

A CULTURAL ASSESSMENT OF EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION IN THE
BRAZILIAN HOTEL INDUSTRY: A COMPARISON BETWEEN
THE NORTHEAST AND THE SOUTHEAST

by

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Bachelor of Science
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
2000

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the

**Master of Science Degree in Hotel Administration
William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration**

**Graduate College
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
August 2003**

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MAY 06, 2003

The Thesis prepared by
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Entitled
**A CULTURAL ASSESSMENT OF EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION IN THE
BRAZILIAN HOTEL INDUSTRY: A COMPARISON BETWEEN THE NORTHEAST
AND THE SOUTHEAST.**

is approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
MASTER OF SCIENCE IN HOTEL ADMINISTRATION

Examination Committee Chair

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ABSTRACT

**A Cultural Assessment of Employee Motivation in the
Brazilian Hotel Industry: A Comparison between
the Northeast and the Southeast**

by

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This study used Hofstede's (1980) Value Survey Module to compare culture and Hackman and Oldham's (1980) intrinsic motivation six-item measure to compare motivation to work between hotel employees in Northeast and Southeast Brazil. The results of this study showed there are significant cultural differences between the two regions. These differences are correlated to motivation.

Sub cultural differences found between Northeast and Southeast Brazil require that training contents and organizational culture differ between the regions since employees' values and needs and values are not the same. The correlation between culture and motivation suggests that cultural differences may be used by managers as a tool to motivate their employees. If employees value different things they are therefore motivated by different things as well, for values are the driving forces of action.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost I thank God for the privileges of a higher education. I am also equally thankful to my chair, Dr. Gail Sammons, for her friendship, patience, and her wonderful ability to keep me on track. (Coming from a 'high power distance culture' I needed the structure). I want to thank my other committee members, Dr. Brad Wimmer and Dr. Skip Swerdlow, for their support and for being part of it. A special 'thank you' goes to Dr. Cheri Young as a committee member, friend, and mentor. The opportunities she offered me as her research assistant during this entire process have made it a lot more meaningful. In fact, I have her and Dr. John Bowen to blame for awakening the researcher in me. I thank them both for never telling me I was too curious. I owe them the decision to seek my Ph.D. degree (and I will blame them too when I write my dissertation).

I take this opportunity to thank Dr. Brewer, Dr. Corsun, Dr. Dalbor, Dr. Mayer, and Dr. Shoemaker for making a difference. As a future professor I hope I can make a difference too.

I need to thank Dr. Hofstede for his amazing contribution to research, for making himself available, and for his promptness and kindness in responding all my emails. His was a valuable contribution to this thesis and the learning process it involved. I also want

to thank Dr. Robert Levine (California State University) for having so generously shared with me all about his research adventures in Brazil.

I also thank my parents, Alao and Mary. When I needed them they were there for me. So were my friends Tania Lopes, Isabel Newald, and Ricardo Vanzella. Their names should be on my diploma too.

My apologies go to my nieces, nephew, and Godsons, Júlia, Silvinha, Ala, Ricardinho and Caio, whose lives I was not a big part of during these past years. I missed them.

Finally, I thank the hotel owners, managers, and employees of the seven hotels in my study for their cooperation. This thesis would not have happened without their support.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This research compared two different cultural settings: the Northeast and the Southeast regions of Brazil. The Northeast is the poorest region in the country. Its hotel industry is still in its early development stage and the region lacks human resources. The Southeast is the richest and most developed region in Brazil. The hotel industry in the Southeast can take advantage of the best human resources available in the country.

Romero and Kleiner (2000) reinforce the importance of the role employees play in determining the success of the service industry by saying that the managers in today's diverse workplaces, marked by great differences in cultural backgrounds, can no longer demand desired behavior. Romero and Kleiner (2000) recognize that pre-existing cultural beliefs and cultural background are major factors influencing workers' motivation. Extensive research has been conducted to assess employees' job-related motivational preferences, but not much has been done in the hospitality area when comparing two different regions within the same country.

Developments in motivation studies have found that motivation is a behavior, not a trait, influenced by situational factors. The most important of these situational factors are the cultural and economic environments (e.g. , D'Andrade, 1992; Epstein, 2001;

Wiley, 1995). Such situational factors will be unique in Northeast Brazil, where the tourism industry has yet to be established, especially when compared to the Southeast.

Hofstede (1980), when researching international differences in work-related values, concluded that motivation is very much a reflection of cultural values. Cross-culture psychologists have studied the impact cultural differences have on decision-making strategies, information processing, involvement, attitudes, meanings, and values; but explicit cultural comparisons have been rare (Malhotra & McCort, 2001).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine if there are cultural differences between Northeast and Southeast Brazil and to assess the effects of such differences on employee motivation. With the globalization of markets, cross-cultural research has become increasingly important to business success. The understanding of cultural differences in the workplace and their influence on motivation are of crucial importance to the success of any service-oriented industry, especially hospitality. "To implement a successful, long term corporate strategy promoting competitiveness advantage, today's managers have to know the cultural factors and social values shaping organizational roles. Just as people's values, beliefs, and motivation are the founding of their lifestyles and behavior, corporate culture is the result of values, beliefs, and motivation of management and their employees" (Herbig & Genestre, 1997, p. 567).

Significance of the Study

Cultural research should be on every manager's agenda because as Dolan and Garcia (2002) state: "Shared beliefs and values, without doubt, provide the most important key to understanding and facilitating human conduct at work. Managing values means managing the culture of the company, strengthening it day by day and always revitalizing it to face the unknowns of the future" (p. 116).

The results of this study will allow managers in Northeast and Southeast Brazil to understand the cultural differences between the two regions and how such differences affect employee motivation. This understanding can then be used by the managers as an essential tool to motivate employees. "If the organization does not possess the ability to motivate its employees, the knowledge within the organization is not practically used to a maximum" (Osteraker, 1999, p. 73).

"Different strokes for different folks" has been a popular belief on which lies the basis of motivation. People are not motivated in the same way. If hotel managers are able to understand the cultural differences between Northern and Southern Brazil, they will be able to identify their employees' different needs and will know how to motivate them accordingly.

Lee-Ross (1998) described the hotel industry as one characterized by cyclical demand patterns of intense operational activity, subjecting workers and managers to extreme pressure. Leading hospitality and tourism companies recognize that the success of their businesses lies on how motivated their workforce is to succeed. Baum and Nickson (1998) proclaimed the hospitality industry to be a people industry, being highly dependent on the

capability and enthusiasm of its employees. For a country whose economic hopes for the Northeast lie on the development of tourism, the following questions are raised: To what extent will the cultural settings between the two regions differ? To what extent will such cultural differences affect employee motivation? Will employees be more motivated in more developed areas?

Limitations of the Study

The first limitation of this study is that it used a survey as the research instrument. Hofstede (2001) explains that although very stable over time, culture changes. Although it changes very slowly, it does not stand still. This is a cross-sectional, not a longitudinal study and as such it fails to capture these cultural changes. The same can be argued about studies on motivation. Motivation is a state of mind. One can be more or less motivated depending on the situation or his or her mood. Survey responses are collected at a point in time and do not represent results over time. Such results are limited to describing the values and levels of motivation of the survey participants at a specific point in time only.

The second limitation of this study is the fact that both cultural values and motivation are abstract concepts. The very attempt to measure an abstract concept is a limitation. The third limitation is the fact that because constructs are the basis of the interpretation of cultural and motivational research, such research results will be subjective. The constructs used in both Hofstede's (1980) Value Survey Module (VSM 80) were a product of factor analysis. Factor analysis involves arbitrary decisions such as which variables and cases to include in the analysis, the choice of the number of factors retained, and the issue of

looking or not looking at mutually independent factors or for mutually correlated factors (Hofstede, 2001).

The fourth limitation is the translation of the survey. Translating any research instrument is a limitation in itself. Because language is part of culture, it is not a neutral vehicle (Hofstede, 2001). The convenient sampling is the fifth limitation. Not all hotels and employees in the two regions participated in the study, therefore one cannot assume the results are representative of the hotel industry in the Northeast and the Southeast.

The sixth limitation is the different ways in which data were collected at each hotel. The changes made by the researcher to the original instruments used here to measure culture and motivation (see Chapter 4 for detailed explanation of changes and consequences) is the seventh limitation to this study. And last but not least, this study is also limited by the fact that although sub cultural comparison studies are frequently recommended by researchers, not many have been conducted, and the instruments have not yet been widely used for this purpose.

Outline of the Study

This study was structured around three research objectives:

1. to determine if there are cultural differences between the Northeast and the Southeast regions of Brazil,
2. to assess if employee motivation differs between the regions, and
3. to determine if there is a correlation between culture and motivation.

The literature review in Chapter 2 is a brief summary of scholars' contributions to both cultural and motivational research and its importance, as well as a brief description of the theories behind them. The background of tourism development in Brazil is presented. Hofstede's contribution and the development of his 4-D Model, its importance, and its definitions are introduced. Based on the literature review, three main hypotheses were generated, one for each of the research questions proposed. These hypotheses are introduced in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 provides information on the data collection strategy, the characteristics of the sample, sampling method, return rates, data analysis, selection, and adaptation of the instruments used in this study. Chapter 4 presents the results separately for each one of the three research objectives with their related tables. Chapter 5 presents a summary of the study's findings, its limitations and delimitations, as well as its implications and recommendations for future research.

Definitions

The following terms are defined as they are used in this research study:

1. *Northeast Brazil*: Formed by nine states: Maranhão, Piauí, Ceará, Rio Grande do Norte, Paraíba, Pernambuco, Alagoas, Sergipe, and Bahia (See Figure 1).
2. *Southeast Brazil*: Formed by five states: Minas Gerais, Rio de Janeiro, Espírito Santo, Paraná, and São Paulo (See Figure 1).

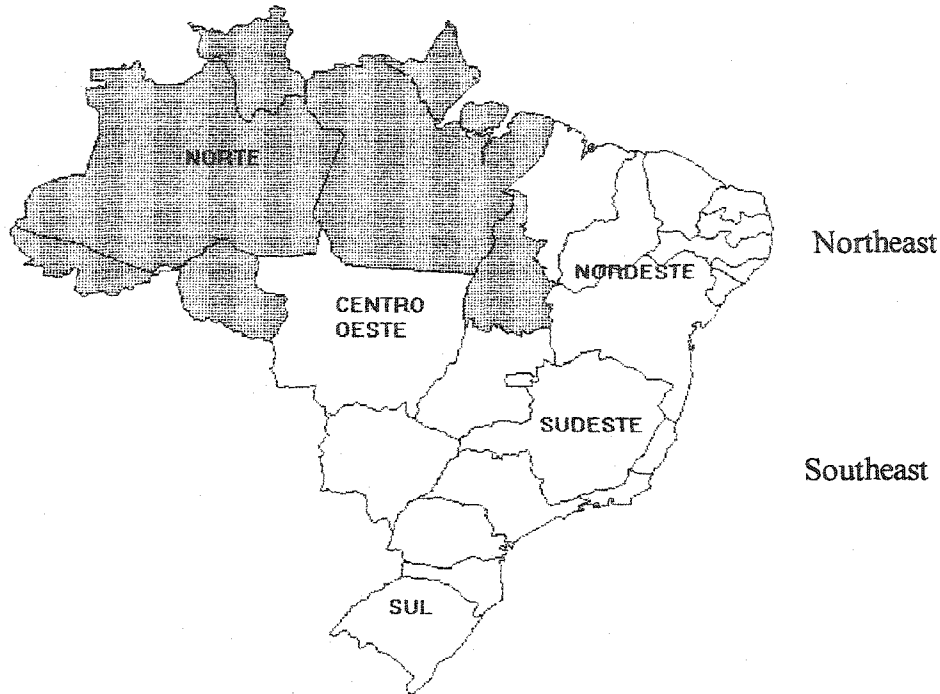


Figure 1. Regional Map of Brazil (from [http:// www.hotelonline.com](http://www.hotelonline.com), n. d.).

3. *Motivation:* Motivation as used in this study is known as intrinsic or internal motivation. Hackman and Oldham (1980) explain that when someone has high internal (intrinsic) motivation, this person's feelings are closely related to how well he or she performs. Kinnam and Kinnam (2001) define intrinsic motivation as an internal drive, and extrinsic motivation as an environmental incentive: the reward.
4. *Culture:* Culture as used in this study is "that part of our conditioning that we share with other members of our nation, region, or group but not with members of other nations, regions, or groups" (Hofstede, 1983).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The first part of this chapter introduces the reader to tourism development in Brazil focusing on the differences between the Northeast and the Southeast. Definitions of culture and motivation are followed by a historical review of cultural values research focusing on Hofstede's contributions. An explanation of the need for sub cultural research is offered at which point the five culture related hypotheses are introduced. The last part of this chapter is a brief summary of the main motivation theories preceded by a theoretical explanation of the relationship between culture and motivation. The introduction of the final two hypotheses and a summary of the research objectives conclude Chapter 2.

Tourism Development in Brazil

Some economies rely on tourism as an important source of income, but in the case of Brazil, it still represents unrealized development potential. In an attempt to boost the economy, the Brazilian government finally turned its attention to tourism development. In the early 90's, ex-president Fernando Henrique Cardoso created PRODETUR, a tourism

project designed to give the poor regions of Brazil financial aid to build adequate tourism infrastructure (Santana, 2001).

The main target of PRODETUR has been the Northeast, the poorest but most beautiful region in the country, with great tourism potential. During PRODETUR's first phase, from 1995 to 1999, the region received over US\$650 million. The second phase is scheduled to end in 2004, benefitting the Northeast with US\$650 million more (Santana, 2001). Financial help has come from federal, state, and regional authorities. The government's expectation is that tourism in the Northeast becomes the major contributor for the region's GDP (Gross Domestic Product) and the main source of employment in the region. Horwath Consulting/Soteconti (1998), a hotel consulting company, has estimated that for each new hotel room, 0.8 jobs will be created and over 600,000 new jobs are expected to open in the Northeast alone by the end of PRODETUR (EMBRATUR, 1999d).

At the beginning of year 2000, more than 300 hotels were already under construction in Brazil. Investment in the hotel industry has reached record levels, having become the fastest growing sector in the Brazilian economy. Total investment in the sector has reached US\$76 billion. Investments in the Southeast have been made mainly by the private sector. The improved new economic conditions of Brazil have attracted the attention of international hotel chains, and today most of them are present in the country (Santana, 2001). Table 1 provides a list of the biggest international hotel chains doing business in Brazil as of June 2002.

Table 1 International Hotel Chains in Brazil

Chain	No. properties
Accor	111
Atlântica Hotels	27
Sol Meliá Hotels & Resorts	18
Six Continental Hotels	07
Grupo Posadas	05
Marriot International	05
Pestana Hotel & Resorts	05
Sol Inn Hotéis	05
Hilton International	03
Starwood Hotels	03
Barcelo Hotels & Resorts	02
Club Med	02
Le Meridien	01
SuperClubs	01
Vila Gale Cintra Brasil	01

Adapted from <http://www.hotelonline.com> (n.d.)

In 2002, the Brazilian hotel industry generated 60,000 jobs in the city of São Paulo, capital of São Paulo state in Southeast Brazil. Tourism was responsible for US\$ 108 million in taxes and for a total of 186,000 direct and indirect jobs. The forecast is that this number will jump to almost 190,000 jobs by 2010, representing an industry annual growth of 5.2%. The state of São Paulo is the home of 70% of the business

tourism in the country, which represents revenues of over US\$ 2 billion (R\$4.8 billion in Brazilian currency). São Paulo also hosts 90% of all the conventions happening in the country, having generated over US\$2 billion (R\$4.5 billion in Brazilian currency) between 1999 and 2000 (hotelonline, n.d.).

The future of Brazilian tourism seems prosperous, but the difference between the Northeast and the Southeast is clear. With government policies favoring tourism development and the number of hotel rooms increasing fast in both regions, tourism is bound to become a very important economic contribution to the country's GNP (Gross National Product); and in the case of the Northeast, the major sector of the economy. One challenge remains: as the number of hotels increase, so does the demand for a well-trained workforce. The future prosperity of tourism in the Northeast still depends on advances in many areas, the most important one being the improvement of service quality (Bécherel, 2001; Santana, 2001).

A research company conducting a survey in the state of Bahia, Northeast Brazil, asked hoteliers to identify the main obstacles to recruiting employees. In order of importance they were: (a) the lack of skills, (b) low salaries, and (c) the lack of candidates (Bécherel, 2001). As Bécherel (2001) points out, managers in Brazil, especially in less developed regions such as the Northeast, tend to be highly educated, whereas the rest of the workforce has very little training. Willumsen (1997) states that the most serious problem facing the Brazilian economy is the dramatic geographic differentiation in regard to population and income distribution, characterized by a higher concentration of poverty and lower living standards in the Northeast and North regions.

