Comparison of Dutch and American Leadership

Practices in a NATO Organization

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MATTHEW E. REAGAN

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Approval

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by

Matthew E. Reagan

Approved by:

Diane M. Dusick

Chair: *Diane Dusick, PhD*   Date 1/20/2009

Member: *Bari Courts, PhD*

Member: *Shanker Menon, PhD*

Certified by:

School Chair: *Freda Turner, PhD*   Date 1/28/07

ABSTRACT

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Northcentral University, January 2009

Current research indicated that there is a need for organizations to help employees in multi-cultural organizations develop cross-cultural awareness. The Leadership Practices Inventory developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003) was used to measure five leadership practices across two independent cultures. The data indicated that (a) a significant difference existed between American and Dutch leaders at Geilenkirchen Air Base in each of the five leadership practices; (b) previously believed cultural differences might not be applicable in all contexts; (c) in the studied populations, the influence of globalization had not resulted in cultural convergence; (d) there was not a set of universal leadership characteristics being exhibited in the populations; and (e) the leadership practices needed and expected by subordinates of each culture might differ based on cultural influences. Prior research indicated that differences between NATO member states existed. This study provided new data that showed specific differences in observed leadership practices between personnel from two NATO member states and provided quantitative evidence that there is a need for more cross-cultural awareness training in NATO.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Every organization, team, family, and individual needs leaders to work at

an optimal level. Koestenbaum (2002) stated, "Everyone is capable of

leadership, and everyone needs it" (p. 199). Northouse (2004) explained that

leadership is a process, and "when leadership is defined in this manner, it

becomes available to everyone" (p. 3). The overarching topic of this study

involved an evaluation of key leadership differences between two cultures. The

leadership practices under evaluation were Kouzes and Posner's (2007) *Five*

Practices of Exemplary Leadership: (a) challenging the process, (b) enabling

others to act, (c) encouraging the heart, (d) inspiring a shared vision, and (e)

modeling the way.

Different factors influence an individual's behaviors and motivations,

including experiences, personality, and culture (Maxwell, 2004; Northouse, 2004;

Robbins & Judge, 2007). In today's rapidly growing global environment, it is

essential for researchers and leaders to evaluate the effects culture has on

leadership practices and adapt their leadership style to the environment

(Albritton, 2007; Clover, 2008; Maitland, 2004; Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002).

Many of today's organizations are multicultural, multinational, multilingual,

and geographically diverse (Bohlander & Snell, 2004; Robbins & Judge, 2007).

This trend goes beyond commercial businesses and is found in other

organizations such as military units. For example, the North Atlantic Treaty

Organization (NATO) is a 26-nation political and military organization. Diversity

has many advantages; however, diversity poses many challenges.

Miscommunication and misunderstandings often accompany diverse cultural

groups (Hong, 2005), which can negate any potential benefits of diversity (Robbins & Judge, 2007). To maximize the benefits of diversity, it is important to research differences in how independent cultures view and evaluate leadership (Aimar & Stough, 2007).

Statement of Problem and Purpose

Many of today's multinational corporations (MNCs) have an insufficient level of cross-cultural awareness to meet the needs of today's global environment (Fish, 2005; Hurn, 2007; Hutchings, 2003; Littrell & Salas, 2005). Littrell and Salas (2005) explained that the cross-cultural training (CCT) offered by many MNCs does not adequately prepare their employees for international assignments. Approximately 40% of MNCs do not offer any CCT (Littrell & Salas, 2005). While 60% of MNCs do offer CCT, Littrell and Salas pointed out that current training effectiveness is insufficient in most cases and that organizations are beginning to realize the cost of low quality CCT. Current training for most MNCs consists of one-day training sessions that do not offer the level of training needed for foreign assignments (Littrell & Salas, 2005).

One important facet of CCT is cultural awareness development (Littrell & Salas, 2005), and a key element of improving cultural awareness is a clear understanding of cultural differences (Fish, 2005; Hurn, 2007; Hutchings, 2003) and cultural intelligence (Triandis, 2006). A lack of cultural awareness is a significant problem for MNCs, this lack adversely influences a leader's ability to manage intercultural conflict and the organization's overall effectiveness

(Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002). Rodsutti and Swierczek's assertions apply to NATO organizations.

Picciano (2007) pointed out (a) NATO organizations need to focus more resources on CCT in order to maximize the effectiveness of multinational operations and (b) there is a lack of cross-cultural awareness in NATO. Picciano found that there is an urgent need for research regarding the multinational character of present-day military operations and that current literature regarding cultural challenges in military operations was inadequately covered in related research and literature. Picciano stated, "It is important to understand how two or more different national contingents operate in practice, and how they can improve their performance in the field" (p. 2).

Picciano (2007) explained that every nation and agency in NATO bring their own (a) political and cultural backgrounds, (b) perceptions, and (c) approaches into NATO operations. These cultural elements, if not properly accounted for, can undermine the mission (Picciano, 2007). Picciano suggested that to overcome the potential negative influences of cultural backgrounds while improving the positive influences, cultural training is required. This study was intended to give NATO organizations information on cultural differences that may help in the development of effective CCT programs.

During their study on global leadership and culture, Dorfman and House (2004) found that there is still a need for more leadership and cultural studies to meet the needs of multinational organizations. While there is literature that covered aspects of culture and leadership, such as Aimar and Stough's (2007)

cultural comparative leadership study and House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta's (2004) GLOBE project, there was still a need for more research that involved the direct evaluation of differences between cultures. Dorfman and House suggested that there is a need for more research that looks at the subtle nuances, differences, and mechanisms by which culture works in relation to leadership. This study was designed to look at specific leadership differences between two cultures.

The purpose of this quantitative study was to evaluate the differences in leadership practices exhibited by two cultures using Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership. This study may give leaders, managers, and employees knowledge about leadership differences that could help them lead in a multinational organization. In addition, this study could help organizations in the development of effective CCT programs. The purpose of the study was to evaluate the differences in Kouzes and Posner's five leadership practices between American and Dutch personnel at Geilenkirchen Air Base, Germany.

Significance of the Study

Organizational leaders need a formal and clear understanding on how culture influences individual behavior, attitudes, and perceptions to succeed in today's global environment (Aimar & Stough, 2007; Robbins & Judge, 2002). A primary purpose of this study was to provide multinational organizations information that can help improve individual and organizational cross-cultural knowledge. There are several potential benefactors of this study: (a) human

resource managers, (b) assignment personnel, (c) training managers, and (d) individual leaders. While the scope of the study was focused on a NATO organization regarding five specific leadership practices, the results may encourage future research in other industries involving various leadership practices and behaviors.

Research studies conducted by Aimar and Stough (2007), Albritton (2007), and Gilkey (2005) highlight the role culture plays on leadership behaviors. Each of these researchers pointed to data indicating that culture plays a role in influencing leadership and organizational behaviors. Understanding that culture influences leadership is a start, but more information regarding cultural differences is needed to help improve leadership effectiveness (Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002). This study was designed to provide information that may help NATO and other industry leaders improve their effectiveness.

Littrell and Salas (2005) pointed out that there is a lack of cross-cultural awareness and training throughout many MNCs. Likewise, Picciano (2007) suggested that there is a lack of CCT and cross-cultural awareness throughout NATO. This study is unique as it is an evaluation of differences in leadership practices between two cultures in a NATO environment. Based on extensive research of online databases, including (a) ProQuest, (b) EBSCOhost, and (c) FirstSearch databases, there are no known studies that evaluate key leadership practices between two cultures in a NATO military environment. Various related terminology was used to conduct the database queries. A sample of terms used for the queries includes (a) leadership, (b) culture, (c) NATO, (d) cross-cultural,

(e) leader, and (f) training. Picciano's research focused on cross-cultural challenges facing NATO operations and the research was not an evaluation of specific leadership differences between cultures. This study was designed to help fill the information gap involving NATO cross-cultural knowledge.

Background and Significance of the Problem

Matveev and Mitler (2004) pointed out several challenges facing multicultural teams: (a) cultural awareness, (b) establishing rapport, (c) effective communication and coordination, (d) ensuring transparency, (e) effective team development, and (f) selecting an appropriate conflict management strategy. Awareness of cultural differences can influence a leader's ability to manage intercultural conflict and the organization's overall effectiveness (Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002). Rodsutti and Swierczek explained that the ability to be effective in a multicultural environment is directly linked to the individual's level of cultural awareness. Fish (2005), Hurn (2007), Hutchings (2003), and Littrell and Salas (2005) pointed out that a key problem for many MNCs is a lack of cross-cultural awareness, and effective cross-cultural training (CCT) is needed to overcome potential intercultural inadequacies.

The lack of cross-cultural awareness or data regarding cultural differences is prevalent in a variety of professions and organizations, including (a) telecommunications (Dickson, Hartog, & Mitchelson, 2003), (b) higher education (Albritton, 2007), and (c) multinational military alliances (Picciano, 2007). Many leaders, managers, and employees in multinational organizations have an insufficient level of cross-cultural awareness to meet the needs of their

environment (Fish, 2005; Hurn, 2007; Hutchings, 2003). During their research on CCT, Littrell and Salas (2005) found that to have a sufficient level of cross-cultural awareness, an individual needs to be in "possession of the cross-cultural knowledge needed to determine which option for dealing with various situations will be the most culture-appropriate response" (p. 312). Littrell and Salas suggested that one reason for insufficient levels of cross-cultural awareness is that many multi-national corporations (MNCs) do not offer CCT, or the training they do offer is inadequate.

Despite reports indicating there has been a drop in the number of foreign assignments after September 11, 2001, Littrell and Salas (2005) discovered that the number of expatriates continues to grow. The increasing number of foreign assignments and the high financial costs of overseas assignments are causing many MNCs to recognize the need for better CCT (Wang & Hinrichs, 2005). Additionally, success in overseas assignments is often contingent upon the quality of the CCT the expatriate received (Hurn, 2007; Littrell & Salas, 2005).

Research indicated that the level of cultural diversity has grown and will continue to grow for NATO. In 2004, Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia, and Slovenia, joined the NATO alliance (U.S. Department of State, 2004). In addition, the nations of Georgia (Saakashvili, 2008) and Ukraine ("NATO Summit," 2008) are actively seeking membership into the NATO alliance. Picciano (2007) pointed out that understanding cultural differences and developing cultural awareness is important to improving NATO's military effectiveness due to the diversity of cultures.

Littrell and Salas (2005) explained that for decades cross-cultural researchers have tried to explain to MNCs that CCT is important to the success of expatriates, but that approximately 40% of MNCs still do not offer any CCT. According to Littrell and Salas, the training effectiveness within MNCs that do offer CCT is inadequate, and organizations are realizing the high cost of ineffective CCT programs. Littrell and Salas primarily focused on civilian organizations, but Picciano (2007) explained that NATO, too, has an insufficient CCT program and must invest more resources into the cross-cultural development of personnel from member nations.

