end result”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-02</td>
<td>“4Gs and 1K are all about finding the root cause and the logic is that you should go to the place. For that you should trust the person for solving the problem”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-03</td>
<td>“We have a very Swedish way of management, they are working very much by themselves, under my guidance and there is no daily control. They are doing their work by themselves. I am only checking to see if they are on the right track.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-04</td>
<td>“I try not to intervene in daily issues; they should handle it by themselves”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to the above statements, it is clear that subordinates are highly independent in the way that they are being led. Indeed, we have noticed that little emphasized are placed on the provision of detailed guidelines but it is all based on the use of intuition and expertise of the subordinates to solve different issues. Even though, trust as an element is present both within the Swedish and Japanese culture, scholars have argued that within Japanese organization, trust is build with the purpose to maintain a harmonious group relations (Taka and Foglio, 1994, p. 139) whilst within the Swedish context it is present because of the cultural belief that everyone’s opinions, ideas and experiences are considered as potential contributors to the accomplishment of tasks (Smith and Eyjolfsdottir, 1996, p. 493). In the current organization, we have noticed that managers do not intervene in daily issues but prefer the employees to handle it by themselves which depicts the importance which they placed on promoting an autonomous working environment and entrusting them with responsibilities.

In short, we have noticed that the conception of trust between the managers and subordinates relationship is a behavior which is influenced mostly by the Swedish leadership conception of
trust rather than Japanese culture as they emphasized more on group decision making and in promoting a consensus environment.

6.8 Performance Orientation

An analysis of the interview findings support the fact that the company under study has built and has been promoting performance oriented culture among employees and within the company in general. Based on the findings it is clear that increasing focused is put on the number of KPIs which need to be achieved and closely monitored. In addition to that it has also been noticed that, the company is becoming more targets oriented and KPIs are considered as the main tools to track and challenge management at all levels in order to reach objectives. The table 20 below illustrates an array of opinions which have been amassed from the different respondents, depicting an organisation culture which is highly performance oriented.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Transcript Excerpt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B-04</td>
<td>“In the past we worked a lot with the budget. What we do now, we set new target every twelve weeks to challenge ourselves, so even if we reach the budget level, we do not stop there we set new targets…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-05</td>
<td>“I encouraged my subordinates to focus on trying to better understand the KPIs, the processes if need be and improve their performances. To avoid mistakes, I encouraged them to see how we can do better by analyzing the whole processes and system in place and implement the PDCA”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-06</td>
<td>We have a number of KPIs; they are all on a functional level. We follow it every week. All the functions have KPIs and we are all focused to work together to achieve the goals. We have yearly goals and we break them down on a weekly or monthly basis”…. “They are continuously telling us to monitor and improve the KPI and processes. They have instructed us to devote a lot of time and effort to have the right results...most importantly they want us to provide the right direction to our subordinates”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A thorough analysis of the empirical findings under this category dictates that both employees and managers demonstrate a high level of commitment in order to meet the targets. It has also been noticed that in order to achieve those KPIs, much focused have also been placed on providing the subordinates with the right tools, motivation and support. The culture of adopting a performance orientated approach is mainly derived from the Japanese management philosophy to continuously meet the targets set. Indeed, the continuous encouragement and monitoring which they are receiving from the Japanese headquarters is a strong acknowledgement of how the headquarters value promoting such kind of working environment. Even scholars have emphasized on the hard working culture and strong emphasis which they put on achieving goals (e.g, Corbett 1986, Tang et al. 2000).

In relation to the above discussion and finding it is clear that the home culture has a very strong influence over the company. Indeed, it is believed that such an approach is also present within the context of Swedish management philosophy but the extent to which this value is part of their
culture is to a lesser extent compared to Japanese (Suutari, 1996). Thus, it is believed that the constant monitoring and encouragement which they are receiving from the headquarters might be the main factor which is encouraging them to undertake such an approach.