As cited in Willumsen (2001), in 1990 the Southeast and the South accounted for 74.3% of the national GDP (Gross Domestic Product), whereas the Northeast and the North accounted for only 17%. If wealth is the main variable affecting education and training, will the creation of a new infra structure be enough? Almy (1998), Robock (1963) and Cacciamali (1997) describe Northeast Brazil as a region extremely limited in human resources. PRODETUR is investing heavily in the region in order to attract hotels and tourists, but are the new hotels in the Northeast prepared to meet the workforce challenge ahead of them?

The infra structure improvements in the Northeast have attracted many hotel chains. Some are Brazilian chains from the Southeast, others are international hotel chains opening properties simultaneously in the Northeast and in the Southeast. The hotel sector is by far the largest tourism sector in Brazil and, as mentioned before, the one showing the biggest growth. But it is the Northeast, where success of tourism development is more crucial, that faces the biggest challenges. Much still remains to be done in the Northeast in order for the region to meet the human resource demands caused by such growth in the hotel industry. It becomes essential for these managers to be able to motivate their employees to deliver the standard of service upon which their success so greatly depends.

Attempts to develop appropriate tourism manpower in a destination cannot merely rely on quantitative forecasting exercises to match supply with demand in order to avoid shortages. Manpower planning depends on building up a complete picture of employment, education, and training at the destination. The success of a business depends on its

competitiveness. One of the key elements of competitiveness is the quality and efficiency of its human resources (Bécherel, 2001).

Right after or even before the hotel openings, many managers in the Northeast were faced with various workforce related challenges. Most of these challenges carried a cultural component, such as the fact some employees of a hotel in a remote location did not adapt to wearing shoes, disagreements on what the service standards should be, rule compliance and attitude issues. Managers also had to deal with the unavailability of a highly-skilled, well-trained workforce. These problems caused many hotels to delay their openings and created the need of costly in-house employee training and on-going employee development sessions (A. Rebelo, personal communication, September 21, 2002; M. Contier, personal communication, October 23, 2002).

Managers learned they could not expect hotel openings in the Northeast to happen as they did in the Southeast. Turner and Kleiner (2001) explain that “people living in one section of Brazil perceive themselves as separate and distinct from those residing elsewhere in the country. As a result they will have varying differences in tastes, culture, and lifestyles... For example, the Northeast is described as a poverty-stricken country within a country” (p.73).

Culture

Definition

In the book *Culture Matters*, Huntington (2000) explains that the term “culture” has had multiple meanings in different disciplines and in different contexts. For example, the

word culture is often used to refer to the intellectual products of a society; in this sense its meaning is related to education. On the other hand, for anthropologists such as Clifford Geertz (as cited in Huntington, 2000), culture is the term used in reference to the entire way of life of a society: its values, practices, symbols, institutions, and human relationships. For Huntington (2000), culture is defined subjectively as “the values, attitudes, beliefs, orientations, and underlying assumptions prevalent among people in a society” (p. xv).

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998), in their book *Riding the Waves of Culture*, refer to culture as the way in which people solve their problems and dilemmas: it is a society’s shared system of meaning. The authors compare culture to an onion, its outside layers being the products of culture, such as the skyscrapers of Manhattan. Deep inside the layers of the onion are the expressions of the deeper values and norms of a society, its shared, mutual values.

Skinner (1953) defines culture as a set of schedules of reinforcement. Shweder and Levine (1984) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) understand culture is a shared meaning system. Culture is also referred to as “the programming of the mind that includes all the patterns of thinking, feeling, and acting that are shared by the members of a society or other bounded social group” (Schwartz, 1997, p. 70). Pheng and Yuquan (2002) believe that there are too many definitions of culture in different research fields and emphasize the complexity with which the term can be defined, but they agree that all social behavior is connected to values and beliefs.

Triandis (1990) explains that a careless definition of culture refers to it simply as the sharing of language, nationality, race, religion, etc. He suggests such definition is careless because it does not help researchers understand the way in which culture affects behavior. Culture, as defined by Triandis (1990), is the human-made part of the environment which has both subjective and objective elements. The objective elements are defined as categories, associations, beliefs, attitudes, norms, roles, and values. Triandis (1990) states that subjective culture has elements to predict social behavior.

In the book *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*, Geert Hofstede (1980) defines culture as the "collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another" (p. 21). He explains that societies can only exist because human behavior is to some extent predictable. However, in order to predict behavior, one has to take both the person and the situation into account. According to Hofstede, people assume each person carries a certain mental programming that is stable over time and leads to the same person behaving in more or less the same manner in similar situations. As Hofstede explains, we base our predictions on how well we know the person's mental programming, which is partly unique to each individual and partly shared with others.

Hofstede (1980) states there are three levels of mental programs:

1. The Universal Level, which is shared by all, or almost all, mankind. This is the "biological operational system" of the human body, which includes behaviors such as crying and laughing.

2. The Collective Level is shared with some but not all people. At this level, mental programs are shared only by people belonging to the same category or level, such as the language we speak, physical distance we expect to keep from people we talk to, and the way we perceive eating, loving, and family relationships, for example.
3. The Individual Level is the level of human programming that is a truly unique part of the individual. It is the level of individual personality that differentiates one person from another, even identical twins. This level provides for a wide range of alternative behaviors within the same collective culture (p. 16).

Because a person's mental programming cannot be literally observed by social scientists, simply due to its intangibility, social scientists study people's behavior. Hofstede states mental programs can be inherited, genetically transferred, or learned after birth. This learning goes on during our entire lives, but Hofstede believes most of the learning happens to us as children, when the mind is still relatively empty.

Hofstede has based his work on the premises that the key factors for describing mental programs are values and culture. He explains that values are an attribute of an individual as well as of collectivities, whereas culture presupposes a collectivity. Value is defined by Hofstede (1980) as "a broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others" (p. 18). This is why values are the core components of culture, because nearly all mental programs, such as attitudes and beliefs, carry a value component. "Culture, in this sense, includes a system of values; and values are among the building blocks of culture" (p. 21).

Hofstede, Van Deussen, Mueller, and Charles (2002) concluded that value systems belonging to national cultures are responsible for the differences in business conceptions. According to the authors, many comparative studies support their conclusion by showing that cross-national differences in individuals' values affect people in business as much as in any other context. Hofstede et al. (2002) proved that culture does matter, as did other previous studies cited in this paper (England, 1975; Hofstede, 1980, 1997, 2001; Schwartz, 1994; Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996). Because researchers have found culture has a big impact on business, there has been growing interest in the analysis of human values and of work values.

Cultural Values Research

One of the earliest studies of human values was developed in 1931 by Allport, Gordon, and Vernon, who classified them into six categories: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) viewed values as the central tenets of a society's culture providing a broad cross-cultural framework of value orientations. In 1967, England developed a theoretical model of the values at work. In 1973, Rokeach, in his classic study *The Nature of Human Values*, distinguished between values and attitudes that shape culture, focusing on the nature and function of values. Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) developed a cross-cultural test of a universal relationship between the personal values of managers and their behavior structure of values.

There has been a plethora of studies along the same line: values as the core element of culture. Early researchers focused on two types of values: instrumental and terminal values. Instrumental values are desirable ways of conduct consisting of moral values, whereas terminal values are desirable end-states of a personal or social nature such as salvation or brotherhood (Abraham, 1998). Kohlberg (1963), Piaget (1965) and Scott (1965) directed their attention to instrumental values. Allport, Vernon, and Lindsey (1931), Maslow (1954), and Rosenberg (1957) paid more attention to terminal values. Hofstede (1980) distinguishes between desired and desirable values, the first being what people really desire, and the second being what they think they should desire.

Hofstede's Contribution to Cultural Research

Based on the conclusion that values shape up culture, Hofstede (1980) created the Values Survey Module (VSM) instrument he used to collect data from over 116,000 IBM employees matched by occupation, age, and sex in more than 60 different countries at different stages of his research. As a result, Hofstede developed four value dimensions of culture. His four cultural dimensions are power distance, individualism vs. collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity vs. femininity.

1. Power distance (PDI) refers to the extent to which power is unequally distributed within an organization or society.
2. Individualism vs. collectivism (IDV) refers to the way members of an organization or society relate to other individuals, and the degree of importance given to such relationships.

3. Uncertainty avoidance (UAI) refers to the extent to which members of an organization or society feel threatened by and try to avoid uncertainties or unpredictable situations.
4. Masculinity vs. femininity (MAS) refers to the roles between the sexes in an organization or society. This dimension has to do with the social, rather than the biological, sex role division.

In 1983, supplementary data from ten other countries and three multi-country regions became available to Hofstede, raising the number of countries to fifty. Hofstede's four cultural dimensions were a breakthrough in cross-cultural research. According to Hoppe (1990), Hofstede validated these four country-level cultural dimensions by relating them to a variety of factors: national economic, geographic, and political indicators as well as 38 unrelated cross-cultural studies from various academic disciplines - "a feat of truly international and interdisciplinary scholarship. The amazing number of entries in the Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) in the past decade bear witness to this fact" (p.1). Sivakumar and Nakata (2001) report 1,101 citations to Hofstede's work between 1987 and 1997 alone. As cited in Steenkamp (2001), Fernandez, Carlson, Stepina, and Nicholson (1997) call Hofstede's contribution a "watershed conceptual foundation for many subsequent cross-national research endeavors" (pp. 43- 44).

Murphy (1999) states that after decades "of development and use, Hofstede's national culture dimensions are familiar to many in academia, consulting, and management, providing guidance for understanding differences in the 'collective mental programming of people' and for determining organizational structure and managerial practices" (p. 2).

Triandis (1990), when examining the theoretical and methodological problems in defining and measuring culture, discusses the findings of many researchers. About Hofstede he writes: “ Most of the studies cited used little theory, but Hofstede’s work has provided a genuine advance” (p. 126). Peppas (2002) states that after so many years and even after some criticism to his work, Hofstede is still considered to be the father of the idea that culture affects management.

Hofstede’s 4-D Model has helped many managers explain cultural differences diversity brings to the workplace. For each of his four dimensions, Hofstede provides a summary of values and attitude correlates (See Table 2 for a complete list). Such correlations can be applied to the family, school, politics, society, religion, and work organizations. It is with the last one this research is concerned about. As Peppas (2001) points out, the lack of awareness of real cultural differences in the business environment has led to a lot of frustration and failure. Managers should appreciate the importance of cultural differences in regards to their employees’ conformity to norms, their personal and work-related attitudes, and their expectations. Only then will managers be able to have successful, highly motivated employees.

Table 2 The Four Dimensions and the Workplace

High PDI	Lower IDV	Higher MAS	Higher UAI
More concentration of authority	Employees act in the group's interest, not for themselves	Live in order to work	Strong loyalty to employer. Long duration of employment
Hierarchic organizations reflecting inequality	Employer/employee relationship is like a family	Meaning of work is security, pay, and interesting work	Preference for large organizations
Ideal boss is the father figure who sees himself as the good decision maker	Low employee commitment to organization	Managers expected to be decisive, firm, assertive, competitive, aggressive, and just	Appeal to technology
Managers rely on formal rules	Best performance in groups	Successful managers seen as having solely male characteristics	Innovators feel constrained by rules

High PDI	Lower IDV	Higher MAS	Higher UAI
Subordinates expect orders and prefer authoritative leadership and close supervision	Employees prefer rewards based on equality for group	Fewer women in management	Appeal of hierarchic control role
Employee / manager relationship polarized	Personal relationships prevail over task and company	Larger wage gap between genders	Employees tend to be precise, punctual, and task oriented
Wide salary disparities	Fewer hours worked	Women prefer male boss	Belief in specialists and experts
Hierarchy holds information	Less social mobility across occupations	Career ambition compulsory for men, optional for women	Innovations resisted
Managers are expected to have privileges and status	More social interaction between employees and managers	More focus on job than family	
		Less sickness absence	

High PDI	Lower IDV	Higher MAS	Higher UAI
		Higher job stress	
		More importance to high pay	
		Preference for larger companies	
		More competition	

Note. Adapted from Hofstede (2001)

Call for Sub Cultural Research

Peppas (2001) cites Parnell and Vanderkoot 's study to stress how important it is for managers to understand their employees' own values and the importance of being open towards others. But do people have the same values just because they are part of the same country? Peppas (2001) suggests that as a result of the huge diversity existing in the workplace today, human values, priorities, and motivations need to be examined at the sub cultural level. Kozan (2002) explains that an individual's subculture is expected to affect the individual's behavior in the same way his culture does. Kozan (2002) uses Hofstede's (1980) definition of culture to say that in a similar way, subcultures also program the collective minds of their members.

Sarwono and Armstrong (2001), when examining the importance of micro cultural differences on perceived ethical problems, concluded that sub cultural or micro cultural differences within a country cannot be ignored. Kozan and Ergin (1999) believe that a pitfall of cross-cultural research is that differences existing within the country are overlooked. The authors say that culture is rarely a homogeneous entity since subcultures based on regions, languages, and religion may exist. According to the authors, social changes never happen uniformly; therefore, intra-cultural differences are very much a fact. Because there are differences in cultural values within the same country, Kozan and Ergin (1999) concluded that culture is not exempt from internal variations.

Hofstede (2001) recommends the VSM be used to discriminate among national and maybe regional and ethnic cultures. He does not recommend its use to discriminate according to other sub cultural levels, such as gender, generation, social class, and organization. Hofstede (2001) strongly recommends that future researchers complement the analysis of differences in national culture with a further differentiation of regional, ethnic, occupational, and organizational subcultures. This study therefore answers Hofstede's call for regional differentiation research using the VSM.

Culture Related Hypotheses

The cultural hypotheses for this study are presented here:

Hypothesis 1

H1: Culture will differ between the two regions.

“Hofstede does acknowledge that every person in a nation does not necessarily have all the characteristics assigned to that culture and as a result, subsequent studies have developed scales and explored how individuals within nations relate to Hofstede’s dimensions” (Robertson & Hoffman, 2000, p. 35). People within the same country do not necessarily share the same values since culture is not a homogeneous entity and variations do occur due to regional differences such as climate, history, religion, and socio-economic characteristics (Fleury, 1999; Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Peppas, 2001; Kozan, 2002).

Hypothesis 1a

H1a: Power Distance (PDI) will be higher in the Northeast.

Hofstede (1980, 2001) states that one of the strong predictors of power distance is education. Bécherel (2001) points out that the managers in Brazil, especially in poor, less developed regions such as the Northeast, tend to be highly educated, whereas the rest of the workforce has very little training. Power distance is inequality as perceived by the subordinates and the researcher hypothesizes it will be higher in the Northeast where the employees are not as educated as the managers and where social inequality is bigger (Cacciamali, 1997; Fonseca, 1997; Langoni, 1973; Robock, 1963; Willumsen, 1997).

Hypothesis 1b

H1b: Individualism (IDV) will be lower in the Northeast.

Hofstede (1980, 2001) states that wealth is positively associated with individualism. He found that the wealthier the country the higher they scored in the individualism index. As cited in Willumsen (1997), in 1990, the Southeast and the South regions of Brazil accounted for 74.3 % of the national GDP, whereas the Northeast and the North

accounted for only 17%. The Southeast is a much wealthier region than the Northeast, therefore the researcher hypothesizes individualism will be higher there.

Hypothesis 1c

H1c: Masculinity (MAS) will be lower in the Northeast.

Hofstede (1980, 2001) characterizes the masculine culture as one where people value earnings more than cooperation. Hofstede found there is a strong correlation between MAS and GNP (Gross National Product). The wealthier the country the higher the MAS. The Southeast is wealthier than the Northeast thus MAS is predicted to be higher there.

Hypothesis 1d

H1d: Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) will be lower in the Northeast.

The questions determining the calculation of the UAI involve the following three issues: rule orientation, employment stability, and stress. The Southeast is more industrialized than the Northeast. The population of the Southeast is much higher than in the Northeast. The Southeast is the home of the biggest and most populated cities in Brazil, with the fastest pace of life in the country. Kirkcaldy, Furnham, and Levine (2001) have determined that the pace of life of a city, region, or country can be used as an indicator of culture and economic progress, having a strong correlation with work attitudes. The concept that time is money helps explain the idea: the faster the pace of life in a certain region, the more economic value is assigned to time.