Expatriates continue to have trouble in foreign assignments, with 10% to 40% of expatriates returning early from their foreign assignments (Andreason, 2003; Wang & Hinrichs, 2005). Early returns have been expensive for MNCs, with costs ranging from $200,000 to $1.2 million (Wang & Hinrichs, 2005). The costs associated with early returns include (a) compensation, (b) training, (c) development, (d) orientation, and (e) termination (Wang & Hinrichs, 2005). Picciano (2007) explained that the cost for NATO involves mission ineffectiveness, which influences financial resources. The financial cost of poor CCT and personal difficulties for expatriate employees highlights the need for more and better CCT. Expatriate success and effectiveness during foreign assignments is directly influenced by the quality of CCT training received, and an important facet of CCT is cross-cultural awareness training (Littrell & Salas, 2005). A key element of improving cultural awareness is a clear understanding of

cultural differences (Fish, 2005; Hurn, 2007; Hutchings, 2003) and cultural intelligence (Triandis, 2006).

Littrell and Salas (2005) suggested there is a need for more research on the role, effectiveness, application, and composition of CCT initiatives. Littrell and Salas explained that an important part of preparing managers and leaders for international assignments is training for cultural differences. This indicated a need for more research on cultural differences to help organizations develop effective CCT programs.

A study of key leadership differences between two cultures is important to the fields of Leadership and Management studies for several reasons. First, organizational leaders must understand cultural differences to increase effectiveness (Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002). Cultural awareness by all members of an organization is essential to overcoming potential problems in multicultural organizations (Alexander, 2003; Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002). With the growing prevalence of multinational assignments (Littrell & Salas, 2005), there is a recognized need for information that can help improve leadership effectiveness (Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002). The overarching purpose of this study was to gather data that could help NATO improve and develop effective leaders in a cross-cultural environment, and information that can help others understand factors that influence leader effectiveness.

Second, Littrell and Salas (2005) suggested that there is a need for organizations to develop CCT programs. Littrell and Salas pointed out that approximately 40% of MNCs do not offer CCT, and of the MNCs that do, the

effectiveness of most programs is insufficient. This study was intended to provide researchers and organizational leaders with data that can help them build an effective cultural awareness training curriculum. Many leadership researchers indicated that leadership skills can be learned and developed (Bennis, 2003; Koestenbaum, 2002; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Maxwell, 2004; Northouse, 2004). From this perspective, information that can help organizations create better leadership development programs is significant to the fields of leadership and management studies.

Third, many researchers have looked at cultural differences in a broad and generic manner to establish generally acceptable differences between various cultures and are often heavily reliant on Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimension studies (Heijes, 2007). This study was more specific in nature and is designed to evaluate five pre-established leadership practices of two specific cultures. This study was not intended to establish a universal standard of differences but rather is designed to highlight differences in leadership practices and perceptions between Dutch and American leaders within NATO. A review of previous leadership studies and concepts indicated that many researchers believe that there is still a substantial need for leadership research and a need to gather more cross-cultural data (Dorfman & House, 2004). This study was a response to the need for more leadership research and cross-cultural data.

Research Questions

The theory to be tested in this study was that societal culture influences individual leadership behaviors (Aimar & Stough, 2007; Albritton, 2007; Gilkey,

2005; Goelzer, 2003; Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002; Yavas & Rezayat, 2003) as well as perceptions of and approaches to leadership (Robbins & Judge, 2007). The following research questions guided this study. The questions were derived from a desire to understand differences in Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership between two cultures. The five practices are (a) challenging the process, (b) enabling others to act, (c) encouraging the heart, (d) inspiring a shared vision, and (e) modeling the way (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

Research Question 1: To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of challenging the process, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

Research Question 2: To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of enabling others to act, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

Research Question 3: To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of encouraging the heart, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

Research Question 4: To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of inspiring a shared vision, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

Research Question 5: To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of modeling the way, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

Brief Review of Related Literature

This section provides an overview of research that indicated that culture influences leadership behaviors and that successful leadership requires an understanding of how culture influences individual behavior. House, Javidan, Hanges, and Dorfman (2002) summarized the reality of human differences when they stated, "Throughout mankind's history, geography, ethnicity, and political boundaries have helped create distinctions and differences among different peoples. Over time, societies have evolved into groups of people with distinguishable characteristics that set them apart from other human communities" (p. 3).

This section is divided into six subsections: (a) theory, (b) Hoftstede's (2001) cultural dimensions framework, (c) GLOBE project, (d) comparative study, (e) universal characteristics, and (f) cross-cultural training. This brief review of literature is designed to show the importance, need, and applicability of this study.

Theory. The theory that provides the framework for this study was a variation of Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory. Contingency theorists posit that societal culture influences individual leadership behaviors (Aimar & Stough, 2007; Albritton, 2007; Gilkey, 2005; Goelzer, 2003; House et al., 2002; Rodsutti

& Swierczek, 2002; Yavas & Rezayat, 2003), as well as perceptions of and approaches to leadership (House et al., 2002; Robbins & Judge, 2007). Fiedler proposed that leaders' effectiveness is contingent upon the situation and is a product of the relationship between leadership style and situational favorableness. Fiedler stated, "Differences in language and culture between the leader and his members were, therefore, expected to affect to a substantial degree the ability of the leader to influence his group, hence the favorableness of the situation with which he had to deal" (p. 156).

Hofstede's cultural dimensions framework. Many of the researchers who proposed a modification of Fiedler's (1967) Contingency Theory used Hofstede's (2001) Cultural Dimensions Theory as the framework to guide their studies. A few studies that used Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions Theory as a frame include (a) Albritton's (2007) study regarding cultural contingency leadership modeling, (b) Alexander's (2003) study involving the impact of cross-cultural differences in the business environment, and (c) Gilkey's (2005) study of culture-based leadership behaviors in a multinational company. The underlying concept of Hofstede's theory is that there are five cultural dimensions that can help explain how different cultures motivate people and structure organizations: (a) power distance, (b) uncertainty avoidance, (c) identity, (d) gender, and (e) time.

GLOBE project. The GLOBE project is "a survey of thousands of middle managers in food processing, finance, and telecommunications industries. . . . GLOBE compares their cultures and attributes of effective leadership" (House et al., 2002, p. 3). One of the theories tested in the GLOBE project was that

"societal cultural values and practices affect what leaders do" (House et al., 2002, p. 9), which is a main premise to the research in this study. The data collected in the GLOBE project indicated that culture influences the leadership qualities individuals attribute to outstanding leadership (Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges, & Sully de Luque, 2006, p. 911).

Javidan et al. (2006) explained that the data from the GLOBE project indicated that there are universally desired and refuted leadership qualities across cultures, and that certain aspects of leadership are culturally contingent. Javidan et al. pointed out that despite an increase in cross-cultural contact between nations, there is still no universally accepted set of leadership qualities. Javidan et al. explained that the cultural dynamics of cross-cultural contact is not restricted to the objective measures of each culture, but that the importance of culture is a product of the subjective perceptions of the members of that culture.

Comparative study. Aimar and Stough (2007) conducted a comparative research study between MBA graduates from Argentina and the United States. The researchers used Kouzes and Posner's (1993) LPI-Self (Leadership Practices Inventory) to measure five leadership practices: (a) challenging the process, (b) enabling others to act, (c) encouraging the heart, (d) inspiring a shared vision, and (e) modeling the way. The researchers compared the scores between MBA respondents from each country. Aimar and Stough found that "a number of significant differences do exist among respondents in the two cultures, with Argentine respondents consistently scoring higher than United States counterparts" (p. 9). Aimar and Stough claimed that the results of the information

could be valuable to "understanding the perceptions concerning leadership patterns between the two countries and useful in managing human resources in the respective countries" (p. 9).

Aimar and Stough (2007) suggested that a significant trend in businesses today is the growing prevalence of the stateless corporation and the interdependent relationships between the world's economies. Aimar and Stough pointed out that the growing trend of cross-cultural interaction is exposing leaders to different cultures with different lifestyles. According to Aimar and Stough, the growing level of cross-cultural exposure has resulted in "a growing need to understand the importance of cross-cultural leadership" (p. 9). Aimar and Stough also stated, "The understanding of comparative leadership practices among cultures is paramount to successfully managing global business activities" (p. 9).

Universal Characteristics. Research indicated that there is a divergence between researchers who believe that there are universal leadership traits shared across cultures and those who believe that there is more of a direct impact of culture on leadership traits (House et al., 2002). The latter argue that specific cultural traditions, norms, and values of a group are "bound to differentiate as much or even more than structural factors between societies" (Lammers & Hickson, 1979, p. 10). Conversely, some researchers believe certain traits transcend cultural boundaries and therefore are universal in nature (Adler, Doktor, & Redding, 1986; Child & Tayeb, 1983; Levitt, 1983; Woodward, 1958; Yavas, 1995).

Kezar, Carducci, and Contreras-McGavin (2006) indicated that there is a growing precedence of researchers who do not believe in universal leadership theories or practices. Kezar et al. explained that concepts of leadership have moved away from focusing on universal characteristics and shifted towards context and situational factors. Research conducted by (a) Aimar and Stough (2007), (b) Albritton (2007), (c) Allen and Hartman (2008), (d) Ozorovskaja (2007), and (e) Sanders and Schyns (2006) are all examples of recent research studies that examined situational, contextual, or contingency leadership concepts.

Cross-cultural training. Littrell and Salas (2005) studied the need for and importance of CCT research and found that CCT was more important today than it ever has been. Littrell and Salas (2005) explained that the number of MNCs has risen despite claims that expatriate employment has decreased since September 11, 2001. Littrell and Salas' research indicated that expatriates continue to experience difficulties with foreign assignments that result in both personal and organizational problems.

Littrell and Salas (2005) found that only 30% of United States (U.S.) MNCs in the early 1990s provided any type of CCT, however, the researchers found that in the early 2000s, the percentage of MNCs offering CCT grew to approximately 60%. Although 60% of MNCs offer CCT, Littrell and Salas discovered that the training was often inadequate to prepare expatriates for foreign assignments. Littrell and Salas explained that the "overall purpose of CCT

is to improve an expatriate's probability of success on the foreign assignment" (p. 308).

Summary. Contingency theorists have found that societal culture influences individual leadership behaviors (Aimar & Stough, 2007; Albritton, 2007; Gilkey, 2005; Goelzer, 2003; House et al., 2002; Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002; Yavas & Rezayat, 2003) and that leadership behavior should be contingent upon the situation (Fiedler, 1967). Some researchers interested in (a) contingency theory, (b) leadership, and (c) culture have utilized Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions studies as a framework for their own, such as Albritton (2007) and Gilkey (2005). The main premise of Hofstede's theory is that there are five cultural dimensions that can help explain how different cultures motivate people and structure organizations: (a) power distance, (b) uncertainty avoidance, (c) identity, (d) gender, and (e) time.

The GLOBE project is another study that yielded data indicating how culture influences leadership practices and behaviors (Javidan et al., 2006). The GLOBE researchers found that leadership is influenced by culture and that there is not a set of universally accepted leadership practices (Javidan et al., 2006). Research conducted by Aimar and Stough (2007) and Gilkey (2005) both support the theory that culture influences leadership behavior.

While there is research that indicated that culture influences leadership practices, research by Littrell and Salas (2005) revealed that there is a lack of CCT amongst many MNCs. Littrell and Salas (2005) pointed out that current CCT is insufficient to meet the needs and expectations of intercultural job

assignments. An important part of a quality CCT program is the curriculum that educates individuals on the various cultural differences they may experience in their new assignment, which will influence the probability of their success during an international assignment (Fish, 2005; Hurn, 2007; Hutching, 2003).