6.9 Influence of the local culture

One of the main observations from this study setting was the increase influence which the host culture has on the way things are being done within the organization. Indeed, a review of some of the excerpt from the transcriptions (as illustrated in table 21 below) depicts this influence. It has been noticed that the Japanese company at its entrance to Sweden intended to apply the company specific approach in leadership and management which originates from traditional Japanese leadership style. This leadership approach encompasses characteristics of more organized, framed and formal way of management which is typical to Japanese style. They aimed to export their home culture leadership approach into the new business area (LPD culture), however, we could witness that in a company with majority of employees being Swedes, drastic change and application of Japanese leadership were not possible. As one of the respondents mentioned, the first reason was indeed the number of Swedish employees and they indeed should be managed the Swedish way. Besides the majority of employees being Swedish, the rules and regulations concerning the relations with labor union and the laws with regard to salary system as well as Swedish traditions pose an influence to the predominance of local culture.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Transcript Excerpt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B-02</td>
<td>“It is typical Swedish management style that governs the company. I think there is no other way, no matter how much they try. We are around 400 employees here and they are mostly Swedish. They need to be managed in a Swedish way”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-03</td>
<td>“Japanese came with a lot of frames, typical Japanese way and they probably had a feeling a lot of people are messing around. According to them it was very much unorganized, and then they brought all the meetings and protocols. It was like a tsunami at first but after it was fine, we had a lot of damage but we built up after. Now we are more organized Swedish company and less formal Japanese Management”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-06</td>
<td>“I would say that it is very Swedish, with little influence from Japanese. We discuss a lot of things with employees and we get them involved. I think in general it has little influence of Japanese direct leadership or structure” “In Sweden, we have this Fika culture; they have accepted that and did not try to change it”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is believed that the host culture compared to the home culture has more influence over the current organization because the majority of the employees and high level managers are Swedish. Indeed, this frames the approach undertaken and demands a Swedish orientation. In addition, given that there are rules and regulations which need to be followed regarding the labour union, salary system as well as other local regulations this might have probe the host
culture to have more influence over the organization. Last but not least, it is worthwhile to note that the Japanese behavioural influence is present at certain level within the organization, which for instance is reflected in having a more organized management system etc.

6.10 Leadership styles prevailing within the Japanese company and factors influencing such behaviours

With reference to the different categories which have been discussed; employee involvement, relationship between managers and subordinates, performance oriented and influence of local culture, it is understood that there is a mixture of cultural approaches and features present within the current organization. Therefore after a thorough discussion of the different categories, this section will assess the leadership styles and behaviours which are prevailing. Specifically, it will aim to assess which leadership style discussed in chapter 3- theoretical framework is relevant within this organizational context and in identifying the factors which influences them to adopt the prevailing styles. Even though there is significant difference between Swedish and Japanese power distance index we have noticed that those two cultures have common features which are presents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural Dimensions</th>
<th>Japan</th>
<th>Sweden</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Power Distance Index (PDI) Higher- more hierarchical</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>Japan + 23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: G. Hofstede, J Hofstede and Minkov 2010, p.58, 59)

Considering the employee involvement, the highly consensual environment typical to the Swedish culture is present in this organization. However, as highlighted by several scholars (Sethi, Namiki and Swanson 1994, Earley and Erez 1997), the traits of consensual decision making which is part of the leadership approach is both practiced and characteristic of Swedish and Japanese cultural leadership. These features of sharing consensual decision making, increased participation has proved the existence and prevalence of participative leadership behaviour in the organization.

Moreover, the element of trust in the organization is highly prevalent and this feature is both characteristic to the home and the host organizational culture. In the home culture context, trust in the organization for managers is considered to be an opportunity to build ties with their subordinates (Taka, I. and Foglia, W. 1994, p.136). On the other hand, in the host country context trust is reflected in freedom of subordinates to fulfil the tasks given by their managers to achieve the targets. The features given above are part of the participative leadership style which is typical to the low power distance cultures like Sweden, nevertheless, considering the fact that besides of low power distance culture, the participative leadership style is also part of the Japanese cultural leadership in addition to directive (Swierczek and Onishi, 2002, p.192), therefore, we can claim that the leadership style adopted in Sweden is participative in nature.