Hoch (1976) has also found that there is a strong relationship between economic factors and the pace of life. He argued that economic demands such as higher cost of living require people to use their time more efficiently. Therefore, Hoch concluded that a

faster pace of life will tend to produce more vital economies, because people will become more competitive. Kirkcaldy et al. (2001) established the relationship between pace of life and attitudes towards competitiveness, money and savings, and Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

Both regions, the Northeast and the Southeast, differ a great deal when those variables are taken into consideration. The idea that a fast pace of life means a more vital economy is certainly justified by the economic differences between the Northeast and the Southeast. Pace of life can easily be correlated to stress. It is common sense to assume that the faster the pace of life the more stressed people are. There is a general assumption that people in New York are more stressed than people in Idaho. Hofstede corroborates such assumption; when citing indexes at the national level correlated with UAI, he writes: "In the higher-stressed, more uncertainty-avoiding countries, cars were allowed to drive faster" (Hofstede, 2001, p.197).

Another assumption made for this hypothesis is the fact that if people in the Southeast give more importance to money (H1b), then they will give more importance to job stability too. As for rule orientation, another very important assumption is that the more educated people are, the more they will question imposed rules. Employees are more educated in the Southeast, and if power distance is higher in the Northeast (H1a), it is fair to assume employees there will be a lot more willing to take orders without feeling they can question them. Employees in the Northeast will therefore agree that rules should not be broken a lot more than employees in the Southeast, where this researcher hypothesizes power distance is lower.

Motivation

Definition

Motivation can be regarded as the necessary drive or energy towards achievement of some goals (Analoui, 1999). The word motivation originates from the word “move,” and therefore can be associated with movement, or action, like an internal drive (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). The two authors say that the basic sense of motivation is the study of action. They explain that modern theories focus on the relation of beliefs, values, and goals with action. Gage and Berliner (1992) say motivation is what moves us from boredom to interest, what energizes and directs our activities. They compare motivation to the engine and steering wheel of a car, because at the center of the concept of motivation are the energy and the direction of a person’s behavior.

According to Wiley (1995), three assumptions guide contemporary motivation:

1. Motivation is a consequence of how personal, task, and environmental characteristics influence behavior and job performance.
2. Motivation is not a fixed trait. It is a dynamic, an inner state resulting from both personal and situational factors. As such, motivation may change according to changes in personal, social, or other factors.
3. Motivation affects behavior, not performance.

Initiatives to improve job performance by increasing employee motivation may fail if there is a weak link between performance and employee efforts. Two types of motivation are commonly identified: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, or internal and external.

Kinnam and Kinnam (2001) define intrinsic motivation as an internal drive, and extrinsic

motivation as an environmental incentive, the reward. Intrinsic motivation means the person is engaged in some activity for its own sake, because it is satisfying and no reward is expected, except for the activity itself. Hackman and Oldham (1980) explain that when someone has high internal (intrinsic) motivation, this person's feelings are closely related to how well he or she performs. If the person is happy about his or her performance, then he or she will feel happy, and the opposite is also true: bad performance leads to negative feelings. Armstrong (2001) defines motivation as a reason a person has to do a certain thing, the drive or the factors that influence a person's behavior. Armstrong defines intrinsic motivation as the self-generated factors influencing people's behavior, and extrinsic motivation by "what is done to or for people to motivate them" (p. 157).

Motivational Theories

For years scholars have tried to understand why people act as they do. As Hofstede (2001) defines it, "motivation is an assumed force explaining behavior" (p. 385). Such definition explains why motivation is of interest to managers in the workplace: they need to be able to predict how people will act, and they need to know how to create incentives so that people will act in the way they are desired to act (Alkire & Deneulin, 2002).

Kanfer and Heggstad (1997) emphasize how central the role of motivation is in organizational behavior. The authors remind their readers of how motivation has been used by researchers in all fields as an "independent variable, a dependent variable, a moderator variable, a set of processes, a person's characteristic, and a situational influence" (Kanfer & Heggstad, 1997, p. 2).

The following is a brief summary of the main theories that are widely cited in the literature review. This list is not to be considered exhaustive:

1. In 1911 Taylor believed that workers would work harder only if promised an increase in their pay, a belief that is the basis of the Instrumentality Theory. Such theory is based on the law of effect, and it focuses on external motivational factors only (Taylor, 1911).
2. The most famous motivational theory is Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. Maslow suggested five major need categories applying to people in general. It was Maslow's belief that if a person's basic needs are satisfied, the person's attention then moves to satisfying the higher need. The five needs are: (a) physiological: the basic needs for oxygen, food, drink, and sex; (b) safety: the need for protection and from deprivation of physiological needs, (c) social: the need for love and affection and the need to belong to and feel accepted by a certain group, (d) esteem: the need to be respected by others and to have self-esteem, and (e) self-fulfillment: the need to achieve the most one person believes he or she can achieve (Maslow, 1954).
3. In 1957, Herzberg developed the Two-Factor Motivation Model, identifying two factors affecting job motivation: (a) those intrinsic to the job, such as achievement, recognition, the appeal of the work itself, responsibility, and growth; and (b) those extrinsic to the job, such as pay and working conditions (Herzberg, Maunser, & Snyderman, 1959).

4. Vroom (1964) formulated the Expectancy Theory, according to which an individual chooses between actions that involve certain outcomes. Behavior is determined by the choice of the outcome as well as by the degree to which a person believes the outcome is possible. In other words, the person does something according to what he or she believes can be expected from behaving that way.
5. Adams (1965) suggested by his Equity Theory that people are more motivated if they perceive they are treated equitably in comparison to how others are treated.
6. Turner and Lawrence (1965) examined the relationship between certain job attributes of tasks and employees' reactions to them. This was a behavioral approach to the design of work focusing on objective characteristics of employee jobs, the Job Characteristics Theory. They predicted that the higher a job's standing on these attributes, the more satisfied and motivated the employees will be.
7. McClelland (1961) analyzed cultural achievement motivation levels in 39 different countries, using children's readers in each country. His study concluded that a cultural emphasis on achievement is extremely important to economic success.
8. In 1969, another formulation of need theory was offered by Alderfer and was called the Existence-relatedness-Growth Theory (ERG). Instead of five needs, Alderfer identified only three. Contrary to Maslow's beliefs

that his five needs could not operate simultaneously, Alderfer thought his three could. Alderfer believed the one would shift from a frustrated need to either a lower level or an upper-level need (Alderfer, 1969).

9. Latham and Locke (1979) developed the Goal Theory. The authors believed that motivation and performance improve if people set specific goals. Such goals may be difficult, but according to the theory, the individual's participation in the goal setting and feedback received are vital in maintaining high motivation.
10. Hackman and Oldham (1980) reinforce the Job Characteristic Theory when they say that the reason people are not very motivated in organizations is because they are under-challenged and under-utilized. Based on such belief, the researchers focused on job characteristics that could be altered to create positive motivational incentives for employees, such as not dealing with repetitive jobs. Hackman and Oldham (1980) state that three conditions are necessary to create intrinsic motivation: (a) a person must have knowledge of the results of his or her work, the feedback; (b) the person must feel responsible for the results of his or her work, the individual needs to be accountable for the job's outcome; and (c) the individual must experience the work as meaningful, that is, the job has to be something that counts, that has a high degree of importance within the individual's value system.

The third concept (c) in item 10 reinforces the idea behind many scholars' research relating culture and motivation.

Culture and Motivation

Gellermann, Frankel, and Landenson, as cited in Hultman (2002), affirm that "once embraced, values become our standards of importance. They also serve as criteria for making decisions and setting priorities and lie behind the explanations and justifications we give for our actions" (p. 4). Hultman (2002) defines motivation as the energy that moves people to act as they do. As Hultman explains it, culture, through its core component, the value system, is the most compelling factor in the decision-making process. The tangible result of a decision is the action; therefore, behavior is the actual implementation of value-centered decisions and action plans to make things happen. If culture is dictated by values and values dictate our actions, and if motivation is the energy people put into acting, culture therefore influences motivation. Kashima (1997) states that "culture affects human motivation" and says that "cross-cultural variability in motivation is well-known" (p. 16). Munro (1997) says that culture has multiple aspects, such as behaviors (for example, thinking and communicating) and abstractions (for example, beliefs and knowledge), and that these aspects are clearly connected in some way to human action processes.

Kauffman, Davies, and Schmidt (1994) say that "needs, interests, values, attitudes, aspirations, and incentives influence our energy and the direction of our behavior" (p. 39). The authors cite Hersey (1972) to emphasize that people differ in their ability to do something as well as in their will to do it. Their will is their motivation. Motives are

sometimes defined as needs, wants, drives, or impulses within the individual. Motives are directed towards goals, and goals are directed by values (Kauffman et al., 1994).

Cross-culture psychologists have studied the impact cultural differences have on decision-making strategies, information processing, involvement, attitudes, meanings, and values, but explicit cross-cultural comparisons have been rare (Malhotra & McCort, 2001). Collins and Montgomery (1981) defend the idea that motivational research is a matter of great importance, for they believe that the greatest contribution the behavioral sciences can make is new ways of thinking and learning about people and their wants. The authors go on to explain that motivational research as seen by psychologists seeks to give a more complete picture of why people behave as they do.

According to psychologist Gestalt, as cited in Collins and Montgomery (1981), the individual and his environment should be regarded as an indivisible whole. Cundiff and Still (1964) introduce a concept similar to Gestalt's, that the individual cannot be separated from the society in which he lives, that is, his cultural environment. Hofstede (1980) argued that differences in individual motivation and leadership styles could be explained by differences in their cultural programming.

As cited in Peppas (2002), Foxman and Polsky's study suggested that it is of vital importance that managers understand cultural diversity, how employees view work, how they are motivated, what their attitudes are, and what they value. By understanding their employees' values and priorities, managers will learn how to motivate them to be happy, successful, and productive at work. Porter (2001) explains that the "prosperity of a nation is determined by the productivity with which it uses human capital and natural resources"

(pp. 15-16). As Taulbert (2002) explains, positive results of the business plan are the goals of management, and such results depend on the efforts of people, without whom there is no business. "Productivity determines the state of business and people determine the state of productivity" (Taulbert, 2002, p. 2).

Motivation Hypotheses

Two motivation related hypotheses are presented here:

Hypothesis 2

H2: Employee motivation will be higher in the Southeast.

Many researchers have concluded that values are the driving forces of motives (Gellermann, Frankel, & Landenson, 1990; Hersey, 1972; Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Hultman, 2002; Kauffman, Davies, & Smith, 1994). If culture differs between regions, consequently motivation will also differ.

Hofstede (2001) identifies the cultural dimensions that better explain the popularity of some motivation theories. The two dimensions that correlate with motivation are uncertainty avoidance (UAI) and masculinity (MAS). Hofstede (2001) presents a UAI x MAS plot (a combination of the two cultural dimensions he uses to predict motivation) for 50 countries and three regions where Brazil is located in Quadrant 3: strong uncertainty avoidance and feminine. In interpreting motivation for that quadrant, Hofstede concludes that what motivates people in that quadrant depends on two variables - security and relationships - and that individual wealth is less important than mutual solidarity. In this sense, this researcher hypothesizes that UAI (higher need for security) and MAS (lower

focus on solidarity) will be higher in the Southeast. Hackman and Oldham (1980) define intrinsic motivation as an internal drive to do well, as opposed to extrinsic motivation, which depends on external factors (rewards). Following such reasoning, “security” is much more a factor of extrinsic motivation, whereas “solidarity” is much more a factor of intrinsic motivation.

Hypothesis 3

H3: Culture will be correlated to employee motivation.

Cross-culture psychologists have studied the impact cultural differences have on decision-making strategies, information processing, involvement, attitudes, meanings, values, motivation, and leadership (Malhotra & McCort, 2001). According to Hofstede (1980, 2001), culture is learned, not inherited. It is at least partly shared with others who live or lived within the same social environment, where culture was learned. If motivation is a behavior influenced by situational factors (Collins & Montgomery, 1981; Cundiff & Still, 1964), it should therefore be correlated to culture.

Summary

Much research has been conducted to examine the relationship between cultural values and employee behavior. The fact is that the importance of such research will never die. The extensive use of Hofstede’s 4-D Model to this date, as seen in the beginning of this chapter, constitutes strong corroborating evidence of this fact.

Ford, Heaton, and Brown (2001) attest to the fact that the world economy is becoming more and more service driven as opposed to product driven. It is not enough to

manufacture a product well; it is equally important to manufacture it in compliance with the customers' needs and expectations (S. Shoemaker, personal communication, March 24, 2003). "Organizations providing food, lodging, transportation, and related travel and tourism services have learned many lessons about how to meet or exceed their customers' expectations" (Ford et al., 2001, p. 1). As important as finding what motivates the hotel guests is to find what motivates the employees. Such an approach is particularly useful in a sector so reliant on its people. Hiring and rewarding good employees is lesson number four in Ford et al.'s (2001) paper entitled *Delivering excellent service: Lessons from the best firms*.

By comparing cultural values between hotel employees in the Northeast and Southeast of Brazil and by examining the extent to which such differences affect employee motivation, the results of this study may become a valuable managerial tool for managers in the hospitality industry in both Northeast and Southeast Brazil. The employees' values will reflect their needs and wants, and managers can use those values as tools to motivate their employees. Using the employees' values as motivational tools may be especially important to managers in the Northeast, who will have to overcome the region's human resources deficiencies.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The first part of this chapter reintroduces the purpose of the study. The second part of this chapter familiarizes the reader with the characteristics of the sample and sampling methodology, return rates, research instruments, their adaptation and reliability. The last part of the chapter is dedicated to the description of the data analysis.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to compare culture and employee motivation in the hotel industry of Northeast and Southeast Brazil and to determine if and how culture and motivation correlated. Hofstede (1983) states that the key issue for organization science is the influence of national and even regional cultures on the workforce. In cultural terms, Brazil is an immense “melting pot.” The Europeans (Italians, Germans, Spanish, and French), as well as the Asians, mainly the Japanese, added to the Brazilians’ African and Indian roots have created great cultural diversity in the country (Fleury, 1999).

Turner and Kleiner (2001) in their book entitled *What managers must know to do business in Brazil*, emphasized that cultural differences between regions should be

expected. As a consequence, the first purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which culture differs between the regions.

The hospitality industry in Northeast Brazil is brand new and not yet established. The region has the lowest literacy rate in the country, which leads to the assumption that workforce demands and challenges in the Northeast will be greater than those in the Southeast. The second purpose of this study was to determine if motivation would also differ between the two regions.

As described in Chapter 2, a large body of literature suggests there is a correlation between culture and motivation. For this reason, a third purpose of this study was to test if such correlation existed.

Hypotheses

As introduced in Chapter 2, this study revolved around seven hypotheses originated from previous research. They are:

- H1: Culture will differ between the two regions.
- H1a: Power Distance (PDI) will be higher in the Northeast.
- H1b: Individualism (IDV) will be lower in the Northeast.
- H1c: Masculinity (MAS) will be lower in the Northeast.
- H1d: Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) will be lower in the Northeast.
- H2: Employee motivation will be lower in the Northeast.
- H3: Culture will be correlated to employee motivation.

Research Instrument

Two existing, field-tested instruments, Hofstede's (1980) Values Survey Module (VSM) and Hackman and Oldham's (1980) Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), were used in this study. The VSM measured culture (items number 1 to number 27 in Appendix D) and intrinsic motivation was measured using the six motivation constructs in the JDS (items number 28 to number 33 in Appendix D).

Authorization to use the VSM 80 was given to the researcher by Hofstede himself via email (see Appendix C). Hackman and Oldham (1980) state that "the JDS is not copyrighted and therefore may be used without the authors' permission" (p. 275).

Some changes were made by the researcher to both original instruments. The changes included:

1. Demographic questions (Appendix E): Hofstede's VSM had six original demographic questions. This researcher added five demographic questions to her instrument and some have been reworded (See the last six items of Appendix F).
2. Two items in Hofstede's original VSM 80 were mistakenly altered in the formatting process of the research instrument for this study: items numbers 26 and 27 of Appendix D. These changes and their consequences for the data analysis will be explained in Chapter 4 .
3. Hackman and Oldham's (1980) intrinsic motivation items of the JDS (Appendix G), had the questions set up in a 7-point scale. For this research they were changed to a 5-point scale to match the questions in the VSM

(See last six items of Appendix D).

4. This research instrument was translated into Portuguese by the researcher and back translated by two other people for accuracy.

Statistical Techniques for the Values Survey Module (VSM 80)

The base data for Hofstede's (1980) study that generated the 4-D model were collected in IBM subsidiaries all over the world from 1967 to 1973, resulting in 116,000 questionnaires from 72 countries in 20 languages. The first information obtained from the database consisted of frequency distributions for the different answer categories of each question. Most of the VSM 80 questions used a 5-point answer scale (interval scale). Most of the remaining questions used ordinal scales, and only a very few used nominal scales. The measure of central tendency used was the mean. For the nominal scales the frequency distributions were dichotomized at the most meaningful point and answers were then summarized in percentages. The major analysis tools were cross-tabulations, correlations, and factor analysis. Within-group characteristics were compared between groups using correlation coefficients and factor loadings (Hofstede, 2001).