Definition of Terms

For this study, several terms should be defined to help improve the reader's understanding of the research topic: (a) culture, (b) leader, (c) leadership practices, and (d) cross-cultural awareness. Several of these terms may seem common and do not merit defining, however, these terms are critical and central to the research study and include definitions of terms that do not have a universally accepted definition.

Dickson, Hartog, and Mitchelson (2003) pointed out that there is no universally or consistently accepted definition of leadership. With the lack of a consistent definition of leadership, it is difficult to establish a consistently acceptable definition of leader. Consequently, it is important to provide a definition of leadership and leader in order to ensure a proper understanding of how the terms are used in this study. Additionally, Javidan et al. (2006) suggested that there are great variations in the definition of culture, from the very inclusive to the highly focused.

Since Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership are a central tenet of this study, it is important to define each of the five practices. The definitions of the five practices should help frame the concepts of the leadership practices under investigation. The five practices are (a)

challenging the process, (b) enabling others to act, (c) encouraging the heart, (d) inspiring a shared vision, and (e) modeling the way (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

Challenging the process. Challenging the process, one of the five practices in Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership, is defined as the act of encouraging, advocating, and conducting changes from the status quo (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

Cross-cultural awareness. Cross-cultural awareness is defined as having a sensitization, realization, understanding, or knowledge regarding the intricacies of other cultures and of one's own culture (Hurn, 2007).

Culture. Culture is defined as a group that shares collective social norms, customary beliefs, practices, concepts, and perceptions based on nationality, geography, or society (Compact Oxford, 2006; Merriam-Webster, 2004).

Enabling others to act. Enabling others to act, one of the five practices in Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership, is defined as the act of making it "possible for others to do their work" (p. 18).

Encouraging the heart. Encouraging the heart, one of the five practices in Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership, is defined as genuine acts of caring that "uplift the spirits and draw people forward" (p. 19).

Inspiring a shared vision. Inspiring a shared vision, one of the five practices in Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership, is defined as the act of developing, sharing, supporting, defining, and modeling what an organization, individual, or group could be in the future.

Leader. A leader is defined as any person who can mobilize and encourage, not force, others into achieving their best (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

Leadership. Leadership is the ability of an individual to mobilize, influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute to and strive for the success of their organization or group's shared aspirations and goals (Dorfman & House, 2004; Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

Leadership practices. Leadership practices are defined as the customary behaviors and approaches of exemplary leaders as described by Kouzes and Posner (2007), which are (a) challenging the process, (b) enabling others to act, (c) encouraging the heart, (d) inspiring a shared vision, and (e) modeling the way.

Modeling the way. Modeling the way, one of the five practices in Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership, is defined as the act of aligning one's actions in a manner that exhibits the desired and publicized expectations of the individual and organization (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

Highlights and Limitations of Methodology

A primary assumption in this study involved the validity and reliability of the LPI to accurately measure the defined leadership practices. This assumption is based on Kouzes and Posner's (2002) research regarding the validity and reliability of the LPI. In addition, Leong's (1995) research indicated that the LPI accurately measures Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership. The quantitative research approach was utilized in this study through the employment of a pre-designed survey. There are inherent strengths,

weaknesses, and limitations present in the quantitative research approach (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007; Zikmund, 2003).

A few potential weaknesses of a quantitative approach are (a) random sampling error, (b) systematic error, and (c) nonresponse error (Zikmund, 2003). Another potential weakness is that the categories and questions utilized by the researcher may not reflect the participants' understandings (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). By contrast, strengths to quantitative research include (a) objectivity, (b) statistical reliability, (c) potential for generalization to the studied population, and (d) researchers can measure and control variables (Abusabha & Woelfel, 2003; Creswell, 2003; Pinsonneault & Kraemer, 1993; Trochim & Donnelly, 2007; Zikmund, 2003).

There are two key delimiting factors involved in this study. First, USAF participants were delimited to a time on station of less than 5 years. This delimiting factor was important as organizational culture can influence individual practices, behaviors, and experiences (Buhler, 2002; Ciulla, 2004; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Robbins & Judge, 2007; Tushman & O'Reilly, 2002), which could influence participant responses regarding leader behavior. The second delimiting factor involved the scope of the study. The scope of this study was very specific and limited to a maximum of 120 total participants at Geilenkirchen Air Base, Germany. The scope of the study was established to ensure that the study was manageable based on time and resource availability.

Summary and Conclusions

Research conducted by Fish (2005) and Littrell and Salas (2007) indicated that across many MNCs there is a lack of cross-cultural knowledge. Picciano (2007) explained that NATO organizations, too, lacked cross-cultural knowledge. Littrell and Salas pointed out that organizations needed to construct more effective CCT programs to help improve cultural awareness. An important facet of improving cultural awareness is to highlight and understand cultural differences (Fish, 2005; Hurn, 2007; Hutchings, 2003) and to improve cultural intelligence (Triandis, 2006).

Organizational leaders need a formal and clear understanding on how culture influences individual behavior, attitudes, and perceptions to succeed in today's global environment (Aimar & Stough, 2007; Robbins & Judge, 2002). Research studies conducted by Aimar and Stough (2007), Albritton (2007), and Gilkey (2005) highlight the role culture plays on leadership behaviors. Each of these researchers pointed to data that indicated culture plays a role in influencing leadership and organizational behaviors.

A study of key leadership differences between two cultures is important for several reasons. First, organizational leaders must understand cultural differences to increase effectiveness (Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002). Cultural awareness by all members of the organization is essential to overcoming potential problems in multicultural organizations (Alexander, 2003; Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002).

Second, Littrell and Salas (2005) indicated a need for organizations to develop CCT programs. Littrell and Salas pointed out that approximately 40% of MNCs do not offer CCT, and of the MNCs that do, the effectiveness of most programs is insufficient. This study was designed with intention of providing researchers and organizational leaders with data that can help build effective cultural awareness training curriculum.

Third, many researchers have looked at cultural differences in a broad and generic manner to establish generally acceptable differences between various cultures and are often heavily reliant on Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimension studies (Heijes, 2007). This study was more specific in nature and designed to evaluate five pre-established leadership practices of two specific cultures. This study was not intended to establish a universal standard of differences but rather is intended to highlight differences in leadership practices and perceptions between Dutch and American leaders within NATO. In order to establish a solid foundation for a study involving leadership differences, it is important to evaluate and review other literature as it relates to this study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter is an in depth review of existing literature as it pertains to this quantitative research study and research problem. This chapter is divided into nine sections: (a) theory, (b) global leadership concepts, (c) Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions framework, (d) GLOBE project, (e) comparative studies, (f) universal characteristics, (g) globalization, (h) cross-cultural training, and (i) leadership practices inventory. This review of the literature is designed to support the importance, need, and applicability of this study.

Theory

A variation of Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory provides the theoretical framework for this study. Contingency theorists posit that societal culture influences individual leadership behaviors (Aimar & Stough, 2007; Albritton, 2007; Gilkey, 2005; Goelzer, 2003; House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002; Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002; Yavas & Rezayat, 2003), as well as perceptions of and approaches to leadership (House et al., 2002; Robbins & Judge, 2007). Fiedler proposed that a leader's effectiveness is contingent upon the situation and is a product of the relationship between leadership style and situational favorableness. Fiedler stated, "Differences in language and culture between the leader and his members were, therefore, expected to affect to a substantial degree the ability of the leader to influence his group, hence the favorableness of the situation with which he had to deal" (p. 156).

Browning (2006) explained that Fiedler and Chemers found that their concept of contingency theory was a "leader-match theory, which means it tries

to match leaders to appropriate situations" (p. 190). Leader-match theory involves finding the right leader for the given context rather than attempting to change the current leader's style. Northouse (2004) suggested, "It is called contingency because it suggests that a leader's effectiveness depends on how well the leader's style fits the context" (p. 109). Gill (2006) pointed out that Fiedler believed that it was easier to change the leader in the situation than change the leader's style to the situation.

Browning (2006) pointed out that situational theorists argue leadership style should be adapted to the given situation, which is different from Fiedler and Chemers' (1984) leader-match concept. While the two theories may differ, both situational theorists and contingency theorists recognize that different situations or context require different approaches to leadership (Browning, 2006; Fiedler, 1967; Gill, 2006; Northouse, 2004; Yukl, 2002). Aimar and Stough (2007) and other researchers have indicated that societal culture influences the situation or context of a leader's environment. Contingency theory and situation theory dictate either that the leader should be changed or that the leader's approach should be changed to fit the situation. Grint (2005), on the other hand, suggested that there are other facets that influence a leader's actions that go beyond conventional contingency theory.

Grint (2005) suggested that leadership behavior is influenced by the reality of the situation. Grint's concept is heavily influenced by social constructivism concepts and theories. From a social constructivism perspective, what is believed to be true, objective, and factual, are all contingent on the reality of the

viewer (Grint, 2005). This perspective implies that the situational factors a leader faces may be contingent upon the subjective realities of that leader, and that the actions of leaders may be an attempt to manipulate the reality of the situation to meet the objectives of the leader (Grint, 2005).

Despite the variations in concepts between Grint's (2005) approach to leadership, contingency theory, and situation theory, each approach supports the concept that leadership style and approaches change depending on the context or situation, or the manipulation of the situation. An examination of these theories reveals that the application of each theory is dependent upon an understanding of the situation or context.

The continuing growth of multinational assignments (Littrell & Salas, 2005) is an example of leaders and employees facing new situations. Knowledge about the situation and cultural differences is important for effective leadership (Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002). Consequently, studies that attempt to uncover situational differences are important to helping individuals and organizations improve their understanding of the role culture plays in leadership behavior. Dorfman and House (2004) stated, "It seems likely that the meaning and importance of leadership vary across cultures, and actions and behaviors are context specific, but a more precise understanding of the subtle nuances and precise mechanisms by which culture works await further research" (p. 66).

Global Leadership Concepts

Concepts, ideas, and perceptions of leadership vary across the globe (Dorfman & House, 2004). This section addresses a few areas regarding global

leadership concepts: (a) definition consensus, (b) predominance of research, and (c) perceptions of leadership.

Definition consensus. The term leadership has varied definitions across cultures and amongst scholars (see Table 1). Dorfman and House (2004) explained that despite extensive research in the field of leadership during the 20th century, there is still "no consensual agreed-on definition of leadership" (p. 54). Stogdill stated that there are "almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (as cited in Kirimi, 2007, p. 165). Despite the fact that many of the established definitions and theories of leadership have been formed in Western countries (Wu, 2006), there is no universally accepted definition of leadership. Yukl (2002) pointed out that the majority of leadership research has been conducted in western societies, primarily the United States, Canada, and Western Europe.