While considering the performance orientation of the organization, we have noticed the prevalence of psychological empowerment towards organizational commitment, participation
and involvement of employees. The leadership approach in this context is highly influenced by
the home culture, despite the fact that the elements of the participative leadership style observed
are more typical in low power distance cultures. However, Fukushige and Spicer (2007, p. 517)
claims that the participative leadership behaviour is also common in Japan by highlighting the
importance of leaders attention and advices to subordinates. As we could observed the current
performance oriented approach in the organization is well applied and supported by the local
management, which also proves that participative behaviour is efficient in lower power distance
cultures (Dorfman et al., 1997, p.256).
CHAPTER 7
CROSS CASE ANALYSIS

Based on the previous chapter which has provided an in-depth analysis of the two respective companies - French and Japanese (companies belonging to high power distance culture); this chapter will aim to answer our main research question. This chapter will cover the leadership behaviours or styles the two foreign multinational manufacturing companies belonging to high power distance culture adopt when they operate in low power distance culture. Secondly emphasis will also be made on having an understanding of why those companies are inclined to use such an approach. Moreover, the process will be graphically explained through the use of theoretical models which are developed from information grounded in the data. More precisely, a theoretical model which depicts the leadership styles and behaviours being adopted by each companies and factors influencing such kind of behaviour will be illustrated.

7.1 French and Japanese Companies

An in-depth analysis and interpretation of the two high power distance companies operating within the low power distance cultures have showed that there are behaviours which are shared with the host culture whilst others diverge. Considering the French company which is from a high power distance culture, the prevalence of a top down approach with stringent rules, guidelines and process oriented environment, we can state that this indeed have an impact on the behaviours of the managers. As discussed in the previous chapter, the need for the managers to closely supervise their subordinates’ activities and the strong emphasis which they put on controlling the final decision, and in closely monitoring the implementation have led them to adopt behaviours which are of a commanding nature and typical of high power distance culture. Even though these are not typical Swedish behaviours and work values we argue that the home culture has a strong influence on the way the current organisation is being managed. Thus as discussed before, this has led the company to adopt a directive leadership style with some extent of participative behaviour when they are operating within the low power distance culture.

In relation to the second high power distance company (of Japanese origin) which is operating within the context of a low power distance culture, we have observed the prevalence of behaviours which are more towards Swedish culture. Particularly, we have noticed the need to empower employees by delegating responsibilities, considering their suggestions in decision makings, giving them the freedom to decide and implement tasks which are part of Swedish culture. On the other hand, the need to promote a highly competitive and performance oriented environment are basically part of the Japanese culture which is based on the belief of working hard and being committed to the organisation (Swierczek and Onishi, 2002, p.189). Thus, with reference to that and as discussed in the previous chapter, it is believed that this has framed the behaviour of the managers to adopt behaviours and leadership styles which are participative in nature while dealing with their subordinates. However, even though it has been argued that Japanese culture has a tendency to adopt leadership behaviours and styles which are more of a directive nature, because of the high power distance culture (Hofstede, 2010, p.74), the findings of this study has showed that the host culture indeed has an influence on the current organization.
As discussed in the previous chapter, the fact that they are working mainly with Swedish employees and all of the interviewed respondents are of Swedish origins, this might have an influence on the way that they lead and interact with their subordinates. In short, we can also state that the overall organization culture which in some aspects (like the need to consider employee suggestions before making any final decisions) is similar to that of Japanese culture might have an impact on the way the managers interact and behave with their employees.