"Hofstede validated the four dimensions by relating them to a variety of economic, geographic, demographic, and political indicators as well as 38 different, therefore unrelated, cross-cultural studies from a multitude of academic disciplines" (Hoppe, 1990, p. 1). Validation meant that results of the IBM's four dimension scores correlated with the four dimension results for other studies. To this date, the number of validations to Hofstede's work has grown considerably. The body of Hofstede's research is based on

exploratory factor analysis, allowing for direct comparisons of correlation matrices and factor solutions. The results obtained by non-factorial techniques repeatedly confirmed the results obtained by factorial analysis (Hoppe, 1990). Each answer for the VSM is expressed in terms of its distance from the mean, allowing for the ranking of the items in order of importance, a commonly recommended step to eliminate response set in self-administered questionnaires (Hui & Triandis, 1989).

Statistical Techniques for the Six Items of the JDS

Hackman and Oldham's (1980) Job Diagnostic Survey contains six items that measure intrinsic motivation and have been successfully used in other studies. An example is Lee-Ross (1998), who used this instrument to measure motivation of hotel employees having reported a Cronbach's reliability alpha of .73 for the internal motivation measure.

Hackman and Oldham (1974) reported an alpha of .76 for the same measure.

The six intrinsic motivation items from the JDS are:

1. My opinion of myself goes up when I do this job well.
2. I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well.
3. I feel bad and unhappy when I discover I have performed poorly on this job.
4. My own feelings generally are not affected much one way or the other by how well I do this job.(reversed score)
5. Most people on this job feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when they do the job well.

6. Most people on this job feel bad or unhappy when they find that they have performed the work poorly.

To calculate the motivation score, the six items were averaged to yield a summary score. The score for item number four listed above (corresponding to item number 31 in this research instrument) was reversed.

Statistical Data Analysis

The statistical software used in this study was SPSS for Windows version 10.0 (SPSS Inc., 2000). Hypotheses 1, 1a, 1b, 1c, and 1d were calculated based on the formulas given by Hofstede (2001) as depicted in Table 3. Hypothesis 2 was calculated by obtaining an average of the regional mean scores for the six items, after the reversing of the mean score in item 31 (Appendix D) as explained in the previous section. Hypothesis 3 was calculated using Pearson product-moment correlation. The results of the data analysis and hypothesis testing are presented in Chapter 4.

Table 3 Formulas for the Four Dimensions

Cultural dimension	Formula
Power Distance (PDI)	$PDI = 135 - (\% \text{ of answers } 3 \text{ in } Q19) + (\% \text{ of answers } 1 \text{ or } 2 \text{ in } Q20) - 25 \times (\text{mean score of } Q26)$ Managers' answers were excluded.
Individualism vs. Collectivism (IDV)	$IDV = -27 \times (\text{mean score of } Q13) + 30 \times (\text{mean score of } Q8) + 76 \times (\text{mean score of } Q4) - 43 \times (\text{mean score of } Q1) - 29$
Masculinity vs Femininity (MAS)	$MAS = -66 \times (\text{mean score of } Q11) + 60 \times (\text{mean score of } Q8) + 30 \times (\text{mean score of } Q6) - 39 \times (\text{mean score of } Q14) + 76$
Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)	$UAI = 300 - 40 \times (\text{mean score of } Q21) - (\% \text{ of answers } 1 \text{ or } 2 \text{ in } Q27) - 30 \times (\text{mean score of } Q22)$

Note. Adapted from Hofstede (2001). Question numbers relate to Appendix D.

Sampling

Data were collected from employees from seven hotels in Brazil. The four hotels in the Northeast were: Ibis Maceió (Accor), Meliá Maceió (Sol Meliá), Hotel Ponta Verde (Brazilian partnership), and Tropical Tambaú (Grupo Varig- Brazilian Airlines). The three hotels in the Southeast were: Maresias Beach Hotel (Brazilian partnership), Tropical Foz (Grupo Varig- Brazilian Airlines), and Vista Bela (Brazilian sole-proprietorship). The

selection of such properties was a result of a convenient sample. Hotels in Northeast and Southeast Brazil listed on the Brazilian website www.hotelonline.com.br were contacted via email (see Appendix H) and invited to participate in the study. The email proposals were directed to the general managers in the case of a single property (Ponta Verde, Maresias Beach, and Vista Bela) and to the director of human resources in the case of a hotel chain with centralized administrative headquarters (Accor for Ibis, Sol Meliá for Meliá Maceió, and the Tropical Hotels for both Tambaú and Foz).

A convenient sample was chosen from the interested hotels. To minimize travel costs, hotels were selected by location. Other factors in the convenient sampling were market segmentation and timing: how early the hotels answered the researcher's email, and if the research date could be set within this researcher's time constraints of her stay in Brazil.

Regarding market segmentation in Brazil, according to data presented by hotelonline (n.d.), the two main market segments in the Brazilian hotel industry are leisure and business (conventions). Since São Paulo (Southeast) is the leader in the business market, retaining 70% of it in the country (hotelonline, n.d.), an attempt was made to have a well-distributed sample of the two markets in both regions.

In the Northeast, Tropical Tambaú in João Pessoa was more dependent on convention and events, as well as the Meliá in the city of Maceió, whereas the Ibis and the Ponta Verde depended heavily on leisure tourism. Tropical Tambaú was located in João Pessoa, the capital of Paraíba, a five-hour drive from Maceió, capital of Alagoas state (See Figure 1 for a map of Brazil). In the Southeast, Maresias Beach and Vista Bela were selected because they are located within driving distance from the city of São Paulo; also, they

were both beach resorts, solely dependent on the leisure traveler segment. Also in the Southeast, the Tropical Foz, located in the state of Paraná, was chosen because besides being of easy access from São Paulo by plane, its business was generated by leisure ecotourism, but in great part it depended on convention and events.

The number of employees in each property was not taken into consideration for the selection of the hotel, but an attempt was made to have an approximately similar number of questionnaires for each region, resulting in four participating properties in the Northeast and only three in the Southeast. All employees who were willing to answer the questionnaire took part in the research, including all departments and positions. Two other considerations for the selection of the hotels were: (a) research date convenience for hotels (some of the interested properties had date constraints due to occupancy level or administrative problems), and (b) the degree of managerial interest in the study.

Sample Size

A total of 527 questionnaires was collected in the seven hotels, 289 in the Northeast and 238 in the Southeast. The sample size was determined as a result of the literature review:

1. Murphy (1999) used Hofstede's cultural dimensions as a guide to compare sales practices across two countries with a sample of a total of 78 respondents for both countries.
2. In his dissertation comparing work-related values and learning differences among 19 countries, Hoppe (1990) stated that a minimum of 30 answers

were necessary for statistical analyses of country means. Hoppe's questionnaires yielded responses ranging from 30 for Malta and 194 for Great Britain, with a total of 1,590 completed questionnaires from all 19 countries.

3. Robertson and Hoffman (2000) used a sample of 255 respondents to study the relationship between Confucian Dynamism (values of traditional Asian societies) and Hofstede's four cultural dimensions.
4. When studying the impact cultural values had on job satisfaction and commitment, Kirkman and Shapiro (2001) surveyed 461 participants in four countries.
5. To understand the extent competing values impacted the quality of work life, Goodman, Zammuto, and Gifford (2001) surveyed a total of 276 people.
6. To examine the importance of micro cultural differences on perceived ethical problems in international businesses, Sarwono and Armstrong (2001) collected data from 173 Javanese, 128 Batak, and 170 Indonesian-Chinese managers.
7. Birley (2001) collected data from 534 owner-managers in 16 countries to compare their attitudes towards family and business issues.
8. Kozan (2002) surveyed 435 employees of 40 different organizations in Turkey in his study to investigate the influence of subcultures on conflict management style.

9. Peppas (2002) compared African and Euro-American sub cultural approaches to management using a sample of 110 usable responses.
10. Hofstede (2001) states that the ideal sample size for the VSM (Values Survey Module) is at least 20 and preferably 50 per unit of comparison.

Data Collection Procedures

Employee participation was voluntary and confidential. Immediately upon the researcher's arrival on the hotel property, a meeting was set up with the general manager and each of the department managers. The researcher would then go over the questionnaire with the managers, and a strategy for data collection would be elaborated and scheduled according to the managers' convenience and within the researcher's three-day stay at each property. Data collection strategies varied at the different hotels. In two of the seven hotels, management provided the researcher with a conference room, where she would keep the questionnaires for the three days. Employees interested in participating in the study, after having been briefed by each department manager, would stop by the room at any time and fill out the questionnaire or pick it up and take it home. If the employee chose to take it home, he or she could return it to the researcher in that same room the following day. The researcher would encourage the employees to complete the questionnaire in her presence in case there were questions or concerns. Most of the employees at those two hotels preferred to fill out the survey in the room in the researcher's presence, since they were allowed to do it during working hours if they were not busy or if someone else could cover for them.

At the third hotel, department managers collected the questionnaires and distributed them to their employees; who would later return the questionnaires to the researcher while she was in the property. At the fourth hotel, the researcher was given a conference room, and the general manager scheduled the employees at each department to show up at a specific time to answer the questionnaire if they chose to participate. A memo with the room number and department time allocations was distributed among the departments. The other three hotels allowed the researcher to go from department to department to talk about the study and distribute the questionnaires, in which case the employees would take them home and return them to the researcher before she left the hotel. Whatever the case, employees were always reassured of their confidential and voluntary participation. The researcher's length of stay at each hotel was the same: three days at each of the seven properties.

Other factors that played a role in managerial decisions regarding data collection were: (a) employee availability: determined by hotel occupancy, scheduled shifts, and numbers of employees off or on vacation for each department; (b) number of employees at each department and the characteristics of each department's functions; (c) the circumstances involving each property during the time of the researcher's visit which affected the level of managerial involvement in the project. For example: audits, construction, or managerial transfers and replacements; and (d) organizational culture. For example: time flexibility managers allowed employees to answer survey, employees' past experiences with other surveys conducted by the hotel, etc.

Response Rate

The average response rate for the seven hotel properties was 88%. According to the general managers, based on the number of questionnaires collected at each hotel and on the number of employees working at least one of the three days the researcher stayed in property, the response rates for each hotel are shown in Table 4 as follows.

Table 4 Response Rate

Hotel	Percentage
Ibis	93%
Tambaú	75%
Foz	87%
Maresias	98%
Vista Bela	91%
Meliá	90%
Ponta Verde	82%

Reliability Assessment of the Research Instrument

Items on the questionnaire used to measure culture (13 items) and motivation (6 items) were subjected to reliability assessment. The Cronbach coefficient alpha was derived because it is the most useful for determining internal reliability (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Guay, Vallerand, & Blanchard, 2000). The results are listed in Table 5 and the alpha for both measures is below Nunnally's (1978) level of acceptance of .70.

Table 5 Reliability Alphas

Instrument	Cronbach's alpha
Culture	.4964
Motivation	.5527

When item 31 (reversed score) of the motivation measure was excluded, the Cronbach's alpha increased to .65. It is not ideal since it is below .70, but it is an improvement.

As far as culture, Hofstede (2001) justifies the low results by saying that a problem with the replications of his study on few cultures is that the reliability of the measurement cannot be checked in the usual way. He writes:

Thesis committees and journal reviewers often ask for proof of the reliability of the instruments used. Novice researchers, forgetting that they are comparing cultures, not individuals, then apply reliability calculations (such as Cronbach's alpha) on individual scores and find very low values. However, the reliability of a cross-cultural test can be

tested only across countries. This requires data from a sufficient number of countries - say, 10 or more - without which the reliability of the instrument can simply not be tested in the textbook way and has to be taken from granted on the literature The best proof of reliability of the dimension scores is their validity in explaining outside phenomena according to some kind of theory or logic (p. 463).

Hofstede (2001) points out that trying to test reliability of the cultural dimensions across individual scores is to confuse cultures with individuals, and it constitutes a serious pitfall of cultural research. Culture refers to a collectivity, not an individual.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

The purpose of this study was to identify the cultural differences between the Northeast and Southeast Brazil and to determine if and how they can be used as managerial tools to boost employee motivation in the hotel industry. The rapid development of the hotel industry in both regions created an increasing demand for manpower. In response to the human resources deficiencies in the Northeast, the hiring and training of employees become a challenge for hotel managers (Almy, 1998; Bécherel, 2001; Santana, 2001). In the hospitality industry success is determined by the level of service delivered. The nature of the business is such that the effective performance of people literally defines business success. Understanding the consequences of culture on business practices can improve decision making and help a pluri-cultural workforce to work together more effectively.

Sample

Participation

Respondents were surveyed from seven hotels in the two regions yielding 527 useful surveys. The four hotels in the Northeast yielded 289 responses and the three hotels in the

Southeast yielded 238 responses. The names of the hotels in each region are listed in Table 6.

Table 6 Hotels per Region

Northeast ^a	Southeast ^b
Ibis	Foz
Tambaú	Maresias
Meliá	Vista Bela
Ponta Verde	

Note. ^a N = 289; ^b N = 238.

Description of the Sample

Demographic Variables

The demographic variables collected in the survey included age, education, gender, place of birth, length of time respondent has lived in the region, work department, length of time respondent has worked at the hotel, work position and length of time respondent has held the position. Respondents were also asked to list the languages they spoke, if any other than Portuguese, and any work experience or schooling they had outside Brazil (See Appendix E).

During the data entry process some categories for certain demographic variables were changed to facilitate the data analysis. These changes were: (a) the 'food' and the

'beverage' departments (question 6) which had originally been considered to be independent categories were united into one 'F&B' department category, (b) according to the answers given for the 'other' category in question 6 (department), the categories 'administration and maintenance' were created, and (c) 'age' answers in years were changed to categories as listed in Hofstede's VSM 80.

The mean age of the hotel employees in both regions was 32.53 years. The mean age for the hotel employees in the Northeast was 33.56 years, whereas in the Southeast the mean age of the employees was a little lower, 31.31 years. Only 509 participants answered the age question. The 18 missing cases were excluded from the calculation.

A total of 514 respondents answered the education question, and the data showed that only 44 (16%) of the hotel employees in the Northeast had some college education or more, whereas in the Southeast that number was higher at 75 (32%) employees. Table 7 shows the percentages for all education levels per region.

Table 7 Education Level

Education	Northeast ^a	Southeast ^b
Incomplete high school	22%	19%
High school	30%	18%
Vocational or technical school	32%	31%
Some college	6%	17%
College	7%	12%
Graduate school	3%	3%

Note. ^a N = 283; ^b N = 231.

Most of the foreign tourists in Brazil comes from Spanish speaking countries in South America but European tourists are also an important presence (hotelonline, n. d.).

The importance of speaking foreign languages in the hospitality industry becomes clear. Another consideration for the variable 'education' can be 'language'. The most spoken foreign languages were Spanish and English. Only 31.7% (N = 167) of the total sample for both regions (N= 527) spoke or were studying another language. The percentage of employees who were studying or spoke another language in both regions was very similar: 31.4% in the Northeast and 31.9% in the Southeast. The big difference found between the regions is that in the Northeast the predominant foreign language was Spanish (55 Spanish speakers vs. 36 English speakers), whereas in the Southeast it was English (60 English speakers vs. 16 Spanish speakers). This fact may be explained by the proximity of the Northeast with Uruguay, Paraguay, and Argentina. Brazil is the only country in South America where Spanish is not spoken. Table 8 shows the percentage of employees and the languages they speak per region.

Table 8 Percentage of Employees who Speak each Language

Language	Northeast ^a	Southeast ^b
English	39%	79%
Spanish	61%	21%

Note. ^a N = 289; ^b N = 238.

In the Northeast, 65.5% of the employees (183) were males and 34.5% were females (96). The Southeast showed a more equal balance for gender distribution. The males were the majority with 56.5% (134) vs. 43.5% (103) female employees. In the Northeast there were only three female managers and 21 male managers. In the Southeast 12 managers were females and 13 were males. Half of the female employees in the Northeast (50%) worked in the housekeeping department. The majority of the males in the Northeast (35%) were concentrated in the F&B department. In the Southeast gender was more evenly distributed among occupations. Table 9 shows the results of the Crosstabs for gender distribution per department.

Table 9 Gender Distribution Within Each Department

Department	Northeast ^a		Southeast ^b	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Front office	7	15	14	15
Food & Beverage	10	64	15	36
Bell / Valet	0	11	0	13
Housekeeping	50	25	36	11
Maintenance	1	25	1	14
Administration	7	14	11	20
Other	25	31	26	25
Total	100	185	103	134

Note. ^a N = 285; ^b N = 237.