Table 1

Sample of Leadership Definitions

Author(s)	Definition
Batten	"Leadership is a development of a clear and complete system of expectations in order to identify evoke and use the strengths of all resources in the organization the most important of which is people" (as cited in Kirimi, 2007, p. 166).
Bennis	"Leadership is a function of knowing yourself, having a vision that is well communicated, building trust among colleagues, and taking effective action to realize your own leadership potential" (Emiliani, 2008, p. 30)

Table 1 *(Continued)*

Author(s)	Definition
Bryman	"Leadership is the creation of a vision about a desired future state which seeks to enmesh all members of an organization in its net" (as cited in Kirimi, 2007, p. 170).
Drath & Palus	"Leadership is the process of making sense of what people are doing together so that people will understand and be committed" (as cited in Kirimi, 2007, p. 170).
Kouzes & Posner	"Leadership is the art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspirations" (as cited in McLaughlin, 2007, p. 1).
Maxwell	"...leadership is influence, nothing more or less" (Maxwell, 2006, p. 2).
Northouse	"Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2004, p. 3).
Schein	"Leadership is the ability to step outside the culture to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive" (as cited in Kirimi, 2007, p. 170).
Tubbs	Leadership is "influencing others to accomplish organizational goals," (as cited in Tubbs & Schulz, 2006, p. 29)

Predominance of research. While the majority of leadership research has been conducted through the lens of western societies (Dorfman & House, 2004), not all leadership research has been conducted in western cultures. Significant leadership and management research has been conducted in other societies, such as China (Hutchings, 2003), India (Bhal & Ansari, 2006), and Japan (Dorfman & House, 2004). Dorfman and House (2004) pointed out that management and leadership practices and ideas developed from research conducted across the globe have been adopted in different cultures and societies, such as Misumi's research on performance-maintenance theory of leadership in Japan. Despite an adoption of certain leadership and management

techniques across certain cultures, there is still a predominance of western-dominated leadership research (Dorfman & House, 2004).

Dorfman and House (2004) suggested that as a result of western dominance in leadership research, "almost all prevailing theories of leadership and most empirical evidence is North American in character, that is individualistic rather than collectivistic" (p. 56). This phenomenon has created an emphasis on U.S. assumptions regarding leadership. Hofstede (1993) pointed out that there are several idiosyncrasies founded in U.S. management theories that are not shared by management elsewhere: (a) focus on market processes, (b) focus on individualism, and (c) focus on management versus workers.

Perceptions of leadership. Dorfman (2004b) stated, "Readers in many Western nations might be surprised to learn that the extremely positive connotation associated with the word *leadership* is not universal, and some societies have a very skeptical view of leaders and leadership" (p. 49). Dorfman pointed out that perspectives, opinions, and ideas about leadership vary across the globe. Dorfman and House (2004) explained that differences in leadership perspectives have a significant influence on the effectiveness of leaders.

Dorfman and House (2004) stated, "Leadership is an enigma – a puzzle within a puzzle" (p. 51). Leadership concepts that appear to be acceptable, fitting, or right in one circumstance are not always acceptable, fitting, or right in another situation. For example, leadership styles that utilize participation are acceptable and fitting in individualistic Western cultures, but are questionable and potentially ineffective in collectivistic societies (Dorfman, 2004a).

Different cultures view and accept leadership in different manners and the idea of leadership can evoke different responses (Dorfman & House, 2004). The term leadership in American society is often met with positive connotation and is a desirable and highly praised characteristic. This is in contrast to Dutch society, which views the concept of leadership as overvalued (Dorfman & House, 2004). Dorfman and House claimed that Europeans overall "seem less enthusiastic about leadership than do Americans" (p. 55). Dorfman and House suggested that due to the fact that leadership actions, behaviors, attitudes, and perceptions are shaped by cultural context that there is a need for more information that will help leaders practice every day leadership.

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions Framework

Many of the researchers who proposed a modification of Fiedler's (1967) Contingency theory used Hofstede's (2001) Cultural Dimensions theory as the framework to guide their studies. A few studies that used Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions theory as a frame include (a) Albritton's (2007) study regarding cultural contingency leadership modeling, (b) Alexander's (2003) study involving the impact of cross-cultural differences in the business environment, and (c) Gilkey's (2005) study of culture-based leadership behaviors in a multinational company. The underlying concept of Hofstede's theory is that there are five cultural dimensions that can help explain how different cultures motivate people and structure organizations: (a) individualism, (b) long-term orientation, (c) masculinity, (d) power distance, and (e) uncertainty avoidance.

Individualism. The individualism dimension involves the extent to which people are individualists or collectivists (Hofstede, 2001). Individualists value individual freedom, where as collectivists value group harmony (Hofstede, 2001). The individualism scores for the U.S. and the Netherlands (NL) are 91 and 80, respectively (Hofstede, 2003). The scores indicated that Americans have a greater tendency for individualism than members of the Dutch culture.

Long-term orientation. The long-term orientation dimension refers to how a society accepts long or short-term commitment to traditional forward thinking values (Hofstede, 2001). Societies that are long-term oriented value thrift and perseverance, where as short-term oriented societies value respect for tradition, protection of an individual's social standing, and fulfilling social obligations (Hofstede, 2003). The long-term orientation scores for the U.S. and NL are 29 and 44, respectively (Hofstede, 2003). The scores indicated that Dutch society has a stronger affiliation to long-term orientation than American society.

Masculinity. The masculinity dimension focuses on the extent of traditional gender roles, such as power, control, and achievement (Hofstede, 2001). Masculine societies are seen as being more assertive and competitive, where as feminine societies are classified as more caring and modest (Hofstede, 2001). The masculinity scores for the U.S. and NL are 62 and 14, respectively (Hofstede, 2003). These masculinity scores show that Americans have a substantially greater tendency to be assertive and competitive compared to the Dutch. The lower dimension score for the Dutch indicated a greater tendency to be more caring and modest than Americans.

Power distance. The power distance dimension involves the extent to which members of groups, organizations, cultures, and institutions accept and expect that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 2001). Cultures, organizations, and institutions can have high or low-power distance societies (Hofstede, 2001). The central tenet of high power distance situations is respect for status, where as lower power distance situations there is a greater sense of equality (Hofstede, 2001). The power distance scores for the U.S. and NL are 40 and 38, respectively (Hofstede, 2003). This indicated both cultures tend to have roughly the same opinions regarding authority and equality of power.

Uncertainty avoidance. The uncertainty avoidance dimension involves the tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity in a society (Hofstede, 2001). Cultures that are high in uncertainty avoidance minimize uncertain possibilities by developing strict rules and laws that establish an absolute truth (Hofstede, 2001). By contrast, uncertainty-accepting cultures are more tolerant of differing opinions and approaches to the current state. The uncertainty avoidance scores for the U.S. and NL are 46 and 53, respectively (Hofstede, 2003). The scores indicated that the Dutch culture has a slightly lower tolerance for different opinions and uncertainty than the American culture. A scores summary for Dutch and American cultures across all five cultural dimensions is provided in Table 2.

Table 2

Cultural Dimensions scores for American and Dutch Cultures

Dimension	American Scores	Dutch Scores
Individualism	91	80
Long-term orientation	29	44
Masculinity	62	14
Power Distance	40	38
Uncertainty Avoidance	46	53

Note. Adapted from "Geert Hofstede Cultural Dimensions," by G. Hofstede, 2003, retrieved April 21, 2008, from http://www.geert-ofstede.com/hofstede_dimensions .php?culture1=95&culture2=62

Hofstede's (2001) research provides empirical evidence that shows differences in cultural factors. The purpose of this study was to examine if significant differences exist between two cultures across five pre-determined leadership practices. Hofstede's research indicated that there is a possibility that differences would be uncovered, but to what extent and between which practices is unknown based on the data collected in current cultural dimension studies.

GLOBE Project

Project findings. The GLOBE project is "a survey of thousands of middle managers in food processing, finance, and telecommunications industries. . . . GLOBE compares their cultures and attributes of effective leadership" (House et al., 2002, p. 3). One of the theories tested in the GLOBE project was that "societal cultural values and practices affect what leaders do" (House et al., 2002, p. 9), which is a main premise to the research in this study. The main

design of the GLOBE research program was to "further theory development by devising an empirically based theory of cross-cultural leadership in addition to helping managerial leaders by specifying the how, why, what, and where of cultural impacts on leadership processes" (Dorfman & House, 2004, p. 53).

The data collected in the GLOBE project indicated that culture influences the leadership qualities that individuals attribute to outstanding leadership (Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges, & Sully de Luque, 2006, p. 911). While the GLOBE project supported the theory that culture influences behavior, the researchers found that cultural expectations may be ignored in pursuit of other imperatives, such as the need for organizational change (Javidan et al., 2006) or to disrupt the status quo.

Javidan et al. (2006) explained that the data from the GLOBE project indicated that there are universally desired and refuted leadership qualities across cultures, and that certain aspects of leadership are culturally contingent. Javidan et al. pointed out that despite an increase in cross-cultural contact between nations there is still no universally accepted set of leadership qualities. Cultural dynamics of cross-cultural contact is not restricted to the objective measures of each culture, but that the importance of culture is a product of the subjective perceptions of the members of that culture (Javidan et al., 2006).

Hofstede's critique. While the GLOBE project is considered a major and comprehensive international cross-cultural study, it is not without critique. Hofstede (2006) claimed to have several concerns regarding the research conducted in the GLOBE project, a few include (a) U.S.-inspired research versus

research that avoids ethnocentric bias, (b) role of societal versus organizatonal culture, and (c) influence of national wealth on culture. Hofstede (2006) explained that the GLOBE researchers used his cultural dimensions studies as a baseline for the GLOBE project.

Unlike Hofstede's five cultural dimensions, the GLOBE researchers examined nine different dimensions, measured twice. Hofstede (2006) claimed that the number of dimensions studied in the GLOBE project was outside the realm of normal individual capacity for processing information. Hofstede (2006) conducted a re-analysis of the GLOBE research data and concluded that the nine different dimensions could be consolidated into five dimensions, which were very closely aligned to his original five dimensions. Javidan et al. (2006) suggested in response to Hofstede's re-analysis that the data collected in the GLOBE project is statistically reliable and points to cultural dimensions previously undiscovered.

Hofstede (2006) used the educational credentials of the authors and editors of the GLOBE project as an illustration of the U.S. centric approach to the research. Hofstede claimed that the majority of the authors and editors hold degrees in management or psychology from U.S. universities. Hofstede (2006) stated, "GLOBE's network and respondent population were very international, but its project design and analysis still reflected US hegemony" (p. 884). Despite Hofstede's assertion that the GLOBE project was U.S. hegemonic, Javidan et al. (2006) pointed out that the GLOBE project consisted of over 160 scholars from 62 cultures. The scholars were referred to as country co-investigators (CCIs) and

the CCIs had a direct role in the development and design of the entire program (Javidan, et al., 2006).

Another criticism by Hofstede (2006) of the GLOBE project is the interchangeable use of the terms *societal culture* and *organizational culture*. Hofstede referred to his previous cross-national and cross-organizational cultural studies as indicating that national and organizational cultures are two different phenomena and to use the term culture to represent both is misleading. To respond to Hofstede's criticism of the GLOBE project regarding national and organizational culture, Javidan et al. (2006) explained that a re-analysis of Hofstede's research was conducted. Javidan et al. (2006) claimed that Hofstede's interpretation of data regarding differences between societal and organizational culture was faulty.

Hofstede (2006) explained that his own cultural dimensions research indicated that national wealth and culture are correlated across different cultural dimensions. Hofstede claimed that the GLOBE researchers, while cognizant of the impact of national wealth on culture, did not include the influence of national wealth during interpretations of culture in their study. Javidan et al. (2006) pointed to different studies that indicated that culture has a significant influence on national wealth. Javidan (2004) stated, "The relationships among wealth, national culture, and other archival variables are so intertwined that they cannot be easily isolated, and cause and effect relationships, although intuitively appealing, are hard to verify empirically" (p. 117).