Referring to the above discussion, it is clear that different leadership behaviours and styles are prevailing within those two selected companies belonging to high power distance culture. Basically it can be argued that those differences could be because of the ranking which they are occupying in the power distance index (PDI) defined by G. Hofstede, J. Hofstede and Minkov (2010). As illustrated in the table (23) below, France has a PDI of 68 which means that organizations are deemed to be more hierarchical; superiors having greater degree of power over subordinates and a more commanding approach are adopted when they interact with their subordinates. On the other hand, in contrast to France, even though Japan has a moderate ranking in terms of power distance index (54), Hofstede (2001, p. 78) has argued that generally companies pertaining to those PDI range have a tendency to be less hierarchical and adopt behaviours which are less commanding in nature.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural Dimensions</th>
<th>France</th>
<th>Japan</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Power Distance Index (PDI)</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (G. Hofstede, J Hofstede and Minkov, 2010, p.58-59)

Thus, with reference to the finding of our study we can state that companies which belong to different ranking in the power distance index (even though they are generally classified as high in the power distance cultures) adopt different leadership behaviours and styles when they start to operate in an opposite cultural context. Basically, we have noticed that either the host or the home country culture might have an influence on the leadership styles prevailing and depending on their power distance index.

7.2 Making sense of the leadership styles adopted by companies from high power distance culture operating in low power distance culture

Based on the empirical findings and on the number of categories and sub-categories which emerged it has been found out that there are a number of factors which influence the leadership behaviours and styles which are prevailing and highlighting why they are adopting the said approaches. As depicted in the figure 9 below, there are a number of core categories (performance oriented, employee involvement, element of trust, rules, guidelines and process oriented and top down approach) and sub-categories (control over final decision, home management philosophy, close supervision of subordinates, local employees and host country management philosophy) which are related to each other. Relating to the diagram below, it has
been noticed that performance oriented is influenced by the home country management philosophy and because of the act of having control over the final decision makings. Similarly, it has been found out that the element of trust is owing to the influence from the home culture. For the third category, rules, guidelines, and process oriented it can also be related to the influence from the home culture and the occurrence of close supervision of the subordinates’ works. In relation to the category employee involvement it has been found out that specifically the local law, the local employees and the host management philosophy has framed towards such behaviour. Lastly, we can state that the top down approach has evolved because of the need to have control over the final decision and the presence of close supervision of subordinates.

![Diagram of the linkage between the main categories and sub-categories](image)

**Figure 9**: Illustration of the linkage between the main categories and sub-categories

After a thorough analysis of the findings and comparison of the main categories, it has been noticed that there are major similarities between them and it can be grouped into, relationship between the managers and subordinates and organizational orientation (refer to table 24).

Basically, it has been noticed that the way the managers have been interacting with their subordinates, the independency which are present when it comes to task implementation, the act of taking part in the decision making process and together with the presence of trust between the managers and the subordinates they are all representative of the relationship between the managers and subordinates. Thus, in short it can be determined that the two core categories employee involvement and element of trust can be grouped under relationship between the managers and subordinates. Similarly, considering the three other core categories: performance orientation, rules, guidelines and process oriented and top down approach, it has been noticed that they are mainly related to improving the performance within the organization. Indeed, in relation to the finding of this study, they are all processes which have been used to improve
performance within the organizations and monitor the performance of their subordinates. In short, we can argue that the way there is focus on monitoring the Key Performance Indicators (KPI) of the organization has led to the necessity of adopting performance oriented behaviour and the implementation of rules, guidelines and process to achieve those different KPIs. Combining all those categories together, we believe that they relate to the organizational orientation as it reflects all the procedures present to improve performance within the organizations and can be grouped under organizational orientation.