Table 10 shows the results of the Crosstabs using the variables 'gender' and 'position.'

Table 10 is useful for identifying the genders of the managers in both regions.

Table 10 Gender Distribution Within Each Position

Department	Female	Male	Female	Male
	Northeast ^a		Southeast ^b	
Manager	3	21	12	13
Full time hourly	14	14	5	3
Part time hourly	1	4	1	3
Full time salary	66	103	82	107
Part time salary	4	14	0	2
Other	8	27	0	6
Total	96	183	103	134

Note. ^a N = 279; ^b N = 237.

Data Analysis

The statistical software used was SSPS for Windows version 10.0 (SSPS Inc., 2000).

The primary statistical model used was correlation and the basic assumptions for linear models were met. The sample population is normally distributed and the independent and dependent variables used in the model are continuous. Because the data are interval-scaled and the sample size is large, parametric statistical procedures were appropriate.

Demographic variables

The demographic variables are important to the interpretation of the results because Hofstede (1980) has correlated some of them to the cultural dimensions. Table 11 shows the correlations.

Table 11 Demographic Variables and the Four Cultural Dimensions

Cultural dimension	Demographic variable
Power Distance (PDI)	education, occupation (position)
Individualism vs. Collectivism (IDV)	age
Masculinity vs. Femininity (MAS)	gender, occupation, education
Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)	age, education, gender

Note. Adapted from Hofstede (1980).

The consequences of the demographic data analysis as independent variables for the interpretation of the results in regards to culture and motivation (dependent variables) for each region, as suggested by Hofstede (1980), will be discussed in Chapter 5. Table 12 shows the correlations.

Table 12 Correlation Between Demographic Variables and the Four Dimensions

	CPDI	MAS	IND	CUAI
Age	-.032	.059	.054	-.077
N	487	496	497	498
Educ	.133**	-.047	-.042	.328**
N	493	499	502	503
Sex	.113*	-.063	-.080	-.035
N	501	509	512	514
Dep	-.003	.010	-.012	.037
N	500	509	511	512

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

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 states that culture will differ between the regions. Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c, and 1d are more specific, for they state how each one of the four dimensions will differ. Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c, and 1d were tested using Hofstede's formulas as introduced in Table 3 (Chapter 3).

Hypothesis 1a

H1a: Power Distance (PDI) will be higher in the Northeast.

Formula: $PDI = 135 - (\% \text{ of answers } 3 \text{ in } Q19) + (\% \text{ of answers } 1 \text{ or } 2 \text{ in } Q20) - 25 \times (\text{mean score of } Q26).$

The managers' answers were excluded from the sample because power distance is inequality as perceived from the bottom, not from the top (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). As

The managers' answers were excluded from the sample because power distance is inequality as perceived from the bottom, not from the top (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). As mentioned in Chapter 3, Hofstede (1980, 2001) arrived at such formulas by factor analysis identifying the questions (independent variables) in the IBM questionnaire that better explained the dimensions (dependent variables). Three questions are used in the PDI's calculation. Table 13 shows the independent variables for the PDI.

Table 13 PDI and its Independent Variables

Question no.	Wording
Answer 3 in Q 19	<p>Manager 3: consults with the subordinates before reaching a decision. Listens to their advice, considers it, and then announces the final decision.</p> <p>Expects the subordinates to work loyally to implement it whether or not they agree.</p>
Answers 1 or 2 in Q 20	<p>Manager 1: makes a decision promptly and communicates it clearly and firmly. Expects the subordinates to carry out the orders loyally without causing problems.</p> <p>Manager 2: makes a decision promptly but tries to explain it to subordinates. Justifies his/her decisions and answers employees' questions.</p>

Question no.	Wording
Mean score of Q 26	Frequently, in my work environment, the employees are afraid to express disagreement with their superiors.

Note. Adapted from Hofstede (1980).

In Chapter 3 it was mentioned that some questions of this research instrument were worded differently from Hofstede's VSM 80 and that these changes and their consequences would be explained in this chapter. Question 26 is one of these changes. Table 14 presents the question's wording for both instruments.

Table 14 Wording for Question 26

Wording of Question 26	Label
VSM 80 Question 26 in Appendix F	
How frequently, in your work environment, are subordinates afraid to express disagreement with their superiors?	1. Very frequently
	2. Frequently
	3. Sometimes
	4. Seldom
	5. Very seldom.

Question 26 in Appendix D

Frequently, in my work environment, subordinates are	1. Strongly agree
afraid to express disagreement with their superiors.	2. Agree
	3. Undecided
	4. Disagree
	5. Strongly disagree

The answers used in the calculation of the PDI by Hofstede (2001) for this question were numbers 1 and 2 (VSM 80). The same answer numbers were taken into consideration for the calculation of the PDI for this research, but the power distance index (PDI) calculated for this study will be called a 'correlated' PDI to Hofstede's, and will be identified from now on as CPDI. The results of the CPDI for the Northeast and Southeast are 92.05 and 70.35 respectively. Power distance was significantly higher in the Northeast.

Hypothesis 1b

H1b: Individualism (IDV) will be lower in the Northeast.

Formula: $IDV = -27 \times (\text{mean score of Q13}) + 30 \times (\text{mean score of Q8}) + 76 \times (\text{mean score of Q4}) - 43 \times (\text{mean score of Q1}) - 29.$

After Hofstede's book was published in 1980, problems with the calculation of the IDV and the MAS scores were encountered by researchers who wanted to use the VSM 80 because the original calculations were done using factor analysis and were very complex. This complexity caused serious problems for those attempting to replicate Hofstede's work. Hofstede then used linear regression computation to develop two simplified formulas

for the two dimensions (Hofstede, 2001). This study used the simplified formulas. Table 15 shows the independent variables used in the IDV calculation.

The results for the IDV in the Northeast and the Southeast were 23.51 and 53.04 respectively. Individualism was significantly lower in the Northeast.

Table 15 IDV and its Independent Variables

Question No.	Wording
Question 13	Live in an area desirable to you and your family.
Question 8	Work with people who cooperate well with one another.
Question 4	Have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)
Question 1	Have sufficient time left for your personal or family life.

Note. Adapted from Hofstede (1980). The mean score of each question was used in the IDV calculation.

Hypothesis 1c

H1c: Masculinity (MAS) will be lower in the Northeast.

Formula: $MAS = -66 \times (\text{mean score of Q11}) + 60 \times (\text{mean score of Q8}) + 30 \times (\text{mean score of Q6}) - 39 \times (\text{mean score of Q14}) + 76.$

Table 16 shows the independent variables used in the calculation.

The results for MAS in the Northeast and the Southeast were 31.87 and 51.55 respectively. Masculinity was significantly lower in the Northeast.

Table 16 MAS and its Independent Variables

Question No.	Wording
Question 11	Have an opportunity for high earnings.
Question 8	Work with people who cooperate well with one another.
Question 6	Have security of employment.
Question 14	Have an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs.

Note. Adapted from Hofstede (1980). The mean score of each question was used in the MAS calculation.

Hypothesis 1d

H1d: Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) will be lower in the Northeast.

Formula: $UAI = 300 - 40 \times (\text{mean score of Q21}) - (\% \text{ of answers 1 or 2 in Q27}) - 30 \times (\text{mean score of Q22})$.

Table 17 shows the independent variables for this calculation.

Table 17 UAI and its Independent Variables

Question No.	Wording
Mean score of Question 21	How often do you feel nervous or tense at work?
Percentage of answers 1 or 2 in Question 27	How long do you think you will continue working for this company or organization? Answer 1: two years at the most Answer 2: from two to five years
Mean score of Question 22	A company's rules should not be broken--even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interests.

Note. Adapted from Hofstede (1980).

For this hypothesis, the results also yielded a 'correlated' UAI to Hofstede's, called CUIAI. This correlated UAI was a result of the differences in the survey wording in Question 27 presented in Table 18.

Table 18 Comparison of Wordings for Question 27

Question 27	Label
VSM 80 ^a	
How long do you think you will continue working for this company or organization?	1. Two years at the most 2. From two to five years 3. More than five years (but I probably will leave before I retire) 4. Until I retire
Current instrument ^b	
I think I will continue to work for this hotel or organization for a long time.	1. Strongly agree 2. Agree 3. Undecided 4. Disagree 5. Strongly disagree

Note. ^a = Appendix F; ^b = Appendix D.

In Hofstede's formula the answers taken into consideration for the calculation of the UAI are numbers 1 and 2; that is, only respondents who intended to leave or were considering leaving the company in five years or before. In calculating the CUIAI for this study, the answers used in the calculation were numbers 4 and 5. This researcher took into

consideration the respondents who disagreed they would continue working at the hotel for a long time.

The formula for this research's CUIAI was the following:

$$\text{CUIAI} = 300 - 40 \times (\text{mean score of Q21}) - (\% \text{ of answers 4 or 5 in Q27}) - 30 \times (\text{mean score of Q22})$$

The CUIAI results yielded for the Northeast and the Southeast were 76.5 and 91.8 respectively. Uncertainty avoidance was significantly lower in the Northeast.

Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c, and 1d supported Hypothesis 1. All of the four dimensions differed between the two regions.

Hypothesis 2

H2: Employee motivation will be lower in the Northeast.

Formula: Average of the mean scores of answers to questions 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, and 33 (Appendix D). The score for Question 31 was reversed as instructed by Hackman and Oldham (1980). The mean scores for the six motivation questions are shown in Table 19.

The motivation scores for the Northeast and the Southeast are 1.68 and 1.74 respectively. A T-test was run using the motivation mean scores for both regions and the two scores were significantly different (See Table 19). Employee motivation was significantly lower in the Northeast.

Table 19 Mean Scores for Motivation Questions per Region

	Q28	Q29	Q30	Q31	Q32	Q33	Motivation Score
North							
Mean	1.58	1.53	1.88	2.98	2.19	2.56	1.68**
Std. Deviation	.79	.67	.99	1.42	1.01	1.16	
N	286	287	285	283	287	286	
South							
Mean	1.66	1.62	1.95	3.53	2.22	2.70	1.74
Std. Deviation	.76	.67	.83	1.26	1.01	1.07	
N	238	238	235	232	236	235	
Total							
Mean	1.62	1.57	1.91	3.23	2.21	2.63	
Std. Deviation	.78	.67	.92	1.37	1.01	1.12	
N	524	525	520	515	523	521	

Note. **p<.01.

Hypothesis 3

H3: Cultural differences will be correlated to employee motivation.

For this hypothesis new composite variables for each of the four cultural dimensions and new composite variables for both motivation and culture were created. Pearson correlation was then run, and the results are shown in Tables 20 and 21.

Table 20 Correlation Between Culture and Motivation

	Motivation ^a	Culture ^b
Motivation	--	.258**
Culture	.258	--

Note. ^a N = 502; ^b N = 479. **p < .01.

Table 21 Correlations Between the Cultural Dimensions and Motivation

	CPDI	MAS	IDV	CUAI	Motivation
CPDI	--	-.012	.053	.246**	.039
N	504	496	493	496	485
MAS	-.012	--	.579**	.026	.195**
N	496	512	502	501	490
IDV	.053	.579**	--	.088*	.224**
N	493	502	515	504	491
CUAI	.246**	.026	.088*	--	.208**
N	496	501	504	516	495

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

Culture was positively correlated to motivation, which supported hypothesis 3. The only cultural dimension that was not correlated was power distance (CPDI) despite the fact that it showed some correlation with uncertainty avoidance (CUAI).

Conclusions to Data Analysis

The analysis failed to reject all of the following hypotheses:

- H1: Cultures will differ between regions.
- H1a: Power Distance (CPDI) will be higher in the Northeast.
- H1b: Individualism (IDV) will be lower in the Northeast.
- H1c: Masculinity (MAS) will be lower in the Northeast.
- H1d: Uncertainty Avoidance (CUAI) will be lower in the Northeast.
- H2: Motivation will be lower in the Northeast.
- H3: Cultural differences will be correlated to employee motivation.

The implications of the results of the hypothesis testing for the hotel industry in the Northeast and Southeast will be presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

Tourism development in Brazil, with the creation of PRODETUR, is the window of opportunity for those regions less developed than the Southeast. Cacciamali (1997), when writing about the regional income distribution disparities in Brazil, points out the Southeast and the South are the most productive regions in the country because the most highly skilled workforce is concentrated there. Education is the most important factor in explaining income disparities between the two regions in Brazil (Almy, 1998; Chahad, 1997; Fonseca, 1997; Langoni, 1973; Robock, 1963; Willumsen, 1997).

Tourism development in the Northeast is the Brazilian government's hope for the region's economic development. But if the opening of new hotels means improvement of economic activities and an increase in the number of jobs being generated, it also means these hoteliers are left with the challenges of dealing with the region's human resources deficiencies. Human resources deficiencies in the region cannot be corrected as fast as hotels are built. Improvements in this area need to be the government's next step, but it is a long-term project. Today, it is up to the managers of each new hotel in the Northeast to

develop and implement the most efficient training program possible for their employees in order to guarantee the level of service and productivity necessary for success.

The results of this study provide those managers with important information on employees' work-related values. Further, motivation factors for employees in the Northeast need to be different from those applied in the Southeast. This is because the cultures are different, and employees in each of the regions value different things. D'Andrade (1992) demonstrates the relationship between culture and motivation by saying that "cultural models . . . can have motivational force because these models not only label and describe the world but also set forth goals (both conscious and unconscious) and elicit or include desires" (p. 3).

Results

Hypothesis 1

Culture differs between the two regions.

All of the four cultural dimensions differed between the Northeast and the Southeast, as discussed in hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c, and 1d.

Hypothesis 1a

Power Distance (CPDI) is higher in the Northeast.

Power distance relates to human inequality that may occur in areas such as prestige, wealth, and power. Inside the organization, inequality is formalized in boss-employee relationships and is formalized in hierarchies. Hierarchical differences relate to the value systems of both bosses and employees, not bosses only (Hofstede, 2001).

Hofstede's IBM study (1980) concluded that power distance between less-educated, lower-positioned employees and their bosses tended to be higher than the PDI between highly educated employees in higher positions and their bosses. Higher CPDI in the Northeast means that the employees in that region prefer more structured tasks and that they expect their superiors to provide guidance. Managers in the Northeast are expected to centralize the decisions and the control over the operations. Hofstede's study (1980) showed that low PDI cultures tended to see themselves as being more decisive, able to make quick decisions based on strong and clear convictions. It is fair to assume that it may be easier to implement an organizational culture of empowerment in the Southeast than in the Northeast. Managers attempting to install an empowerment culture in the Northeast will probably find some resistance from employees because employees may feel insecure to make decisions. In the Northeast the employees will expect their bosses to be the paternal figure who instructs and inspects task performance, always giving employees immediate feedback. In the Southeast, however, employees will expect to be part of the decisions, they will expect to make a difference by contributing with ideas, and they will expect their superiors to leave them alone while executing their tasks.

As reported by Hofstede (1980, 2001), employees in high PDI cultures tend to conform better to the rules but tend to feel overworked and underpaid. Such information is of great value for managers who want to motivate their employees to the maximum. In the South, and other lower PDI cultures, employees will tend to question the rules and will be more inclined to break them if they feel they are neither useful nor fair.

Another important implication of Hofstede's study is that a country's location, due to its climate, correlates to PDI. In the Northeast the climate is much warmer than in the Southeast. This is seen as a great advantage of the Northeast over the Southeast in regard to tourism development. It is undeniable that the warmer the weather the less inclined people are to work, as concluded by both Hofstede (1980, 2001) and Levine (1997). Levine (1997) wrote an entire book on how geographic position affects time perceptions and pace of life and how these relate to productivity. Managers in the Northeast will need to understand that the pace of life in the region will be slower, and they will need to adjust their expectations of productivity to that fact. Adjustments in the employees' working conditions in the Northeast may need to be made to boost productivity. Air conditioned offices in all areas of the hotels, as well as shorter shifts, are some examples of changes that could help boost productivity in the Northeast. These are also examples of how cultural characteristics may affect organizational culture in both regions.

As Herbig and Genestre (1997) explain, organizational culture to be effective has to be the result of the beliefs and values of the managers and employees; otherwise, these managers and employees will never buy into the organizational culture and it will become meaningless. If there are cultural differences between the two regions, there should be differences in the organizational culture of the hotels between the regions, even if they belong to the same hotel chain. Stringer (2002) emphasizes that people respond to climate. He says that we experience climate on a daily basis and that we know "it does something to us" (p.7).