Despite several criticisms of the GLOBE project, Hofstede (2006) suggested that the inclusion of his five cultural dimensions points to the thoroughness and professionalism of the researchers in the GLOBE project. Javidan et al. (2006) found that Hofstede's criticisms of the project were valid but mistaken, and that the data and results of the GLOBE project provided other researchers a wider range of options than previously found using only five dimensions of culture. From this perspective, examining cultural differences using Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership extends the range of ideas beyond those specifically addressed in cultural dimensions studies.

Comparative Studies

Argentina and the United States. Aimar and Stough (2007) conducted a comparative research study between MBA graduates from Argentina and the United States. The researchers used Kouzes and Posner's (1993) LPI-Self to measure five leadership practices: (a) challenging the process, (b) enabling others to act, (c) encouraging the heart, (d) inspiring a shared vision, and (e) modeling the way. The researchers compared the scores between MBA respondents from each country. Aimar and Stough found that "a number of significant differences do exist among respondents in the two cultures, with Argentine respondents consistently scoring higher than United States counterparts" (p. 9). Aimar and Stough claimed that the results of the information could be valuable to "understanding the perceptions concerning leadership

patterns between the two countries and useful in managing human resources in the respective countries" (p. 9).

Aimar and Stough (2007) suggested that a significant trend in businesses today is the growing prevalence of the stateless corporation and the interdependent relationships between the world's economies. Aimar and Stough pointed out that the growing trend of cross-cultural interaction is exposing leaders to different cultures with different lifestyles. According to Aimar and Stough, the growing level of cross-cultural exposure has resulted in "a growing need to understand the importance of cross-cultural leadership" (p. 9). Aimar and Stough also stated, "The understanding of comparative leadership practices among cultures is paramount to successfully managing global business activities" (p. 9).

Mexico and the United States. Matviuk's (2006) study was designed to compare leadership behavior expectations between US managers and Mexican managers. Matviuk found that the national cultures of the two studied nations had a significant influence on leadership behavior expectations. Matviuk utilized two instruments in his study, Kouzes and Posner's 1988 LPI and Hofstede's 1994 Values Survey Model. Matviuk conducted a correlation analysis of cultural dimension with leadership behavior expectations and found that there were no strong intercorrelations amongst the variables.

Matviuk's (2006) study focused on Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership. Matviuk concluded that national culture influences leadership expectations in reference to how leaders (a) challenge the process, (b) enable others to act, (c) encourage the heart, (d) inspire a shared

vision, and (e) model the way. In addition, Matviuk found an interaction of gender with culture had a significant effect on the "canonical correlations between cultural dimensions and leadership behavior" (p. 97).

Aimar and Stough's (2007) and Matviuk's (2006) studies indicated and validated that culture directly influences leadership behaviors. While both studies are relevant and applicable to cross-cultural leadership research, both focus on American and South American cultures. There are other studies that look at different cultures, such as Casimir, Waldman, Bartram, and Yang's (2006) research involving Chinese and Australian organizations. While there are cross-cultural studies between the American culture and European cultures, research of online databases has failed to uncover a specific study that involved American and Dutch leaders as conducted in this study. Dorfman and House (2004) advocated that there is a need for more cross-cultural research and that, as more data is collected, more avenues and options for research could be uncovered. A primary purpose of this study was to uncover information about potential differences between cultures, which may lead to better cross-cultural knowledge development, and may uncover potential avenues for future research.

Universal Characteristics

Research indicated that there is a divergence between researchers who believe that there are universal leadership traits shared across cultures and those who believe that there is more of a direct impact of culture on leadership traits (House et al., 2002). The latter argue that specific cultural traditions, norms, and values of a group are "bound to differentiate as much or even more than

structural factors between societies" (Lammers & Hickson, 1979, p. 10). Conversely, some researchers believe certain traits transcend cultural boundaries and are universal in nature (Adler, Doktor, & Redding, 1986; Child & Tayeb, 1983; Levitt, 1983; Woodward, 1958; Yavas, 1995).

Kezar, Carducci, and Contreras-McGavin (2006) indicated that there is a growing precedence of researchers who do not believe in universal leadership theories or practices. Kezar et al. explained that concepts of leadership have moved away from focusing on universal characteristics and shifted towards context and situational factors. Research conducted by (a) Aimar and Stough (2007), (b) Albritton (2007), (c) Allen and Hartman (2008), (d) Ozorovskaja (2007), and (e) Sanders and Schyns (2006) are all examples of recent research studies that examined situational, contextual, or contingency leadership concepts.

Dorfman and House (2004) suggested that there are basic leadership functions that are universally important and applicable, but that culture strongly affects the manner in which the leadership actions are enacted. Due to the perceived relationship between cultural context and leadership behavior, there is a call by some researchers for more information and research. Dorfman and House stated, "Through cross-cultural research, we may determine which aspects of a leadership theory are culturally universal and which are culturally unique" (p. 53).

Globalization

Globalization continues to reshape and challenge organizations and businesses across the globe (Bracken, 2008). Robbins and Judge (2007) pointed out that diversity and globalization are now common factors in organizations today. The influence of globalization can be seen across many industries from agriculture (Effland, Roberts, Normile, & Wainio, 2008) to education (Spring, 2008).

Banks (2008) argued that globalization is having extensive effects on communities and cultures across the globe. The influence of globalization can be seen in leadership concepts. A new term has emerged as a reflection of the importance of the global economy: *Global Leadership*. Global leadership entails influencing others across cultural and national borders (Mobley & Dorfman, 2003).

As with the development of the term global leadership, other ideas have emerged regarding leadership, culture, and globalization. Dorfman and House (2004) explained that there is evidence that supports the concept of cultural convergence. Supporters of the convergence hypothesis postulate that with the growth and extent of international convergence that practices and behaviors across cultures will begin to increase in similarity. Dorfman and House believe that some convergence has and will take place, but also believe that there is still substantial stability in the basic aspects of cultural practices. Hofstede (2001) supported Dorfman and House's position and pointed out that evidence regarding changes to basic cultural values indicated that changes to culture are

very slow and are likely resistant to convergence influences. In addition, Dorfman and House pointed out that there is often a positive affiliation in cultures to maintaining uniqueness, which may encourage the perseverance of their cultural differences.

Bracken (2008) suggested that globalization, advancements in technology, and other factors create turbulence in the business market. Bracken pointed out that today's leaders need new skills to face the challenges of the growing global marketplace. According to Bracken, the development of new global leadership skills can be taught and learned, and that organizations should consider promoting those who have shown an aptitude for the development of global leadership skills. Dorfman and House (2004) explained that the cultural diversity found in multinational organizations presents substantial challenges to the design of effective leadership styles and that more research is needed to help the development of essential leadership skills and styles. Dorfman and House's (2004) call for more research to help organizations identify and develop effective leadership styles and Bracken's (2008) concept that global leadership skills can be taught, support the recommendation and need for CCT.

Cross-cultural Training

Littrell and Salas (2005) studied the need for and importance of CCT research and found that CCT was more important today than it ever has been. Littrell and Salas (2005) found that only 30% of US MNCs in the early 1990s provided any type of CCT, however, the researchers found that in the early 2000s, the percentage of MNCs offering CCT grew to approximately 60%.

Although 60% of MNCs offer CCT, Littrell and Salas discovered that the training was often inadequate to prepare expatriates for foreign assignments. Littrell and Salas explained that the "overall purpose of CCT is to improve an expatriate's probability of success on the foreign assignment" (p. 308).

Matveev and Mitler (2004) pointed out that there are several challenges facing multicultural teams, including (a) cultural awareness, (b) establishing rapport, (c) effective communication and coordination, (d) ensuring transparency, (e) effective team development, and (f) selecting an appropriate conflict management strategy. Awareness of cultural differences can influence a leader's ability to manage intercultural conflict and the organization's overall effectiveness (Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002). Rodsutti and Swierczek explained that the ability to be effective in a multicultural environment is directly linked to the individual's level of cultural awareness.

Many leaders, managers, and employees in multinational organizations have an insufficient level of cross-cultural awareness to meet the needs of their environment (Fish, 2005; Hurn, 2007; Hutchings, 2003). Littrell and Salas (2005) explained that to have a sufficient level of cross-cultural awareness, an individual needs to be in "possession of the cross-cultural knowledge needed to determine which option for dealing with various situations will be the most culture-appropriate response" (p. 312). Littrell and Salas suggested that one reason for insufficient levels of cross-cultural awareness is that many MNCs do not offer CCT or the training they do offer is inadequate.

Despite reports indicating there has been a drop in the number of foreign assignments after September 11, 2001, Littrell and Salas (2005) discovered that the numbers of expatriates continues to grow. The increasing number of foreign assignments and the high financial cost of overseas assignments are causing many MNCs to recognize the need for better CCT. Additionally, success in overseas assignments is often contingent upon the quality of the CCT the expatriate received (Hurn, 2007; Littrell & Salas, 2005).

Approximately 40% of MNCs do not offer any CCT (Littrell & Salas, 2005). While 60% of MNCs do offer CCT, Littrell and Salas pointed out that current training effectiveness is insufficient in most cases and that organizations are beginning to realize the cost of poor CCT. Current training for most MNCs consist of one-day training sessions that do not offer the level of training needed for foreign assignments (Littrell & Salas, 2005).

Expatriates continue to have trouble in foreign assignments, with 10% to 40% of expatriates returning early from their foreign posts (Andreason, 2003; Wang & Hinrichs, 2005). Early returns have been costly for MNCs, with costs ranging from $200,000 to $1.2 million (Wang & Hinrichs, 2005). The financial cost of poor CCT and personal difficulties for expatriate employees highlights the need for more and better CCT. Expatriate success and effectiveness during foreign assignments is directly influenced by the quality of CCT training received, and an important facet of CCT is cross-cultural awareness training (Littrell & Salas, 2005). A key element of improving cultural awareness is a clear

understanding of cultural differences (Fish, 2005; Hurn, 2007; Hutchings, 2003) and cultural intelligence (Triandis, 2006).

Littrell and Salas (2005) suggested there is a need for more research on the role, effectiveness, application, and composition of CCT initiatives. According to Littrell and Salas, an important part of preparing managers and leaders for international assignments is training for cultural differences. This indicated a need for more research on cultural differences to help organizations develop effective CCT programs.

To become an efficient and effective leader in today's global environment, it is essential for leaders to embrace and understand the value of diversity (Robbins & Judge, 2007) and to learn to appreciate the cultural difference of their constituents. This study was intended to give MNCs, NATO, and other cross-cultural organizations insight into the differences on how two cultures exhibit specific leadership practices. Improving cultural awareness in multicultural organizations is important to maximizing effectiveness (Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002). Organizational leaders who are developing CCT programs can utilize this study to help build a relevant and effective program, which requires data on cross-cultural differences (Littrell & Salas, 2005).

NATO cross-cultural training. Picciano (2007) pointed out that there is a lack of CCT and awareness in many NATO organizations. Picciano conducted case study research involving (a) Turkish-Dutch militaries in Kosovo, (b) Canadian-Belgian and German-Dutch militaries in Afghanistan, (c) the International Force for East Timor, and (d) the Kabul International Airport

Operation. Through his study, Picciano found that cultural training was essential to mission effectiveness. Picciano explained, "The most effective coalitions are those that integrate resources and capabilities rather than just focus on the assimilation of personnel" (p. 11).