**Table 24: Grouping of emerging categories between the two originated high power distance companies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Categories</th>
<th>Merged Categories representing the influence from both Host and Home Cultures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employee Involvement</td>
<td>Relationship between Managers and Subordinates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Element of Trust</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules, Guidelines and Process Oriented</td>
<td>Organizational orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top Down Approach</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance Oriented</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be argued that the leadership styles and behaviours adopted depend from context to context. Indeed, as it has been found out in this study, even though both companies are classified as belonging to high power distance cultures they each adopt different leadership styles and behaviours. In an attempt to combine the result of this study, by categorizing those core categories into two main group; relationship between managers and subordinates and organizational orientation, a new leadership framework has been proposed as depicted in figure 10 below.

As illustrated, it is clear that the relationship between the managers and subordinates are clearly influenced by the host culture whilst the organizational orientation is primarily from the home culture influence. Indeed, as discussed in the findings the rules, process and guidelines are prevalent within the French company, whilst the performance orientation has been found to be present within the Japanese organization. It is also clear that the leadership styles and behaviour is influenced by management cultural beliefs, labour laws, local employees, decision making process and the monitoring and supervision procedures in place. Basically, we can also argue that those factors are the influential factors which have probed the organization to adopt the prevailing leadership behaviours and styles. In short, the model below (figure 10), illustrates the
relationship between the managers and subordinates and organizational orientation of those elements which have helped to frame the leadership styles and behaviours. Whilst, factors like management cultural beliefs, labour laws, local employees, control over final decisions and the monitoring and supervision of the procedures in place are those factors which framed the behaviours of the managers to adopt the prevailing leadership styles and behaviours.

Figure 10: Proposed Leadership Framework
CHAPTER 8
CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

The final chapter will aim to present and conclude the thesis findings based on the empirical study conducted to respond to the research question and the research problem. A general conclusion towards bringing and summarizing the outcome of the study, theoretical and practical contributions as well as the recommendations for future research will be provided. We will first start with answering the research question, research problem and follow to the discussion of the study contribution and recommendations.

8.1 Conclusion

With the aim of finding out how power distance as a cultural dimension influences leadership styles and behaviors in organizations, this study has undertaken a qualitative research design to answer the main research question of this study. To recap the main research question of this study is based on assessing:

*Which leadership styles or behaviours do foreign manufacturing multinational companies’ belonging to a high power distance culture adopt when they operate in low power distance culture and why they are inclined to use such an approach?*

Typically, this study has elaborated on the different cultural dimensions, various leadership models and finally elaborating more on how power distance as a cultural dimension have been used to assess leadership styles and behaviours. Based on the literature review undertaken it has been found that directive leadership style is widely spread in countries classified as high power distance cultures that are more status conscious whilst in low power distance culture there is a preference for participative, supportive or achievement oriented leadership behaviours and styles. Specifically, participative and supportive leadership approaches were seen to be mostly prevailing in Swedish management and leadership whilst the literature also argued for an autocratic approach in French culture. Similarly, within the context of Japan which has been classified as being a high power distance culture, the literature has depicted a preference for participative leadership behaviour with some degree of autocratic leadership behaviour prevailing.

The case study with the French company has shown that its operation in Sweden is significantly influenced by the French leadership style which is mostly reflected in the rigid guidelines and rules, monitoring system and decision making processes in place. The leadership in the current organization is also highly structured with a top down approach which highlights the influence of the directive leadership style typical to high power distance culture. Thus, based on this finding we can admit that companies from high power distance country like France operating in low power distance culture remain closely linked to their home culture. But it has also been noticed that there is an alignment to the host culture when it comes to following the local regulation and rules, like the need to involve employees in the daily activities of the organization.
On the other hand, the second case study with a Japanese originated company has also demonstrated the influence of high power distance management philosophy when it comes to the application of work improvement techniques in place, like the PDCA approach, Kaizen and to name a few. However in relation to the finding of this study it has been found out that within the Japanese company (with PDI 54), the host culture also has a strong influence over the company’s daily operations when it comes to employee participation in decision making, empowering employees for individual contribution and freedom of action in the implementation of tasks (element of trust). Basically, it has been found out that within the Japanese company there is the prevalence of a participative leadership style and behaviour which aligned with the host culture leadership philosophy.