A summary of the main implications of Hypothesis 1a for management are: (a) if power distance is to be reduced in the Northeast, employees will need to be well trained and empowered; (b) if the lack of education is the main reason why power distance is high in the Northeast, incentives for employees could include scholarship and educational programs, training courses provided within the organization, and a culture of promoting from within; and (c) if employees in high PDI cultures tend to be less productive due to regional climate and the perception that they are overworked and underpaid, these issues need to be addressed by management to enhance performance and productivity.

Stringer (2002) says that successful competition relies on successful cooperation among employees of all levels within the organization. The author says that for this cooperation to occur managers have to be able to tap into their employees' productive energy. The main implication of the results for Hypothesis 1a is that, contrary to the general beliefs of Brazilian Southerners, people in the Northeast are not lazy. This stereotype is a misconception managers can better comprehend if they understand the cultural values characterized by a high power distance culture. If the cause of the problem is assessed, then solutions can be found and implemented. Thus, reducing PDI in the Northeast is desirable to increase productivity and motivation.

Hypothesis 1b

Individualism (IDV) is lower in the Northeast.

Individualism, as opposed to collectivism, reflects the way people live together and the importance they give to their relationships. In a more collectivist culture, such as the Northeast, there is greater emotional dependence of employees on their managers. The

degree of individualism in organizations will depend on the employees' educational level and on the organization's history and culture. Employees in low IDV cultures will give more importance to personal relationships and will tend to enjoy working in small hotels. Employees in low IDV cultures will enjoy company parties and employee retreats where they are allowed to bring their families and will appreciate it if their managers ask them about their families.

In collectivistic cultures, such as the Northeast when compared to the Southeast, the hiring process always takes the group into consideration, and the referral of friends and family members will be seen as a way of reducing risks. The relationship between employee and employers will be perceived as a moral tie very similar to those ties within the families. There are mutual obligations of protection in exchange of loyalty. The relationship between employee and manager in low IDV cultures is established with the person, not the organization. This has strong implications for motivation, leadership, and conflict management.

Based on McClelland's (1961) work and his own consulting experience, Stringer (2002) identified three intrinsic motives he considers to be important determinants of work-related behavior as far as motivation goes. They are: (a) need for achievement, (b) need for power, and (c) need for affiliation. High achievers are highly competitive (Stringer, 2002), which according to Hofstede (1980, 2001) is not a characteristic of employees in a low IDV culture. Because they are cooperative, not competitive, they value relationships more than money and the achievement of personal success. They are not power seekers either. On the contrary, because the employees in the Northeast had a

higher CPDI score than the employees in the Southeast, we can conclude, based on Hofstede's studies, that they accept the inequalities of power and income distribution. As Hofstede (1980, 2001) explains, employees in high PDI cultures expect their managers to have a better salary and more privileges and status than they do. Regarding the need for affiliation, high affiliators value relationships and strive to be part of the team. Their great satisfaction comes from being accepted and liked; they hate conflicts and avoid them at all costs. High affiliators are extremely successful when dealing with customers, which is at the core of the hospitality business. Employees in low IDV cultures have the gift of being able to empathize easily with others. Stringer's (2002) theory is useful within Hofstede's 4-D cultural Model because it helps managers to understand what makes people tick. His theory, based on McClelland's (1961) studies, is powerful for managers in both regions because of the importance it assigns to environmental influences on motivation.

Managers in the Northeast will not be able to count on financial rewards as motivators and creating a very competitive environment in the workplace will not boost productivity but will inhibit it. But the employees in a low IDV culture have a strength that in the hospitality industry is a very valued asset: they are people oriented. Relationships are their focus. If they feel they belong in the organization, and if they feel their managers care about them, they will be loyal to the organization and will be highly motivated to deliver to the customers the best service possible, which is what the hospitality industry is all about. Hofstede (1980, 2001) points out that employee commitment is lower in low IDV cultures. Managers should attempt to raise commitment by pushing the employees' right buttons. The approaches will have to be different in each region.

Hofstede (1980, 2001) also points out that employees in low IDV cultures will tend to resist the implementation of technology. Technology is a crucial tool for productivity, especially in the hotel industry where revenue management, yield management, database marketing, budgeting, central reservation systems, communications system, point of sale systems, in-room technology, and security systems, just to mention a few, are part of the daily activities (Lewis & Chambers, 2000). Hofstede has concluded that high IDV cultures achieve more economic success and that there is a relationship between technological advances and economic success.

In regard to economic success, the most important relationship is with productivity (Almy, 1998; Cacciamali, 1997; Fonseca, 1997; Stringer, 2002). Employees in high IDV cultures such as the Southeast produce more for they are more willing to work longer hours. According to Hofstede (1980, 2001) they value professional and financial success more than employees in low IDV cultures. It is fair to expect that employees in the Northeast will not welcome overtime work and they will probably call in sick if a relative or a friend is sick and needs their help and care. Managers in the Northeast will be challenged to deal with such issues. This situation may be resolved if managers in the Northeast can make their employees feel needed and important. These managers can gain employee loyalty by taking advantage of the importance their employees give to cooperation and solidarity. An understanding of the implications of Hofstede's value dimensions allows for management to choose the most effective managerial practices for the success of their organizations. In the Southeast a pay cut works as punishment; or, if productivity falls, expected promotions will not happen. In the Northeast, however, an "I

will help you now and you help me when I need it ” approach may prove to be more effective. Norms and standards for both regions have to differ, for they are a consequence of organizational culture, which should differ as a consequence of regional cultural differences.

A summary of the main implications of Hypothesis 1b for management in low IDV cultures is as follows: (a) as high affiliators, employees in low IDV cultures have a talent to work in the service oriented industry; (b) the importance given to relationships may affect their productivity and may be reflected on high absenteeism rates; (c) employees may try to avoid conflicts; therefore, the communication channels may need to be improved; (d) managerial role is that of a family member, and employee loyalty is to the manager, not the company (a relationship that overemphasizes the importance of managers as leaders); (e) technology may be seen as an obstacle rather than a facilitator; and (f) employee commitment may be low.

Hypothesis 1c

Masculinity (MAS) is lower in the Northeast.

Hofstede (1980, 2001) explains that this dimension relates to the social role of gender as opposed to the biological role. Anthropologists, psychologists, and political scientists have confirmed that males are more assertive than females, who tend to be more nurturing. Males and females are expected to have different values, and this dimension focuses on such expected differences. In this study, the dimension focused on work-related values. Low MAS cultures are characterized by high importance given to cooperation and low importance given to high earnings. The dilemma, as Hofstede (2001)

put it, is the contrast between nurturing interests (relation to manager, cooperation, atmosphere), and assertiveness interests such as earnings and promotion possibilities. Age plays a role here since, according to Hofstede (2001), people tend to become less assertive and more nurturing as they grow old: "An aging population tends to shift towards more feminine values" (p. 334).

The main implication of this dimension is the concept that masculine cultures live in order to work, whereas feminist cultures work in order to live. The Southeast lives to work. The Northeast works to live. In low masculine cultures the stress will be on quality of life and solidarity. Employees will rely more on intuition, be more willing to consider everyone's feelings, and seek consensus. They will perform better in groups and will feel less stressed, but will call in sick more often. Employees in low MAS cultures prefer to work fewer hours even if this means less money. In general, these employees will have modest career aspirations. In high MAS cultures competition is fierce, but it is welcomed as a big motivator.

Hofstede (2001) correlates MAS to poverty indexes. In high MAS cultures people tend to believe that it is their own fault the poor are poor because they are lazy and do not like to work. This idea probably comes from the fact that, in such cultures, work is not the center of people's lives. Such concepts will affect motivation. As Hofstede (2001) explains, in high MAS cultures more importance is given to job content, to the task itself. In high MAS cultures the job itself needs to be rewarding, motivating. In low MAS cultures job content is not a motivator; the job is only a financial means to enjoy life. In attempting to motivate their employees, managers in the Southeast can use job content as

a powerful intrinsic motivation tool, whereas in the Northeast the employees may prefer more-structured, less-challenging tasks.

A summary of the main implications of Hypothesis 1c for managers is as follows: (a) employees in high MAS cultures will see work as the most important thing in their lives and will have high career aspirations, (b) in the Southeast, competition and job content may be powerful motivational tools, (c) in the Northeast the level of difficulty of tasks assigned and job content must match employee skills or they will become demotivating factors, and (d) in the Northeast absenteeism rates may be higher than in the Southeast and employee turnover may be higher too. Alternative holiday schedules may be a solution, as well as shorter shifts and an honesty policy regarding absences. Something like: "You do not need to call in sick if there is a holiday or a festive occasion. As a manager I would rather know you will be absent. If you find someone to cover for you, I will let you go and you will cover for someone else next time."

To illustrate the importance of such implications for both regions, this researcher points out that carnival (Mardi Gras), a national holiday in Brazil, is a four-day event in the Southeast, whereas in the Northeast it is a ten-day event. This example is a classic illustration of how subcultures see work as described in Hofstede's masculinity vs. femininity dimension (MAS).

In high MAS cultures employees will be more likely to sacrifice their personal lives for a career, whereas in the low MAS culture employees will be willing to sacrifice their jobs over an opportunity to enjoy life. If hotel managers in the Northeast cannot find ways to encourage employee attendance, there will be high turnover. High employee turnover

can be functional or dysfunctional. It is functional when both the employee and the organization are negatively disposed towards one another. Turnover is dysfunctional when the organization loses valuable employees (Dalton, 1981). Dysfunctional employee turnover does irreparable damage in the hotel industry, where having the skilled workforce available to meet customer demand at all times is a basic condition for good service.

Creating a culture of skilled, highly motivated and highly committed employees in the workplace is not an easy task for managers. It is evident, however, that the managers' strategies in that direction will need to be different in both regions.

Hypothesis 1d

Uncertainty Avoidance (CUAI) is lower in the Northeast.

Uncertainty avoidance relates to the extent to which employees feel threatened by uncertainties and unpredictable situations at work. Hofstede (2001) reports that employees in high UAI cultures are more loyal to their employers, prefer to work for large organizations, have a strong appeal for technological solutions in the workplace, feel constrained by rules, are more punctual, precise, and task oriented, and believe in expertise and specialists. The main implications for managers are: (a) employees in the Southeast will question rules more than those in the Northeast, (b) loyalty will be a result of the employee's career aspirations; if the possibility of growth is denied, loyalty may cease to exist, (c) promotion opportunities and financial rewards may be strong motivators in the Southeast; (d) employees in high UAI cultures value technology because it increases performance and is seen as a competitive advantage; and (e) employees in the Southeast believe in expertise; therefore, they will take advantage of learning opportunities and

always strive to improve. These employees may be more likely to feel highly motivated by frequent job appraisals and feedback, and they may feel comfortable being challenged by higher levels of task difficulty. In fact, they may get bored and unproductive if not utilized to the maximum of their skills (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Hypothesis 2

Motivation is lower in the Northeast.

The implications of this hypothesis for the managers in the Northeast is that they will have to work harder to motivate their employees. As seen in the implications for the cultural hypotheses, managers in the Northeast have to use different motivational tools than they would use in the Southeast. If employees in the Northeast may not be intrinsically motivated by the job itself, it is possible that managers will find that the strong motivator in the Northeast lies on their own personal relationship with the employees. Bowen (1996) states that "hospitality managers are increasingly realizing the value of effective human resources management." He also says that "...to retain employees managers will have to become leaders who can motivate them" (p. 87).

Hypothesis 3

Cultural differences are correlated with motivation.

The correlation matrix results in Table 20 revealed moderate relationship between culture and motivation ($r = .258, p < .01$) and also significant associations between CUIAI and CPDI ($r = .246, p < .01$), MAS and IDV ($r = .579, p < .01$), MAS and motivation ($r = .195, p < .01$), IND and motivation ($r = .224, p < .01$), and CUIAI and motivation ($r = .208, p < .01$).

Hofstede (1980, 2001) has also found that MAS and UAI are correlated with motivation, more specifically to McClelland's (1961) and Maslow's (1954) theories. Masculinity and uncertainty avoidance are therefore the two cultural dimensions that offer managers the best tools for employee motivation.

Summary of Implications for the Hotel Industry

As O'Donoghue (2001) says, "Modern managers are waking up to the reality that, in any commercial organization, if you get the people right, you get the business right" (p. 255). Aroused motivation is a major drive of bottom-line performance. The understanding of the employees' work-related values will help managers to determine what their dominant motive profiles are. Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c, and 1d place the hotel workers of each region on a different level for each of the cultural dimensions. Managers can use Hofstede's 4-D Model for viewing and understanding what their employees value and how they can be motivated. A summary of the main implications of culture on motivation for both regions is presented in Table 22. These implications can be useful for managers by providing them a guide to arousing their employees' motivation and energizing their performance, thereby enhancing productivity.

Table 22 Culture and Motivation

Northeast	Southeast
Employees value hierarchy and structure.	Employees prefer less structure.
More rule compliance.	Resistance to rules.
High sense of boundaries.	Low sense of boundaries.
Emphasis on group responsibility.	Emphasis on individual responsibility.
Preference for a less competitive environment.	Preference for a more competitive environment.
Emphasis on supportive relationships, cooperation, and solidarity.	Emphasis on earnings, task content, and growth opportunities.
Employees work in order to live and have modest career aspirations.	Employees live in order to work and have high career aspirations.
Employees are loyal to manager. Sense of belonging leads to commitment.	Loyalty is to the organization and career aspirations. Managers and co-workers seen more as business relationships.
Avoidance of conflict.	
	Importance of standards of excellence.
	Importance given to expertise aspirations.

Stringer (2002) states that today's business organizations still rely heavily on extrinsic motivation, using money and job titles to retain valuable employees and enhance their productivity. He predicts, however, that the future of motivation in the workplace will

depend on the employers' ability to identify new motives and redefine the old ones because it is impossible to ignore the fact that the best energy at work comes from intrinsic motivation. Thomas (2000) states that, provided employees perceive pay as being equitable and fair, intrinsic motivation plays a dominant role. Thomas's (2000) main theory on intrinsic motivation is that it can and should be managed.

Demographic Variables

In regard to identifying the causes of the cultural differences between the two regions, based on Hofstede's (1980, 2001) findings, two variables seemed to stand out: climate (geographic position) and education. Obviously more research is necessary to determine if a relationship exists between those two variables and the four dimensions, and to determine the extent of the relationship. This study did not collect data in regard to climate, and a hypothesis claiming such relationship could not be tested. More research should be conducted comparing regions with similar climates as well. Regarding other demographic variables listed in Table 11 and their relation to the cultural dimensions, the results of the Pearson correlation matrix were presented in Table 12 (Chapter 4). Education was correlated to power distance ($r = .133, p < .01$) and uncertainty avoidance ($r = .328, p < .01$), and gender was correlated to power distance ($r = .113, p < .05$).

Hofstede (1980, 2001) found that the correlation between PDI and educational level across occupations was strongly negative: every additional year of formal education needed for an occupation reduced the occupation's PDI score by about 18 points. However, when analyzing the correlation between education and country PDI scores,

Hofstede (1980, 2001) found that it was positive. Although PDI in the Northeast (less education) was higher than in the Southeast (more education), the Pearson correlation coefficient between education and the regional PDI in this study yielded a weak but positive correlation ($r = .133, p < .01$). Hofstede (2001) states such finding is a consequence “of both the labor market situation and the educational system in many poorer countries: a large offer of candidates with extensive but impractical formal schooling” (p.88). In poor countries the great majority of the sample population has little education and the few who have some or complete college education become outliers. A correlation between educational level and occupation PDIs could not be calculated for this study because the variable ‘education’ here was not represented in years of formal school education, but in categories.

Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

Some limitations of this study should be noted:

1. The attempt to measure culture and motivation is a limitation. They are both abstract concepts, and the constructs developed to measure them are not entirely unbiased in their creation, application of the instrument, and interpretation of the results.
2. Culture and motivation are influenced by the environment. Culture is subject to changes through time, and motivation is subject to changes based on moods and situations. Because this study’s instrument was a

survey, the results can only represent culture and motivation at that specific point in time when the survey was taken.

3. Surveys are a limited way to measure culture and motivation. It is a limited measure of any behavior. They should not be the only measure.
4. The convenient sampling is a limitation of the study. The seven hotels cannot be considered as a true representation of all the hotels in Northeast and Southeast Brazil. The results of this study cannot be generalized.
5. The different strategies for data collection at each hotel are a limitation.
6. The translation of the instruments is a limitation. Language carries a cultural component, subject to cultural interpretation.
7. The wording mistakes made for the two questions of the VSM yielded two correlated indexes: CPDI and CUIAI. This fact is another limitation of this study.
8. The changes made to the six intrinsic motivation items of the JDS from a 7-point scale to a 5-point scale to match the VSM scales are a limitation.
9. The fact that both instruments had not yet been widely used in sub cultural research, although such usage was strongly recommended by their authors, is a limitation.
10. The low reliability of the Cronbach's alphas yielded for the measures are a limitation. It is more of a limitation for the motivation measure, since the cultural measure has been validated many times, as mentioned in Chapter 2, against many other studies in many other disciplines. Due to the limitation

of measures for intrinsic motivation and the lack of information about the reliability of the six items of the JDS when used by themselves as such measure, its use becomes a limitation.