Picciano (2007) explained that there are different elements to consider in multi-cultural environments: (a) political and cultural backgrounds, (b) perceptions, and (c) approaches to behavior. These elements can have a negative influence on mission effectiveness if they are not considered during planning and training (Picciano, 2007). Picciano suggested that the negative impact of cultural influences can be mitigated by providing cultural training. Picciano pointed out that there is a strategic need for NATO to develop cultural training for personnel from member nations. Picciano stated,

> In a globalized world, multinational operations are of vital importance, even though few studies have been made on the cross-cultural challenges of such missions and their potential consequences. A deeper and broader understanding of such issues is required, in order to provide guidelines for future successful multinational operations. It is neither wise nor productive simply to put different armed forces together without taking into account the cultural implications they bring to the field of operation. (p. 2)

Picciano's statement draws attention to the fact that there is a need for NATO leaders to garner a deeper and broader understanding of cultural issues that can affect personal and group behavior. This study should provide NATO leaders

with information that may help them develop a deeper and broader understanding on how culture can influence leadership practices.

Leadership Practices Inventory

The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) was developed by leadership researchers James Kouzes and Barry Posner and based on extensive quantitative and qualitative research (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). The authors of the LPI used a triangulation of qualitative and quantitative research studies and methods to develop the LPI. Based on in-depth interviews and case studies regarding personal-best leadership experiences the authors were able to generate a conceptual framework that included five leadership practices. The five leadership practices Kouzes and Posner identified were (a) challenging the process, (b) enabling others to act, (c) encouraging the heart, (d) inspiring a shared vision, and (e) modeling the way.

Kouzes and Posner (2002) used the actions involved in each of the five practices to develop behavioral statements. In the process of developing the LPI using the established behavioral statements, Kouzes and Posner employed several iterative psychometric processes. Kouzes and Posner stated,

> The Leadership Practices Inventory has sound psychometric properties. Internal reliabilities for the five leadership practices (both Self and Observer versions) are very good and are consistent over time. The underlying factor structure has been sustained across a variety of studies and settings, and support continues to be generated for the instrument's construct and concurrent validity. For the most part, findings are relatively

consistent across people, gender, ethnicity and cultural backgrounds, as

well as across various organizational characteristics. (p. 18)

The LPI has "been administered to over 350,000 manages and non-managers

across a variety of organizations, disciplines, and demographic backgrounds"

(Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 2). Areas where the LPI has been administered

include (a) banking, (b) higher education, (c) military organizations, (d) religious

organizations, (e) athletic coaching, (f) law enforcement, and (g) medical

organizations (Bieber, 2003; Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Along with extensive case study research, Kouzes and Posner (2002)

used in-depth interviews from a wide variety of disciplines and industries around

the world in the development and validation of the LPI and five leadership

practices. The results of the original research and ongoing research have shown

consistency in the instrument and five practices for over two decades (Kouzes &

Posner, 2002). The authors developed the LPI by creating sets of statements

that described each of the leadership behaviors and actions. The original LPI

was a five-point Likert-scale survey that was reformulated in 1999 to a ten-point

Likert-scale survey (Kouzes and Posner, 2002). Kouzes and Posner explained

that the analysis and refinement of the LPI continues and involves a database of

over 100,000 respondents.

The current version of the LPI is a thirty question, ten-point Likert-scale

survey, with six questions for measuring each of the Five Practices of Exemplary

Leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). There are two main versions of the LPI:

LPI-Self and LPI-Observer. In addition, there are subsequent forms of the LPI

based on population construct of the study participants: (a) LPI-Individual Contributor, (b) LPI-Student, and (c) LPI-TEAM (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). The LPI-Observer version was utilized as the survey instrument for this study.

Summary

Beginning with Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory through the call for better CCT, there are four consistent underlying themes. First, research continues to prove that the context of a situation, including culture, can have a direct impact on the behaviors and actions of leaders (Aimar & Stough, 2007; Alexander, 2003; Dorfman, 2004a; Dorfman & House, 2004; Gilkey, 2005). Fiedler's contingency theory provides the framework for studies that examine contextual factors in relation to other variables. Dorfman and House (2004) explained that concepts and ideas regarding leadership are contextual, and that beliefs regarding leadership vary across cultures.

Second, there are several major studies that look at cultural differences, such as the GLOBE project and Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions studies, but there is still a need for more information. Critiques of different studies indicated that there is a lack of consensus regarding the range of options for cross-cultural research, and disagreement involving the conclusions drawn from the varying perspectives. The review of other cultural studies indicated that there is still a need for studies that can help discover hidden options and concepts regarding the influence and impact of culture on individual and organizational behavior.

Third, there is no recognized set of leadership traits or styles that are accepted across every culture (Dorfman & House, 2004; Hofstede, 2001; Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006). Consequently, there is a need to gather information about cultural differences and influences. This information is needed to help organizations meet the challenges of diversity and assist individuals and groups in the development of effective leadership styles (Dorfman & House, 2004).

Finally, a consistent theme across the reviewed literature is the idea of cultural differences. The concept of cultural differences was examined in most areas, including (a) theory, (b) global leadership concepts, (c) Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions study, (d) GLOBE project, (e) comparative studies, (f) universal characteristics, (g) globalization, and (h) cross-cultural training. Each area pointed to the idea that there are cultural differences that influence behavior and that there is still a need for more information to help in the development of cross-cultural awareness.

Littrell and Salas' (2005) research pointed out that there is a lack of sufficient cross-cultural awareness in many MNCs. Picciano (2007) explained that a lack of cross-cultural awareness is prevalent in NATO. Fish (2005), Hurn (2007), and Hutchings (2003) explained that a key requirement to developing cross-cultural awareness was to understand cultural differences. Littrell and Salas suggested CCT as a means of developing cross-cultural awareness. The overall purpose of this study was to uncover cultural differences between two cultures and to provide data that may help organizations develop effective CCT

programs. The LPI survey was the instrument used in this study to determine if significant differences occur between the two identified cultures across the five predefined leadership practices.

Conclusion

Dorfman and House (2004) and other researchers have concluded that there is a need for additional cross-cultural leadership research. This study was a response to the need for more research. In order to ensure that this study provided valid results, it was important to establish a clear, logical, and systematic approach to the research procedures. The next chapter outlines in detail the methodology and procedures for this research study.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Overview

The information in chapter 3 is provided to establish the structure of this

quantitative research study as it is designed to answer the research questions

and address the research problem. This chapter includes (a) a restatement of the

problem and purpose, (b) the research questions, (c) the hypotheses, (d) a

description of the research design, (e) the operational definitions of the variables,

(f) the descriptions of materials and instrument, (g) the selection of participants,

(h) the procedures, (i) a discussion of data processing, (j) the methodological

assumptions, limitations, and delimitations, and (k) ethical assurances.

Restatement of the Problem and Purpose

Many of today's MNCs have an insufficient level of cross-cultural

awareness to meet the needs of today's global environment (Fish, 2005; Hurn,

2007; Hutchings, 2003; Littrell & Salas, 2005). Littrell and Salas (2005) explained

that the CCT offered by many MNCs does not adequately prepare their

employees for international assignments. Approximately 40% of MNCs do not

offer any CCT (Littrell & Salas, 2005). While 60% of MNCs do offer CCT, Littrell

and Salas pointed out that current training effectiveness is insufficient in most

cases and that organizations are beginning to realize the cost of poor CCT.

Current training for most MNCs consist of one-day training sessions that do not

offer the level of training needed for foreign assignments (Littrell & Salas, 2005).

One important facet of CCT is cultural awareness development (Littrell &

Salas, 2005), and a key element of improving cultural awareness is a clear

understanding of cultural differences (Fish, 2005; Hurn, 2007; Hutchings, 2003) and cultural intelligence (Triandis, 2006). A lack of cultural awareness is a significant problem for MNCs, this lack adversely influences a leader's ability to manage intercultural conflict and the organization's overall effectiveness (Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002). Rodsutti and Swierczek's assertions apply to NATO organizations.

Picciano (2007) pointed out (a) NATO organizations need to focus more resources on CCT in order to maximize the effectiveness of multinational operations and (b) there is a lack of cross-cultural awareness in NATO. Picciano found that there is an urgent need for research regarding the multinational character of present-day military operations and that current literature regarding cultural challenges in military operations was inadequately covered in related research and literature. Picciano stated, "It is important to understand how two or more different national contingents operate in practice, and how they can improve their performance in the field" (p. 2).

Picciano (2007) explained that every nation and agency in NATO bring their own (a) political and cultural backgrounds, (b) perceptions, and (c) approaches into NATO operations. These cultural elements, if not properly accounted for, can undermine the mission (Picciano, 2007). Picciano suggested that to overcome the potential negative influences of cultural backgrounds while improving the positive influences, cultural training is required. This study was intended to give NATO organizations information on cultural differences that may help in the development of effective CCT programs.

During their study on global leadership and culture, Dorfman and House (2004) found that there is still a need for more leadership and cultural studies to meet the needs of multinational organizations. While there is literature that covered aspects of culture and leadership, such as Aimar and Stough's (2007) cultural comparative leadership study and House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta's GLOBE project, there is still a need for more research that involves the direct evaluation of differences between cultures. Dorfman and House suggested that there is a need for more research that looks at the subtle nuances, differences, and mechanisms by which culture works in relation to leadership. This study was designed to look at specific leadership differences between two cultures.

The purpose of this quantitative study was to evaluate the differences in leadership practices exhibited by two cultures using Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership. This study may give leaders, managers, and employees knowledge about leadership differences that could help them lead in a multinational organization. In addition, this study could help organizations in the development of effective CCT programs. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the differences in Kouzes and Posner's five leadership practices between American and Dutch personnel at Geilenkirchen Air Base, Germany.

Statement of Research Questions

The following questions were derived from a desire to understand differences in Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary

Leadership between two cultures. The five practices are (a) challenging the process, (b) enabling others to act, (c) encouraging the heart, (d) inspiring a shared vision, and (e) modeling the way (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The variables that were investigated in this study were directly aligned to the research questions and subsequent hypotheses.

To answer the five research questions data was collected using the LPI survey (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Research participants answered 30 questions, with 6 questions related to each of the five leadership practices under investigation. A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted on the data to determine to what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit each of the five leadership practices.

Research Question 1: To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of challenging the process, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

Research Question 2: To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of enabling others to act, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

Research Question 3: To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of encouraging the heart, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

Research Question 4: To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of inspiring a shared vision, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

Research Question 5: To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of modeling the way, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

Hypotheses

The hypotheses are aligned to the variables under investigation, as well as the research questions. The variables that were analyzed to test the hypotheses include the independent variable, culture (X_1), and Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership: (a) challenging the process (Y_1), (b) enabling others to act (Y_2), (c) encouraging the heart (Y_3), (d) inspiring a shared vision (Y_4), and (e) modeling the way (Y_5). Each null and alternative hypothesis addresses the independent variable and one of the five dependent variables.