Given the different leadership styles and behaviours which companies from different high power distance culture adopt when they operate in a low power distance culture, it was difficult to generalize the result. Thus, in relation to the combination of the core and sub-categories, we have noticed that they are inter-linked and related to each other. Basically, even a combination of the main categories has given rise to two groups of categories; relationship between the managers and subordinates and organization orientation. To conclude the result a leadership framework was proposed which is related to elements, like management cultural beliefs, labour laws, local employees, decision making process and monitoring of subordinates. Indeed, those factors explained the reasons towards adopting the prevailing leadership styles and behaviours.

### 8.2 Contributions

It is worth highlighting that this study has contributed both theoretically and managerially to the field of leadership behaviours and styles when considering power distance as a cultural dimension. Based on the extensive review of the literature undertaken it has been found out that previous studies have traditionally aimed in assessing leadership styles and behaviours prevailing in different cultures. But this study has particularly contributed by focusing on the leadership styles and behaviours which become prevalent when a high power distance originated company starts to operate in a low power distance culture. Additionally, emphasis has also been made on understanding what influence the company to adopt the prevailing behaviours.

#### 8.2.1 Theoretical contributions

Theoretically this study has contributed to the existing literature on cross cultural management. In relation to the existing literature it has been found out that most of the studies have concentrated on defining the type of leadership approach which is prevalent in one or another culture and country (e.g., Suutari 1996, Kuchinke 1999, Ardichvili and Kuchinke 2002, Dickson, Hartog and Mitchelson, 2003). Despite being in an era of globalization where companies are increasingly interacting with each other, it has been noticed that, previous studies didn’t focus on the kind of leadership styles and behaviours which become prevalent in the companies when they operate outside their cultural boundaries. Indeed, this is also in line with Jogulu ((2010, p.716) who argued that there has been relatively few studies which have considered the possible influences on
leadership styles, the differences in leadership approach that are practiced in other countries and how
generalizable the leadership styles are. Thus, to fulfil this gap the current study has aimed to find out
the leadership styles and behaviours which become prevalent when there is shift from high to
low power distance culture. Using established model from House leadership model (1964) and
Hofstede cultural dimension (1980) We have succeeded in filling the existing gap in this area
and to the new knowledge in terms of both finding the typical leadership approaches practiced in
an opposite cultural context and reasons behind adopting the existing behaviours. Most
specifically, this study has shed light on the presence of different leadership prevailing in
different cultures classified as high power distance when they operate in a country classified as
low power distance. In addition, it has been argued that both the host and home culture has an
influence in determining the approach being adopted.

8.2.2 **Practical and Managerial contributions**

In terms of practical and managerial contributions, the research findings will be of help to
companies to get quick adaptation to new cultural environment, decrease the time required for
settling in the new and opposite cultural environment. The findings claim that the current
research will support companies moving internationally with early transition and save time in
leadership and management adaptation to a new culture.

The findings of this study also shows that some companies operating outside their cultures do not
possess cultural characteristics of the new cultural environment when they set up the business,
which creates problems related to communication, understanding the expectation of the local
employees, their working environment and to mention a few. In many cases, the management of
the home culture believed that their home country leadership approach applied by the company
would work well in the new and culturally opposite country, however, studies have revealed that
the organizations can face problems (Suutari, 1996, Kuchinke, 1999). Hence, adaption to the new
leadership approach can take quite a few years and affect the successful operation of the business
in the new culture if they are not able to adapt and meet the needs of the host culture. For this
reason, it is advisable for those companies to have an understanding of the host culture
leadership styles and adapt accordingly. Initial study of the new culture would avail the company
learn the leadership approach applied in a new environment, applied measures to avoid possible
misunderstanding in communication, decision making and the ways of working with people.