Conclusions and Recommendations for Future Studies

Designing employee development and training programs raises questions about the role local culture plays in the content to be chosen. This study revealed that sub cultural differences do exist between the Northeast and the Southeast and that these sub cultural differences require that training contents be different. This study revealed that cultural characteristics may also be an influential tool for motivation. The characteristics of the tourism and hospitality internal market are conducive to high labor turnover, especially among the staff in customer contact (Baum & Nickson, 1998). Training and development are strong motivators and can contribute to reducing turnover and boosting productivity. The results of this and other studies should also be considered by the government in the creation of policies for tourism development in both regions, especially in regard to human capital.

Though this study builds on and extends prior research, future studies should consider more sub cultural comparison both in the hotel industry and in other tourism related service organizations. Other states in the same regions as well as other regions should also be considered. Other research instruments should be considered, so that the results of this study can be validated. This researcher recommends another choice for measuring intrinsic motivation. Because the VSM 80 is a long instrument, the six items of the JDS were a

convenient choice of measure since the length of the survey was a concern. However, there may be more reliable motivation measures for sub cultural studies this researcher may have overlooked. Furthermore, more attention to the relationship between demographic variables and culture should be given by other researchers, as well as the relationship between culture and leadership, employee commitment, career aspirations, productivity, and human capital.

APPENDIX A
HUMAN SUBJECTS APPROVAL

Notice of Approval to Conduct Research Involving Human Subjects

DATE: August 5, 2002

TO: Ana C. Gomes, Hotel College
Dr. Gail Sammons (Advisor)
M/S 6021

FROM: Dr. Fred Preston, Chair
UNLV Social Behavioral Sciences Institutional Review Board

RE: Status of Human Subject Protocol Entitled: A Cultural Assessment of
Managerial Motivation in Brazilian Hotels: A Comparison between the
Northeast and the Southeast

OPRS# 600S0702-420

This memorandum is official notification that the protocol for the project referenced above has been reviewed by the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects(OPRS) and has been determined as having met the criteria for exemption from full review by the UNLV Social Behavioral Sciences Institutional Review Board (IRB) as indicated in regulatory statutes 45CFR 46.101. The protocol has been submitted through the expedited review process and has been approved for a period of one year from the date of this notification. Work on the project may proceed.

Should the use of human subjects described in this protocol continue beyond August 5, 2003, it will be necessary to request an extension. Should there be ANY changes to the protocol, it will be necessary to submit those changes to the Officer for the Protection of Research Subjects.

If you have questions or require any assistance , please contact the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects at 895-2794.

Cc: OPRS File

APPENDIX B

PARTICIPANT INFORMED CONSENT IN ENGLISH

University of Nevada, Las Vegas
William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration

Dear _____ Employee,

The following survey is part of a research study designed to make an assessment of regional cultural characteristics and their possible impact on the motivation to work. There are no wrong or right answers. This is not a test.

Please take a few minutes to respond to the attached survey. **The survey will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.** Please take note that:

- **Your participation in this study is voluntary;**
- Under no circumstances will your individual responses be reported to anyone;
- **Your responses are important to me!**

Once you have completed the survey, please give it back to me. I will be on property to answer your questions and collect the surveys. **Remember, I will keep your answers confidential at all times. Your name does not need to be on your survey.**

If you have any concerns about the confidentiality of the process or the survey questions in general, please feel free to ask questions during the explanatory session or contact me at any time during my stay at the hotel. I would prefer to discuss your concerns with you rather than miss the opportunity for your cooperation. If you have any concerns or questions about the study, you may contact Dr. Gail Sammons at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas at (702) 895- 4462, or via e-mail at sammons@ccmail.nevada.edu or myself at 11 – 38655329 in Brazil, or via email at acqg21@hotmail.com. By filling out the questionnaires, you acknowledge your understanding of the information provided and agree to participate in this study.

Thank you for your participation.
Sincerely,

Ana Claudia Q. Gomes

APPENDIX B

PARTICIPANT INFORMED CONSENT IN PORTUGUESE

University of Nevada, Las Vegas
William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration

Prezado(a) funcionário(a) do _____ :

O seguinte questionário é parte de uma pesquisa que visa fazer um estudo sobre características culturais regionais e seus possíveis efeitos sobre a motivação para o trabalho. Não há respostas certas ou erradas. As perguntas não são um teste.

Pôr favor, tire alguns minutos para responder ao questionário anexo. **Levará aproximadamente 20 minutos.** Não se esqueça de que:

- **Sua participação é voluntária;**
- **Sob nenhuma circunstância** suas respostas serão fornecidas a ninguém;
- **Suas respostas são muito importantes para mim!**

Uma vez respondidas todas as perguntas, entregue-me o questionário. Eu estarei no hotel para responder às suas perguntas e recolher os questionários completos. **Lembre-se, eu mantereí suas respostas confidenciais a todo momento. Seu nome não precisa estar no questionário.**

Se você tiver qualquer dúvida ou preocupação a respeito da confidencialidade dessa pesquisa, ou sobre o questionário de modo geral, sinta-se à vontade para se manifestar a qualquer momento durante a sessão explicativa, ou para me contatar a qualquer momento durante a minha estadia no hotel. Eu prefiro discutir com você suas dúvidas, ao invés de abrir mão da oportunidade de ter a sua colaboração. Se tiver qualquer dúvida sobre esse estudo, você pode contatar a Dra. Gail Sammons na Universidade de Nevada, em Las Vegas, pelo telefone (702) 895-4462, ou via e-mail pelo endereço sammons@ccmail.nevada.edu; ou a mim, Ana C. Gomes, no Brasil pelo telefone (11) 3865-5329, ou pelo e-mail acqg21@hotmail.com. Ao responder o questionário, você estará atestando ter compreendido as informações aqui fornecidas, e afirmando o seu consentimento em participar desse estudo.

Obrigada pela sua participação.
Sinceramente,

Ana Cláudia Q. Gomes
Aluna de Mestrado, UNLV

APPENDIX C

AUTHORIZATION TO USE THE VSM

Hofstede's authorization to use the VSM 80

Save Address(es) Block

"Geert Hofstede" <hofstede@bart.nl>

"Ana Gomes" <acgg21@hotmail.com>

Re: Permission to use the VSM 80

Thu, 13 Feb 2003 09:47:49 +0100

Reply Reply All Forward Delete

Put in Folder... ▼

Home Print >>>

Dear Ms Gomes, it is me who owns the right and I gave you permission. The instructions are in "Culture's Consequences", 1980, if you read the text carefully. Yours, GH

APPENDIX D

SURVEY

Part I

Please think of **your life and your ideal job** - disregarding your present job. In your life and in your ideal job, how important would the following be to you: (please circle one answer number)

1 = of utmost important

2 = very important

3 = of moderate importance

4 = of little importance

5 = of very little importance

1. Have sufficient time left for your personal life or family life.
2. Have challenging tasks to do, from which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment.
3. Have little tension and stress on the job.
4. Have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)
5. Have a good working relationship with your direct superior.
6. Have security of employment.
7. Have considerable freedom to adopt your own approach to the job.
8. Work with people who cooperate well with one another.
9. Be consulted by your direct superior in his/her decisions.
10. Make a real contribution to the success of your organization.
11. Have an opportunity for high earnings.
12. Serve your country.
13. Live in an area desirable to you and your family.
14. Have an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs.
15. Have an element of variety and adventure in the job.

16. Work in a prestigious, successful company or organization.
17. Have an opportunity for helping other people.
18. Work in a well-defined job situation where the requirements are clear.

Part II

The descriptions below apply to four different types of managers. First, please read through these descriptions:

- Manager A: Usually makes his/her decisions promptly and communicates them to his/her subordinates clearly and firmly. Expects them to carry out the decisions loyally and without raising difficulties.
- Manager B: Usually makes his/her decisions promptly, but before going ahead, tries to explain them fully to his/her subordinates. Gives them the reason for the decisions and answers whatever questions they may have.
- Manager C: Usually consults with his/her subordinates before he/she reaches his/her decisions. Listens to their advice, considers it, and then announces his/her decision. He/she then expects all to work loyally to implement it whether or not it is in accordance with the advice they gave.
- Manager D: Usually calls a meeting of his/her subordinates when there is an important decision to be made. Puts the problem before the group and invites discussion. Accepts the majority viewpoint as the decision.

19. Now, for the above types of managers, please mark the **one** which you would **prefer** to work under? (Check only one box please)

Manager A Manager B Manager C Manager D

20. Which one of the above four types of managers would you say your own superior most closely corresponds? (Check only one box please):

Manager A Manager B Manager C Manager D

21. How often do you feel nervous or tense at work? (Check only one box please):

- I always feel nervous or tense.
- Usually
- Sometimes
- Seldom
- I never feel nervous or tense.

Part III

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

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

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

23. Most people can be trusted.

24. Quite a few employees have an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if they can.

25. A large corporation is generally a more desirable place to work than a small company.

26. Frequently, in my work environment, subordinates are afraid to express disagreement with their superiors.

27. I think I will continue working for this organization for a long time.

28. My opinion of myself goes up when I do this job well.

29. I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well.

30. I feel bad or unhappy when I discover I have performed poorly on this job.

31. My own feelings generally are affected much one way or the other by how well I do this job.

32. Most people on this job feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when they do the job well.

33. Most people on this job feel bad or unhappy when they find that they have performed the work poorly.

Part I

Por favor, pense no **emprego ideal – sem considerar o atual**. Ao escolher o emprego ideal, indique qual o grau de importância que as afirmações abaixo têm para você:

- 1 = de grande importância
- 2 = de muita importância
- 3 = de importância moderada
- 4 = de pouca importância
- 5 = de muito pouca ou nenhuma importância

1. Ter tempo suficiente para si próprio ou para a sua família.
2. Exercer tarefas com um grau de desafio que lhe permita sentir-se realizado.
3. Ter pouca tensão e estresse no trabalho.
4. Ter boas condições físicas de trabalho, como boa ventilação e iluminação, espaço adequado etc.
5. Ter um bom relacionamento com seu superior direto.
6. Ter estabilidade no emprego.
7. Ter considerável liberdade para adotar seu próprio sistema de trabalho.
8. Trabalhar com pessoas que cooperem bem umas com as outras.
9. Ser consultado pelo seu superior para decisões.
10. Dar uma contribuição significativa para o sucesso de sua empresa.
11. Ter a oportunidade de ganhar um salário alto.
12. Servir o seu país.
13. Morar numa área que agrada a você e a sua família.
14. Ter a oportunidade de ser promovido.
15. Ter um elemento de variedade e desafio no trabalho.

16. Trabalhar em uma organização ou empresa de prestígio e sucesso.
17. Ter a oportunidade de ajudar ao próximo.
18. Trabalhar em um emprego com uma situação bem definida, em que as expectativas sejam claras.

Part II

As descrições abaixo são características de quatro tipos de gerentes. Primeiro, por favor leia as descrições:

- Gerente 1: Geralmente toma suas decisões com rapidez e as comunica a seus subordinados com clareza e firmeza. Espera que seus empregados cumpram suas ordens lealmente e sem criar dificuldades.
- Gerente 2: Geralmente toma suas decisões com rapidez, mas antes de executá-las, tenta explicá-las completamente a seus subordinados. Fornece-lhes as razões para suas decisões e responde a quaisquer perguntas que possam ter.
- Gerente 3: Geralmente consulta seus subordinados antes de tomar uma decisão. Escuta os conselhos deles, pondera sobre eles, e depois anuncia sua decisão. Espera, então, que todos trabalhem lealmente para sua implementação, mesmo que a decisão seja contrária as suas recomendações.
- Gerente 4: Geralmente convoca uma reunião com seus subordinados quando há uma decisão importante a tomar. Expõe o problema ao grupo e o convida à discussão. Aceita a decisão da maioria como a decisão final.

19. Agora, entre os tipos de gerentes acima, por favor assinale aquele **para quem você gostaria de trabalhar** (Cheque apenas uma alternativa por favor).

Gerente 1 Gerente 2 Gerente 3 Gerente 4

20. Com que tipo, dentre os quatro gerentes acima, seu chefe se parece mais? (Cheque apenas uma alternativa por favor):

Gerente 1 Gerente 2 Gerente 3 Gerente 4

21. Com que frequência você se sente nervoso ou tenso no trabalho? (Cheque apenas uma alternativa por favor):

- Sempre me sinto dessa maneira.
- Geralmente.
- De vez em quando.
- Raramente.
- Nunca me sinto dessa maneira.

Part III

Por favor, indique o seu grau de concordância ou discordância com as seguintes afirmações:

- 1 = estou plenamente de acordo
- 2 = concordo
- 3 = estou indeciso
- 4 = discordo parcialmente
- 5 = discordo totalmente

22. As regras da empresa jamais devem ser quebradas; mesmo que naquele momento quebrar tais regras seja para o bem da empresa.

23. Pode-se confiar na maioria das pessoas.

24. Muitos empregados não gostam de trabalhar e irão evitá-lo se puderem.

25. Geralmente uma empresa grande é melhor para se trabalhar do que uma empresa pequena.

26. Com frequência, em meu ambiente de trabalho, os subordinados sentem receio de expressar discordância com seus superiores.

27. Acho que vou continuar a trabalhar para esse hotel ou organização por muito tempo.

28. Minha opinião sobre eu mesmo(a) melhora quando faço bem o meu trabalho.

29. Tenho um grande senso de realização pessoal quando faço bem o meu trabalho.

30. Sinto - me mal e infeliz quando percebo que fiz mal o meu trabalho.

31. Meus sentimentos geralmente não são afetados pela qualidade do meu trabalho

32. A maioria das pessoas nesse emprego têm uma grande sensação de realização pessoal quando fazem bem seu trabalho.

33. A maioria das pessoas nesse emprego se sentem mal ou infelizes se fazem mal o seu trabalho.

APPENDIX E
DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

APPENDIX E

Demographic Survey in English

Please complete the following questions by either **checking (√) the box** that corresponds to the appropriate answer or **filling in the blank**. This information will be kept confidential.

1. What is your present age? _____
2. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
 - less than high school
 - completed high school
 - technical or vocational school
 - some college
 - college degree
 - graduate degree
3. What is your gender?
 - female
 - male
4. Where were you born?

city _____

state _____

country _____
5. How long have you lived:

in Northeast Brazil? _____ years

in Southeast Brazil? _____ years
6. In what department do you currently work?
 - front office
 - food
 - beverage
 - bell/valet
 - housekeeping
 - other: _____
7. How long have you worked for this company?
 - under 90 days
 - 90 days to 1 year
 - 1 - 2 years
 - 2 - 3 years
 - 3 - 5 years
 - over 5 years
8. How long have you worked in your current position?
 - under 90 days
 - 90 days to 1 year
 - 1 - 2 years
 - 2 - 3 years
 - 3 - 5 years
 - over 5 years
9. What is your position?
 - manager or supervisor
 - full time employee paid by the hour
 - part time employee paid by the hour
 - full time employee on a monthly salary
 - part time employee on a monthly salary
 - other _____
10. Do you speak any other languages besides Portuguese? If so please list them.

11. Have you ever worked or studied abroad? If so, please list where, what, and for how long.

APPENDIX E

Demographic Survey in Portuguese

Favor responder as perguntas abaixo, assinalando a resposta correta (✓) no quadradinho apropriado ou preenchendo as respostas. Esta pesquisa é confidencial.