$H1_0$: There is no significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of challenging the process, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

$H1_A$: There is a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of challenging the process, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

$H2_0$: There is no significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of enabling others to act, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

$H2_A$: There is a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of enabling others to act, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

$H3_0$: There is no significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of encouraging the heart, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

$H3_A$: There is a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice encouraging the heart, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

$H4_0$: There is no significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of inspiring a shared vision, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

$H4_A$: There is a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of inspiring a shared vision, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

$H5_0$: There is no significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of modeling the way, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

$H5_A$: There is a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of modeling the way, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

The independent variable in this study was culture (X_1), as measured by the responses of Dutch or American participants. In regard to this study, individuals identified as members of the Dutch culture are those who are members of the Royal Netherlands Air Force and individuals identified as members of the American culture are those who are members of the United States Air Force. The dependent variables in the study are (a) challenging the process (Y_1), (b) enabling others to act (Y_2), (c) encouraging the heart (Y_3), (d) inspiring a shared vision (Y_4), and (e) modeling the way (Y_5). Each research question addresses the independent variable and one of the five dependent variables.

Description of Research Design

Quantitative research involves the utilization of predetermined instrument-based questions that gather attitudinal, observational, and census data (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007; Zikmund, 2003). The data collected in this study was analyzed using inferential statistics to allow for potential generalizations about the populations being studied. A quantitative approach is specifically appropriate for this study based on the purpose of the study and the research problem.

The individual leadership practices that were evaluated in this study are those of Dutch and American leaders at Geilenkirchen Airbase, Germany. The survey participants were the subordinates of randomly selected American

leaders and all of the eligible Dutch population. The American leaders were selected based on specific criteria and stratification parameters. Based on a random selection of leaders, one subordinate for each leader was randomly selected and asked to participate in the study. Each subordinate was in the respective leader's national chain of command.

Survey design. Pinsonneault and Kraemer (1993) explained that the intent of surveys is to construct quantitative descriptions of the specified aspects of the studied population. Analysis of survey data is generally concerned with relationships between variables or generalization of findings to a predefined population (Pinsonneault & Kraemer, 1993). A survey approach for this studied was used and allowed for the quantification of the leadership practices that were analyzed and compared.

Data collection. This study utilized a web-based survey provided through the BOSS website. Web-based surveys may have provided additional advantages to this study. McDonald & Adam (2003) indicated that the "turnaround times are frequently reported to be much faster for online surveys" (p. 88). An important advantage to this approach is flexibility and because of the current level of operations in NATO, respondents needed flexibility as to when and where they could respond to the survey.

Analysis. A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to calculate and compare the means of each culture across the five leadership practices to determine if significant differences exist. Descriptive statistics for the frequency of distributions of demographic variables and descriptive statistics for the

dependent variables by group are included. This is an appropriate approach based on the purpose of the study, research questions, hypotheses, and research variables. The research questions and hypotheses are directly linked to the need to determine if differences exist between the two cultures.

Operational Definition of Variables

The independent variable in this study was culture, which was used for demographic purposes only. The independent variable culture was used to identify sample participants for the study. The dependent variables in the study were Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership: (a) challenging the process, (b) enabling others to act, (c) encouraging the heart, (d) inspiring a shared vision, and (e) modeling the way.

Culture. The independent nominal variable (X_1) may have the nominal values of Dutch or American as identified using demographic data provided by the relevant base agencies.

Challenging the process. Dependent variable (Y_1), the leadership practice, challenging the process, one of the five practices in Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership, was measured using the LPI survey. The ordinal level, Likert-style questions were summed to create a new ordinal-level scale. The LPI is a 30-question Likert-type scale survey with six questions designed to measure the practice of challenging the process with a rating scale of 1-10. The internal reliability of challenging the process, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, was found to be .90 for direct reports (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Enabling others to act. Dependent variable (Y_2),the leadership practice, enabling others to act, one of the five practices in Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership, was measured using the LPI survey. The ordinal level, Likert-style questions were summed to create a new ordinal-level scale. Six questions on the LPI survey are designed to measure the practice of enabling others to act with a rating scale of 1-10. The internal reliability of enabling others to act, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, was found to be .89 for direct reports (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Encouraging the heart. Dependent variable (Y_3), the leadership practice, encouraging the heart, one of the five practices in Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership, was measured using the LPI survey. The ordinal level, Likert-style questions were summed to create a new ordinal-level scale. Six questions on the LPI survey are designed to measure the practice of encouraging the heart with a rating scale of 1-10. The internal reliability of enabling others to act, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, was found to be .93 for direct reports (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Inspiring a shared vision. Dependent variable (Y_4), the leadership practice, inspiring a shared vision, one of the five practices in Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership, was measured using the LPI survey. The ordinal level, Likert-style questions were summed to create a new ordinal-level scale. Six questions on the LPI survey are designed to measure the practice of inspiring a shared vision with a rating scale of 1-10. The internal

reliability of inspiring a shared vision, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, was found to be .92 for direct reports (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Modeling the way. Dependent variable (Y_5), the leadership practice, modeling the way, one of the five practices in Kouzes and Posner's (2007) *Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership*, was measured using the LPI survey. The ordinal level, Likert-style questions were summed to create a new ordinal-level scale. Six questions on the LPI survey are designed to measure the practice of modeling the way with a rating scale of 1-10. The internal reliability of modeling the way, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, was found to be .90 for direct reports (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Description of Materials and Instruments

The measurement tool that was used for this study was Kouzes and Posner's (2007) LPI survey (see Appendix A). The current version of the LPI is a 10-point Likert-type scale survey with 30 total questions and six questions for each of the five practices (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The LPI was used to collect data that allowed for the comparison of differences in the tendency of each culture to exhibit the pre-defined leadership practices. Prior to utilization of the LPI permission was received from the copyright owners for written (see Appendix B) and electronic (see Appendix C) use of the instrument.

Researchers have used the LPI for a variety of studies and concluded that the data collected supports the reliability and validity of the LPI (Leong, 1995). Leong pointed out that the results of over 120 scientific studies demonstrated the validity and reliability of the LPI and confirmed the leadership framework of

Kouzes and Posner. Additionally, research studies have continually demonstrated the reliability and validity of each of the five leadership practices (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Leong, 1995; "LPI Online," 2008), and that the LPI has face and predictive validity (Leong, 1995; "LPI Online," 2008; Shakin & Rosenback, 1998). While developing the LPI, Kouzes and Posner conducted several studies of the LPI to establish the validity and reliability of the instrument (Spotauski & Carter, 1993).

Selection of Participants

The populations in the study were American and Dutch personnel at Geilenkirchen Air Base, Germany. There are approximately 532 American and 309 Dutch personnel stationed at Geilenkirchen Air Base, including military and civilians. There were approximately 411 USAF personnel and 60 RNLAF personnel stationed at Geilenkirchen Air Base at the time of this study. Identification of personnel based on nationality was conducted through demographic reports generated by the respective national support units.

The demographic reports generated by the national support units provided a variety of data: (a) names, (b) nationality, (c) time on station, (d) rank or grade, (d) projected date of departure, and (f) gender. The sample design for the populations was single-stage. Creswell (2003) stated, "A single-stage sampling procedure is one in which the researcher has access to names in the population and can sample the people" (p. 156). Before any potential participant was contacted, permission to conduct the study was received from the senior USAF (see Appendix D) and RNLAF (see Appendix E) representatives.

The study involved stratification of the populations where applicable. Gender was a primary factor for stratification and time on station was a primary selection criterion in the study. Due to the limited number of Dutch military personnel in the population, all eligible RNLAF personnel were selected as research participants. Creswell (2003) pointed out that when randomly selecting participants from a population, certain characteristics represented in the population may not be proportionately represented in the sample, but that stratification ensures their representation. Stratification on gender was chosen due to research indicating and suggesting that leadership characteristics, perceptions, and behaviors are influenced by gender and gender characteristics (Bynum, 2001; Greenberg & Sweeney, 2005; Grzelakowski, 2005; Payne, 2005; Willemsen, 2002). It was important to ensure proper representation of gender in the sample to help minimize response bias based on a disproportionate number of male or female respondents. This concept extended to ensuring equal representation of leaders based on gender between the two groups that were queried.

Additionally, time on station of less than 5 years for leaders was a selection criterion for USAF leaders. This selection criterion is important as organizational culture can influence individual perceptions, behaviors, and experiences (Buhler, 2002; Ciulla, 2004; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Robbins & Judge, 2007; Tushman & O'Reilly, 2002), which could influence the behaviors of the leaders under evaluation and the subsequent responses of the subordinates.

A sample was randomly selected from the provided USAF reports. The first random selection was conducted to identify the leaders who were to be evaluated by a subordinate. To achieve random sampling, a sampling frame was constructed for the American culture and gender. The sampling frame included name and gender. Individuals who met the stratification criteria were included in a sampling frame. There were two sampling frames constructed: American/female and American/male. The selection criterion of time on station was set at less than 5 years for all potential leaders in the sampling frames.

Selection of USAF leaders was conducted using a random number generator. This tool allowed for a set of numbers to be selected from a predefined range of numbers. This same approach was utilized for both USAF sampling frames. The numbers selected by the random number generator corresponded to numbers on the sampling frames.

Once a random sample of USAF leaders was obtained, a list of all subordinates for each leader was constructed. Each subordinate, with 3 months retainability at the time of the survey, was assigned a number for labeling purposes. One subordinate for each leader was selected using a random number generator. This procedure was conducted for the subordinates of each leader. The randomly selected subordinates were the survey participants in the study. If during distribution of the consent forms selected participants chose not to take the survey, the random number generator was utilized to select another subordinate for the selected leader.

Regarding cultural dimensions studies, Hofstede (2001) suggested a minimum sample size between 20 and 50 individual respondents per country. Hofstede's research evaluated differences between countries as related to five cultural dimensions: (a) individualism, (b) long-term orientation, (c) masculinity, (d) power distance, and (e) uncertainty avoidance. The purpose of this quantitative study was to evaluate the differences in leadership practices exhibited by two cultures using Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership.

Based on the purpose of this study, Hofstede's recommendation was used in helping determine the sample size. While Hofstede's recommendation provided a starting point for determining a sample size, a power analysis using G*Power software indicated that with alpha set at .05 a sample size greater than 50 is needed to have a minimum power of .80. A sample size of 60 produced a power of .84 using G*Power software. The desired sample size for this study was 60 participants for the American culture and the desired sample size of Dutch participants was 60, which was the entire population. Discussion of actual sample size and post-hoc power analysis is provided later.

Procedures

The first step in collecting data involved the receipt of leader names from the Dutch and American national support units. Due to the limited number of Dutch military personnel available, the entire population was selected to participate. The American list was delimited to leaders who have been on-station for less than 5 years and have at least one subordinate. After a comprehensive

list was obtained, calculations were conducted to determine the percentage of male and female leaders for stratification purposes. While equivalent grades and ranks were present between American and Dutch personnel, promotion cycles and time in grade vary within and between the nationalities. Consequently, all ranks and grades were available and considered during the random sampling processes.

Next, sampling frames were generated for the American culture and gender, for a total of two sampling frames. Each leader from the provided lists were given a number in a sampling frame for labeling purposes only. A random number calculator was utilized to select the appropriate number of participants based on stratification requirements.