To conclude, this study is essential for companies trying to internationalize, for top management
of those companies to define the kind of approach to be applied in an opposite culture as well as
have a proper understanding of the leadership and management approach which will await them
in those countries belonging to different cultural background.

8.3 **Recommendations for future research**

This study has covered quite specific areas to understand the cultural influence on leadership
practices in different cultural contexts. However, in order to have more generalizable outcome,
we would recommend similar studies with more countries representing both high and low power
distance cultures. Moreover, a quantitative study in this field would also bring more precise findings and define the most relevant leadership approach practiced in an opposite culture and the trend depending on the power distance index of countries. Apart from this, since the study has covered only one cultural dimension of Hofstede (1980), future researches can concentrate on other cultural dimensions, prioritizing individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity and other dimensions. These studies would contribute to the existing knowledge and contribute to find out the leadership approaches practiced in companies representing opposite cultures, reasons behind choosing those approaches and the measures to avoid misunderstandings and setting up a successful business. Last but not the least, it would also be interesting to find out the leadership styles which become prevalent when companies from low power distance culture starts to operate in countries classified as high power distance.
CHAPTER 9
RESEARCH TRUSTWORTHINESS

This chapter will present a self-evaluation of the thesis in terms of its trustworthiness. Specifically, it will entail an evaluation of criteria related to credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability which are used to assess the quality of the thesis.

9.1 Introduction

Every research is concerned with producing valid and reliable knowledge in an ethical manner. According to Morrow (2005, p. 251), in determining the trustworthiness of a qualitative research it is important to consider the paradigmatic underpinnings of the particular discipline in which the investigation is being conducted. Determining the trustworthiness of a qualitative study is not an easy task. Scholars have suggested that within the paradigm of qualitative study, the trustworthiness of a study can be judged by assessing the credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of the study (Merriam 1988, p. 164 and Dahlgren et al. 2007). Morrow (2005, p. 252), argued that these parallel criteria are intended to achieve the same purpose as internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity in quantitative research. As he suggested, credibility in qualitative research correspond to internal validity, transferability to external validity, dependability to reliability and confirmability to objectivity (2005, p. 252).

9.1.1 Credibility of the study

Credibility has been considered as our ability to capture the multiple realities of those we study. Gasson has argued that credibility refers to the idea of internal consistency where the core issue is related to how we ensure rigor in the research process and how we communicate to others that we have done so (2004, p.95). According to Dahlgren et al. (2007, p. 46, 47), the credibility of a study can be ensured by prolonged engagement, triangulation, peer-debriefing, negative case analysis or member checks. For this study, triangulation and member checks were used to ensure the credibility of our data. During the data collection phase, the interviews were recorded in order to provide full attention to the interviewees whilst notes were also taken for non-verbal communication which was made, like hand gestures, long pauses and intonation of stress. Furthermore, during the data analysis phase, different statement and opinions which were shared by the different respondents in order to develop concepts which could be analyzed and compared to the theories and literature. Another technique which was used to ensure the credibility of this study is the member checks, which entails bringing back the results to the members of the studied group. After each completed interview, the transcription was sent to the interviewee to clarify for information provided and for confirmation of the researcher’s interpretations. Finally, even though prolonged engagement was not possible, trust was build up between the interviewers and interviewees by first explaining the purpose of this study and by ensuring confidentiality of the data received. In relation to this study, confidentiality was ensured by using pseudonym for the company and respondents who participated in our study.
9.1.2 Transferability Issues

Another criterion which is used to assess the trustworthiness of the study is transferability. Gasson (2004, p. 98) refers to it as the extent to which the reader is able to generalize the findings of the study to their context and addresses the core issue of how far the researchers may claim for a general application of their theory. In a qualitative study, it is important to note that the generalizability of a study cannot be reached as the chosen methodology is used to provide an understanding of the specific phenomenon within a small sample of interviewees. This is also in line with Dahlgren et al. (2007, p.48) who argued that qualitative researchers aim to achieve analytical generalizations and it is with this purpose that sample selection is carried out. In relation to this study, multiple cases (case A and B) were used in order to have a wider perspective of the social phenomenon under study. Indeed, with a multiple case study this provided more in-depth information and allows the researchers to compare the results found. Furthermore, the use of pre-determined questions and specific procedures for coding and analysis was used to enhance the transferability of the findings. Last but not the least, an appropriate sampling method was considered in order to ensure the transferability of this study.