1. Qual é a sua idade? _____
2. Qual é o seu nível de escolaridade?
- escola primária (ensino fundamental)
- escola ginásial (ensino fundamental)
- colegial ou técnico (ensino médio)
- nível universitário completo
- nível universitário incompleto
- Pós-graduação
3. Sexo:
- feminino
- masculino
4. Onde nasceu?
- Cidade _____
- Estado _____
- País _____
5. Há quanto tempo mora:
- No Nordeste? _____ anos
- No Sudeste? _____ anos
6. Em que departamento trabalha atualmente?
- recepção
- alimentos
- bebidas
- mensageiro/estacionamento
- governança
- outro: _____
7. Há quanto tempo trabalha para este hotel?
- menos de 90 dias
- 90 dias a 1 ano
- 1 - 2 anos
- 2 - 3 anos
- 3 - 5 anos
- mais de 5 anos
8. Há quanto tempo trabalha nesse cargo?
- menos de 90 dias
- 90 dias a 1 ano
- 1 - 2 anos
- 2 - 3 anos
- 3 - 5 anos
- mais de 5 anos
9. Qual é o seu cargo?
- gerente ou supervisor
- empregado de meio período assalariado remunerado por hora
- empregado de meio período remunerado por hora
- empregado de período integral assalariado
- empregado de período integral assalariado
- outro _____

10. Fala algum idioma além do Português?

11. Já trabalhou ou estudou no exterior? Se sim, favor especificar onde, que curso, e por quanto tempo.

APPENDIX F
THE ORIGINAL VSM 80

APPENDIX F

The Original VSM 80

Please think of an ideal job – disregarding your present job. In choosing an ideal job, how important would it be to you to (please circle one answer number in each line across):

(Questions 1 to 18)

1 = of utmost importance

2 = very important

3 = of moderate importance

4 = of little importance

5 = of very little or no importance

1. Have sufficient time left for your personal or family life?
2. Have challenging tasks to do, from which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment?
3. Have little tension and stress on the job?
4. Have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)?
5. Have a good working relationship with your direct superior?
6. Have security of employment?
7. Have considerable freedom to adopt your own approach to the job?
8. Work with people who cooperate well with one another?
9. Be consulted by your direct superior in his/her decisions?
10. Make a real contribution to the success of your organization?
11. Have an opportunity for high earnings?
12. Serve your country?
13. Live in an area desirable to you and your family?
14. Have an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs?
15. Have an element of variety and adventure in the job?
16. Work in a prestigious, successful company or organization?
17. Have an opportunity for helping other people?
18. Work in a well-defined job situation where the requirements are clear?

The descriptions below apply to four different types of managers. First, please read through these descriptions:

Manager 1 Usually makes his/her decisions promptly and communicates them to his/her subordinates clearly and firmly. Expects them to carry out the decisions loyally and without raising difficulties.

Manager 2 Usually makes his/her decisions promptly, but, before going ahead, tries to explain them fully to his/her subordinates. Gives them the reason for the decisions and answers whatever questions they may have.

Manager 3 Usually consults with his/her subordinates before he/she reaches his/her decisions. Listens to their advice, considers it, and then announces his/her decision. He/she then expects all to work loyally to implement it whether or not it is in accordance with the advice they gave.

Manager 4 Usually calls a meeting of his/her subordinates when there is an important decision to be made. Puts the problem before the group and invites discussion. Accepts the majority viewpoint as the decision.

19. Now, for the above types of managers, please mark the one which you would prefer to work under (circle one answer number only):

1. Manager 1
2. Manager 2
3. Manager 3
4. Manager 4

20. And, to which one of the above four types of managers would you say your own superior most closely corresponds?

1. Manager 1
2. Manager 2
3. Manager 3
4. Manager 4

21. How often do you feel nervous or tense at work?

1. I always feel this way.
2. Usually
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. I never feel this way.

Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

(Questions 22 to 26)

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

- 22. A company or organization's rules should not be broken – even when the employee thinks it is in the organization's best interest.
- 23. Most people can be trusted.
- 24. Quite a few employees have an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if they can.
- 25. A large corporation is generally a more desirable place to work than a small company.
- 26. How frequently, in your work environment, are subordinates afraid to express disagreement with their superiors?

27. How long do you think you will continue working for this company or organization?

- 1. Two years at the most.
- 2. From two to five years.
- 3. More than five years (but I probably will leave before I retire).
- 4. Until I retire.

28. Are you:

- 1. Male
- 2. Female

29. How old are you?

- 1. Under 20
- 2. 20-24
- 3. 25-29
- 4. 30-34
- 5. 35-39
- 6. 40-49
- 7. 50-59
- 8. 60 or over.

30. How many years of formal school education did you complete? (starting with primary school; count only the number of years each course should officially take, even if you spent less or more years on it; if you took part-time or evening courses, count the numbers of years the same course would have taken you full-time).

1. 10 years or less
2. 11 years
3. 12 years
4. 13 years
5. 14 years
6. 15 years
7. 16 years
8. 17 years
9. 18 years or more

31. Which kind of work do you do?

- a. I am a manager (that is, I have at least one hierarchical subordinate) – go to f.
- b. I am not a manager and I work most of the time in an office – go to e.
- c. I am not a manager and I do not work most of the time in an office – go to d.
- d. If you are not a manager and you do not work most of the time in an office, what do you do:
 1. Work for which normally no vocational training, other than on-the-job training, is required (unskilled or semi-skilled work).
 2. Work for which normally up to four years of vocational training is required (skilled worker, technician, non-graduate engineer, nurse, etc.)
 3. Work for which normally a higher-level professional training is required (graduate engineer, doctor, architect, etc.)
- e. If you are not a manager and you work most of the time in an office, what do you do:
 4. Work for which normally no higher-level professional training is required (clerk, typist, secretary, non-graduate accountant).
 5. Work for which normally a higher-level professional training is required (graduate accountant, lawyer, etc.).
- f. If you are a manager, are you:
 6. A manager of people who are not managers themselves (that is, a first-line manager)
 7. A manager of other managers.

32. What is your nationality? _____

33. And what was your nationality at birth (if different from your present nationality)? _____

Note: Adapted from Hofstede (1980) with permission from the author.

APPENDIX G
ORIGINAL MOTIVATION ITEMS OF THE JDS

APPENDIX G

ORIGINAL MOTIVATION ITEMS OF THE JDS

Internal Work Motivation (JDS)

How much do you agree with this statement?

1 = Strongly disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Disagree slightly

4 = Neutral

5 = Agree slightly

6 = Agree

7 = Agree strongly

1. My opinion of myself goes up when I do this job well.
2. I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well.
3. I feel bad and unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly on the job.
4. My own feelings generally are not affected much one way or the other by how well I do on this job.
5. Most people on this job feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when they do the job well.
6. Most people on this job feel bad or unhappy when they find that they have performed the work poorly.

APPENDIX H
EMAIL PROPOSAL TO MANAGERS

APPENDIX H

Email Proposal to Hotel Managers in English

Dear _____:

I am a Hotel Administration master student at the University of Nevada, La Vegas. In order to write my thesis I need your cooperation. The development of tourism in Brazil has been one of president Fernando Henrique Cardoso's priorities and much has been conquered by the hotel industry in the Northeast and Southeast of Brazil in the past eight years. The opening of new hotels has generated thousands of new jobs and the tourism industry in Brazil now shows signs of a prosperous future. The vision of a promising Brazilian tourism industry is the reason why I came back to Brazil to collect data for my thesis. It would be easier and cheaper to stay in the United States and write a study about the hotel industry in Las Vegas. Such study would be of no help for my professional future. My future is here in Brazil and the world needs to read more about our country and our people.

My thesis is a cultural study comparing the Northeast and Southeast regions of Brazil. Many researchers in the area of Organizational Behavior and Human Resources have emphasized the importance of culture in the workplace. Business people all over the world have certainly heard some kind of failure story about expatriated managers who lacked cultural training. If cultural differences among countries are important, the same applies to cultural differences within the same country. Writers have described the Northeast as "a country within a country." If socio-economic factors such as GDP, literacy rate, and unemployment rate are some of the factors that influence culture; it is

fair to expect the regions in Brazil will differ culturally.

Culture is a reflection of the values in a society. In Brazil there is this pre-conceived idea that people in the Southeast work harder and value money more than others whereas in the Northeast people prefer to have more free time for themselves. In the Southeast people are always in a hurry whereas in the Northeast the pace of life is slower. If culture is a reflection of the values in a society, these values will also impact the motivation of the employees in this society. Will our managers be able to establish the same reward programs for both regions? How will these cultural differences impact service standards and performance in both regions? Will the training needs be the same?

To answer these questions will be of great help to managers in both regions so that they can learn how to motivate their employees and maximize their performance. The hotel industry is characterized by high turnover, a big challenge imposed to managers. Our product is service. We sell an experience and this experience depends 100% on our employees. Knowing how culture influences motivation may be the key to our success.

My study seeks to identify the cultural differences between the two regions and how they affect motivation. In order to do so I am using two field-tested questionnaires created by highly recognized researchers. Dr. Hofstede created the VSM (Values Survey Module) and Drs. Hackman and Oldham created the JDS (Job Diagnostic Survey), from which I took the six items to measure intrinsic motivation. The copyright for both questionnaires was obtained from the authors for this study and both questionnaires have been widely used in research all over the world with a reliability index of over 80%.

If there is interest on your part, I would like to invite your hotel to participate in my

study. I would go to your property and would administer the survey to all of your employees who are willing to participate. There would be no cost at all to you. The survey is voluntary and confidential. It can be answered in 20 minutes at the hotel or at home. The results of the study for your hotel will be offered to you at no cost and a copy of the thesis will be given to you in June of 2003.

As you may know, the laws for protection of human subjects are very strict in the United States. This research was approved by the Office for the Protection of Human Subjects of the university. If willing to participate in the study, the name of your hotel may be kept confidential if you so wish. The final results of the study will not contain data about each individual hotel, but results for each region as a whole.

My visit to your hotel would be scheduled at your convenience. If there are any doubts or concerns about your participation, my intentions, study methodology, importance of the study, or my qualifications, feel free to contact me by email or phone or my professor directly at UNLV. My advisor's name is Dr. Gail Sammons, and her telephone number is (702) 895-4462. Her email address is sammons@ccmail.nevada.edu.

Only with your cooperation the success of my research will be possible. A copy of the questionnaire is attached for your evaluation.

Sincerely,

Ana Cláudia Quadros Gomes

APPENDIX H

Email Proposal to Hotel Managers in Portuguese

Prezado _____:

Sou aluna do curso de Pós-graduação em Administração Hoteleira da Universidade de Las Vegas, Nevada. Para concluir minha tese, necessito de sua cooperação. O desenvolvimento do turismo no Brasil tem sido uma das prioridades do governo Fernando Henrique Cardoso, e muitos avanços foram alcançados no setor hoteleiro nas regiões do Sudeste e do Nordeste nestes últimos oito anos. A abertura de novas redes hoteleiras no país gerou milhares de empregos, e a indústria do turismo no Brasil hoje enseja expectativas sólidas de um futuro de prosperidade. A perspectiva de que a nossa indústria turística possa finalmente vir a ser grande fonte de contribuição para economia do país foi a razão pela qual optei por voltar ao Brasil para colher os dados para minha tese. Seria muito mais fácil e barato obter a colaboração de hotéis em Las Vegas para a minha tese, mas de nada me adiantaria aprender sobre as necessidades da indústria hoteleira nos Estados Unidos. Aqui está o meu futuro profissional, e o mundo precisa ler mais sobre o nosso país e a nossa gente.

Minha tese propõe um estudo de avaliação cultural comparativo entre as regiões do Sudeste e do Nordeste. Muitos pesquisadores e consultores da área de Comportamento Organizacional e Recursos Humanos vêm há muito enfatizando a importância de se levar em conta as características culturais de cada região na contratação e no treinamento de funcionários. No mundo inteiro, a falta de um treinamento

cultural apropriado para gerentes expatriados foi a causa do fracasso e/ou de altos custos financeiros para muitas cadeias de hotéis que tentaram expandir seu mercado para o exterior.

Se a compreensão das diferenças culturais entre países é fator de extrema importância para o sucesso de empresas no exterior, não se pode ignorar que as diferenças culturais entre duas regiões dentro de um mesmo país de grandes dimensões como o nosso também não o seja. Vários escritores têm se referido a região Nordeste do Brasil como “um país dentro de outro país,” tamanhas as diferenças culturais encontradas entre o Nordeste e as outras regiões. Se fatores sócio- econômicos, como renda per capita, educação, e desemprego, apenas para mencionar alguns, têm grande influência sobre os aspectos culturais de uma sociedade; é sensato prever que as duas regiões de maior desenvolvimento hoteleiro e turístico do Brasil devem apresentar sensíveis diferenças culturais apesar de serem parte do mesmo país (sub-culturas), já que apresentam grande diversidade sócio- econômica.

Aspectos culturais são reflexos dos valores de uma sociedade. No Brasil criou-se a imagem de que no Sudeste as pessoas valorizam mais o dinheiro, e que no Nordeste as pessoas preferem mais tempo livre para si próprios e suas famílias. No Sudeste estamos todos sempre com muita pressa, já no Nordeste o ritmo é mais lento. Se cultura é reflexo dos valores de uma sociedade, esse valores também terão grande impacto sobre a motivação dessa sociedade para trabalhar. Será que nossos gerentes vão poder estabelecer as mesmas práticas de remuneração e sistema de recompensa para os empregados de hotéis em regiões diferentes no Brasil?

Como essas diferenças culturais vão afetar o atendimento nos hotéis nas duas regiões? As necessidades de treinamento nas duas regiões serão as mesmas? Responder essas perguntas é muito importante para que os gerentes e supervisores de cada região possam saber como motivar seus funcionários a fim de maximizar seu potencial de trabalho. A setor hoteleiro é um setor marcado pela alta rotatividade de funcionários, o que representa um grande desafio para a gerência. O produto de venda nos hotéis é o serviço. Nós vendemos uma experiência ao cliente, e essa experiência depende 100% dos nossos funcionários. Saber quais são as características culturais que predominam na região do nosso hotel, como essas características diferem de outras regiões, e como afetam a motivação de nossos funcionários, pode ser a chave do nosso sucesso.

Minha tese se propõe a identificar as diferenças culturais entre as duas regiões, e a testar até que ponto, e como, essas diferenças culturais afetam a motivação para trabalhar dos empregados de cada região. Para tanto estou usando dois questionários desenvolvidos por profissionais da mais alta reputação na área de Comportamento Organizacional, atualmente entre os consultores mais consagrados internacionalmente. Doutor Hofstede criou o Values Module Survey (VSM), fruto de seu trabalho de pesquisa nas empresas IBM em 50 países nos anos 80; e os Doutores Hackman e Oldman criaram também nos anos 80 o Job Description Survey (JDS), de onde tirei as seis perguntas usadas em minha tese relacionadas a motivação. Ambos os questionários foram traduzidos e adaptados para o uso no Brasil, e o “copyright” de ambos foi adquirido por mim e pela UNLV para esta tese.

Ambos os questionários são usados no mundo inteiro por pesquisadores e

consultores para estabelecer necessidades de treinamento, e/ou para decisões de promoção e contratação de funcionários; tendo sido por várias vezes atualizados e revisados, e a validade estatística de seus resultados foi comprovada para ambos os instrumentos com uma média acima de 80%, considerada excelente.

Se for de seu interesse, gostaria de convidá-lo, através de seus funcionários, a participar da minha pesquisa. Eu iria até o seu hotel, sem acarretar o menor custo para a sua empresa, e lhe forneceria as cópias dos questionários a serem usados. Os questionários seriam mantidos confidenciais, sem nomes, e podem ser preenchidos em 20 minutos, tanto no hotel como em casa. Os resultados obtidos sobre as características culturais e nível de motivação de seus empregados lhe seriam fornecidos sem custo, além de sugestões para treinamento específicas para seu hotel, com as assinaturas dos quatro professores e consultores de hotelaria da Universidade de Las Vegas que fazem parte do meu comitê de tese. Uma cópia final da minha tese lhe será entregue em Junho de 2003.

Como sabe, as leis para proteção de pessoas e entidades que participam de pesquisas como a minha nos EUA são extremamente rígidas, e minha tese obteve a aprovação do Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (orgão federal oficial de proteção a pessoas que participam de pesquisas); e também da Universidade de Las Vegas, através da Diretoria dos Cursos de Graduação em Administração Hoteleira, que está se responsabilizando pela minha pesquisa. Caso queira participar desse estudo, como os nomes de seus funcionários, o nome de seu hotel poderá também ser mantido confidencial. Os resultados finais da pesquisa não irão comparar os dados finais para cada região como um todo.

A minha visita ao seu hotel seria marcada de acordo com a sua conveniência. Caso haja dúvidas sobre as intenções, metodologia, importância desse estudo ou de minhas qualificações, pode entrar em contato comigo em São Paulo através do e-mail ou telefone marcados no cartão em anexo, ou diretamente com a orientadora da minha tese na Universidade de Las Vegas, Dra. Gail Sammons, através do telefone (702) 895-4462, ou via e-mail sammons@ccmail.nevada.edu.

Só com a sua colaboração será possível o sucesso da minha pesquisa. Em anexo segue cópia do questionário para seu conhecimento.

Agradecida,

Ana Cláudia Quadros Gomes

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