9.1.3 Dependability

Another cornerstone criterion in assessing the trustworthiness of this study is dependability. Dependability refers to the ability of the researcher to account for the constantly changing conditions of the phenomenon being studied and as claimed by Gasson (2004, p. 94), it refers to the way in which the study is conducted and should be consistent across time, researchers and analysis techniques. According to Marrow (2005, p. 252) this can be accomplished by carefully tracking the research design, detailed chronology of the research activities and influences on the data collection and analysis such as emerging categories. This has been presented in the chapter 4, with a description of the research process and how the data analysis has been conducted.

9.1.4 Confirmability

Gasson (2004) states that confirmability refers to the core issue that the findings should represent and as far as it is possible, the situation being researched rather the beliefs or biases of the researcher should be considered (p.93). Morrow (2005 p.252), argued that in assessing the confirmability of a research it is important that the researcher adequately ties together the data, analytic processes and the findings in such a way that it becomes easy for the readers to confirm the adequacy of the findings. In this case, subjectivity was managed by making our stand points of the topic clear and how they can influence the data (preconception of the researcher). A thorough description of how the data was analyzed has also been presented in order to achieve the main purpose of this thesis.
REFERENCE LIST


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APPENDIX 1

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Interview start time:              Interview end time:

**Background Info**

Age ……… Gender… Ethnicity…..

Position……..

For how long have you been working for the company?

What were your previous jobs?

In which industry have you been working before?

For how long have you been in your current position?

What is your current job responsibility?

How many employees do you have under your supervision?

What kind of jobs are your subordinates\team members involved in?

**Task Allocation**

How do you guide your subordinates towards the implementation of the tasks?

**Goal Setting**

Can you please describe how you set the objective for your employees? Who are involved in dictating those objectives?

Do you set challenging goals for your subordinates?
Can you please tell us about the performance and work improvement processes which exist in your department?

**Relationship with employees**

Can you describe your relationship with your subordinates or employees?

Can you please tell us about the working environment which exists specifically in your department/organization?

Can you tell us how you would like to improve or change the current working environment in your department/company?

**Monitoring and Control**

Can you describe the monitoring procedures which are used by the company for monitoring the subordinates/employees work and performance?

Are there many rules and policies which need to be followed?

Are they well known by the employees?

Do they adhere to that rules and policies or there is high flexibility?

Do you as a manager frequently adhere to that? Why?

**Communication**

Can you please tell us about the main type of communication methods which are used by the company?

Can you please describe the type of meetings you have with your subordinates?

What types of issues are usually brought up during meetings?

Can you describe how do those meetings go on?

How do you use your subordinates/employees ideas?
**Collaboration with employees in terms of decision making**

Can you please tell us about the decision making process in your department?

How are subordinates involved in that process?

**Others**

Can you please tell us why you have been using the following processes and doing things the ways as we have been discussing?

Are those things according to the procedures and rules which have been set up by the headquarters?

How much flexibility is involved when it comes to you as a manager/CEO having the possibility to enforce/change a few rules and working procedures?

**Concluding question**

How would you describe the general leadership styles present in the company?

Do you believe that your leadership style is similar as your other colleagues?

Do you think that the cultural background of a manager has an impact on the leadership styles practiced?

Is there anything else you would like to bring up or any other aspects which you would like to share with us based on our overall discussion?

*Thank you very much for your time and willingness to participate in our study!*