Sixty leaders from the American culture were randomly selected and all 60 potential participants from the Dutch culture were selected with the goal of achieving a 100% response rate. From the list of randomly selected USAF leaders, a list of subordinates was provided. Each subordinate from the provided lists were given a number in a sampling frame for labeling purposes only. A random number calculator was utilized to select one subordinate for each leader who was requested to participate. For leaders with only one subordinate, a sampling frame was not constructed and the subordinate was selected to participate in the survey.

The next step involved the distribution of a notification and consent to participate email. Each selected participant received an email from the researcher that detailed the purpose of the study and the planned use of the

collected data (see Appendix F). The email also served as a consent form to participate through the utilization of a voting button and to verify email addresses. If a selected participant declined consent, another subordinate for the appropriate leader was randomly selected, if possible. In addition, if a participant who declined only had one subordinate for the selected leader, a new leader and subsequent subordinate were randomly selected by the original selection procedures.

After receiving consent to participate in the study, each participant received an email thanking them for taking their time to participate. Instructions on how to proceed were included in the email (see Appendix G). Next, each participant's name and email address was entered into a distribution list. Within one day of emailing survey instructions, the participants received an email from with a hyperlink that took them to the survey site. All participants responses were entered into the BOSS website. After confirmation of survey completion, each participant received an email thanking them for their participation and offered an electronic copy of the completed study upon request (see Appendix H).

The web application automatically calculated the score for each leader and generated the necessary reports. The scores obtained from BOSS were inserted into a Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS ®) data file. An additional reviewer conducted an accuracy check on the entered data to help reduce transfer error. After the review for accuracy was conducted, an Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted on the inserted data. Based on the results of the

Kruskal-Wallis test analysis, conclusions, and generalizations were made. Figure

2 provides a detailed flow of the aforementioned procedures.
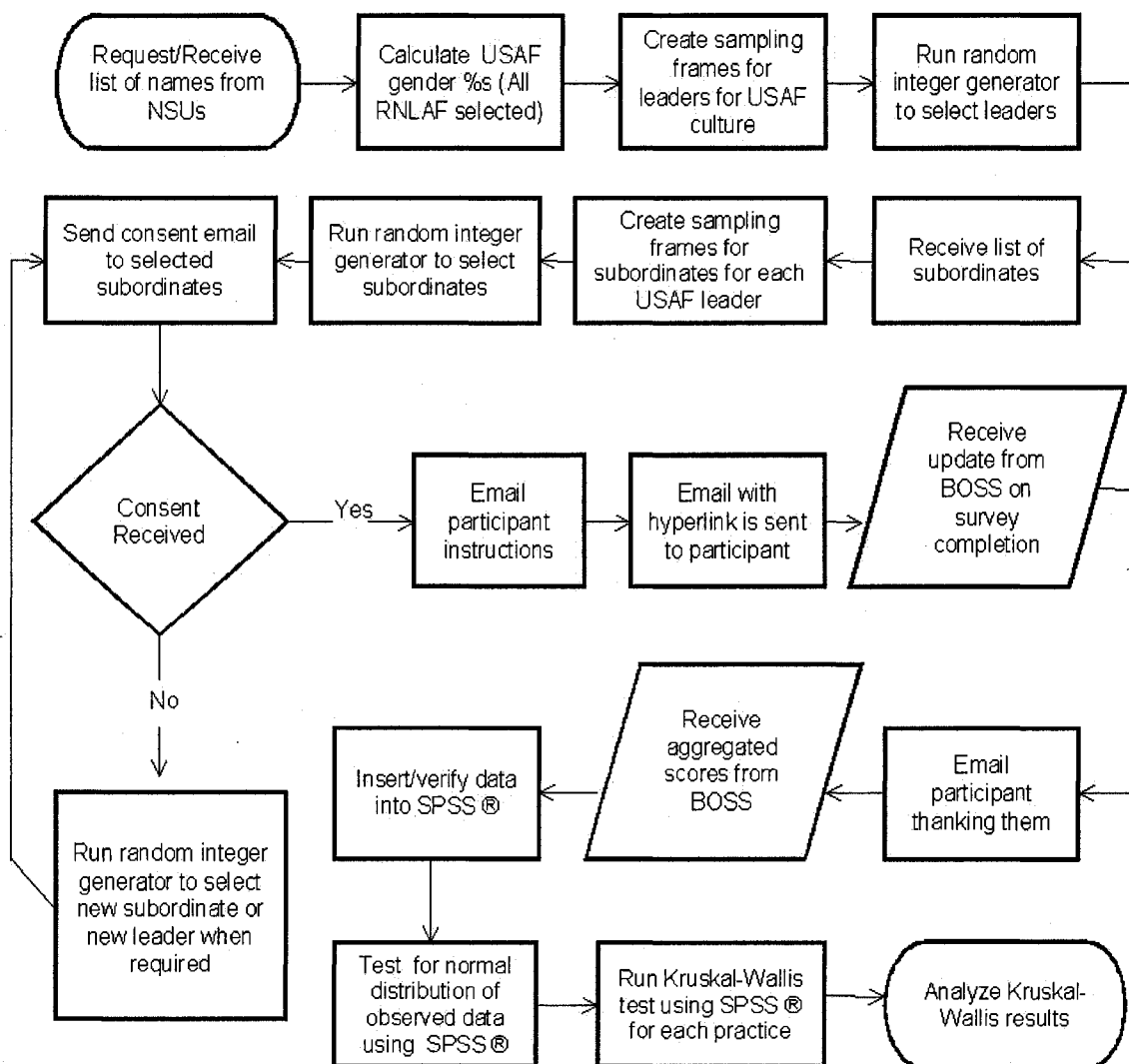

Figure 1. Research procedure flowchart.

Discussion of Data Processing

There are five practices of leadership characteristics measured by the LPI.

Each practice has six related questions with a rating scale of 1-10. Assuming all

six questions are marked 10, a score of 60 is possible from each respondent.

Based on this score, Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to determine if there

were significant differences between Dutch and American leaders on each of the five dependent variables. By utilizing the Kruskal-Wallis test, the distribution of data does not required to be within the normal distribution range, such as is found with the parametric test of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). An observed distribution test on the dependent variable data was conducted using SPSS ® software to help ensure that the appropriate statistical test was utilized.

The method for conducting the survey was a web-based version of the LPI conducted through the BOSS website. All base personnel have email accounts and Internet access, which were the only requirements necessary to utilize the web application. The respondents were given one month to complete the survey. Participants were requested to not reveal the scoring of their survey with other participants.

Results from the surveys were scored automatically by the web application, which generated score reports. The scores from the reports were inserted into an SPSS ® data file. Comparisons between American and Dutch leaders were calculated. Most calculations were developed and produced using SPSS ® 15.0 software. The study was an evaluation of differences between two groups on five different variables. There were no hypotheses indicating direction regarding which sample exhibited a greater tendency toward each of the measured leadership practices. Therefore, the Kruskal-Wallis test for examining differences in population means, inferred from the independent samples, was conducted for the five practices.

Establishing and ensuring validity is an important factor in any research study (Zikmund, 2003). Researchers must consider potential threats to validity during the design and implementation of a research study (Zikmund, 2003). For this study, different procedures and considerations are planned to help minimize potential threats to validity.

Internal validity. As the study is a causal-comparative study, it is important to address threats to internal validity (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007). Several potential threats exist to internal validity: (a) selection, (b) regression, (c) maturations, (d) testing, (e) instrumentation, (f) mortality, (g) selection-maturation interaction, (h) history, and (i) experimenter bias (Creswell, 2003; Trochim & Donnelly, 2007; Zikmund, 2003). Several of the potential threats can be addressed by random-sampling.

Selection threats in the study were minimized by the implementation of random sampling. Extraneous variables that may adversely affect the selection of respondents were addressed during random-sampling, such as gender and time on station. The sample remains random, as those who meet the parameters set to address validity had an equal chance of being selected. "Regression occurs whenever you have a nonrandom sample from a population and two measures that are imperfectly correlated" (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007, p. 163). To reduce the potential of the regression threat, random sampling was utilized to select potential USAF respondents and all RNLAF personnel were selected.

The maturation threat is "a threat to validity that is a result of natural maturation that occurs pre- and postmeasurement" (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007,

p. 162). Zikmund (2003) explained that maturation effect of particular concern during experiment over extended periods of time. The testing effect refers to studies involving before-and-after test (Zikmund, 2003). This study did not involve before-and-after testing and did not occur over an extended time-period. The study was a one-time cross-sectional sample of the populations, which inferred that the maturation and testing effects should not have had an influence on internal validity of the measurement.

· Zikmund (2003) explained that the instrumentation effect is "an effect on the results of an experiment caused by a change in the working of questions…or other changes in procedures to measure the dependent variable" (p. 273). In the study the same instrument, Kouzes and Posner's (2007) LPI, was used as the common instrument between both groups in the study. The survey was electronically administered through email and the BOSS website. The LPI survey was presented once to each subordinate and there were no changes to the LPI. With the absence of potential changes to the measurement instrument, the instrumentation effect was not a concern to internal validity.

Trochim and Donnelly (2007) defined mortality threat as "a threat to validity that occurs because a significant number of participants drop out" (p. 163). Several measures were implemented in the study to reduce the mortality threat: (a) survey response time, (b) retainability, and (c) consent to participate. The survey response time was limited to 1 month. It was anticipated that time commitment to complete the survey for each respondent should be minimal.

Payne (2005) found in his study that it took survey participants approximately half an hour to complete the LPI survey.

Each survey participant had at least 3 months of *retainability* at the time of survey selection. Retainability refers to the individual's time remaining at their current location. This provided ample time to ensure that the dropout rate was further minimized. As an additional measure, participants were asked to consent to participate, which helped alleviate potential evaluation apprehension and reduced respondents from dropping out.

Selection-maturation interaction relates to interaction between subject-related variables and time-related variables ("Concept Definition," 1998). The nature of this study did not allow for the introduction of the independent variable during the measurement. The independent variable was culture and the dependent variable was leadership characteristics. The independent variable did not change for either group, and the study looked at the effect the independent variable had on the dependent variable between two cultures. While the independent variable, culture, was different between the groups, there was no expectation of interaction with subject-related variables. Random selection of respondents and inclusion of all RNLAF personnel helped reduce selection-maturation interaction in the study. By random selection, the possibility of selection-maturation interaction is dependent upon chance ("Concept Definition," 1998).

A history threat is a threat that outside events may influence respondents during the course of the study or between additional measures of the dependent

variable ("Concept Definition," 1998). The length of time for the measurement is restricted to one month, and there was only one planned measure of the dependent variable. These parameters helped reduce potential history threats. Additionally, the two comparison groups were treated equally, which should minimize history threats on the internal validity of the measurement ("Concept Definition," 1998).

Experimenter bias refers to potential based on experimenter expectations regarding expected results of the measurement ("Concept Definition," 1998). In the study, scores from the measurement tool were not open to subjective evaluation. Scores were tabulated using the automated scoring feature provided by BOSS. Interaction between the researcher and respondents was kept to a minimum. During measurement proceedings, interactions were limited to any questions respondents had about the survey. Through random sampling and defined survey procedures, the potential for differential treatment was minimized, which should have reduced concerns regarding experiment bias.

External validity. Trochim and Donnelly (2007) suggested that external validity involves the "approximate truth of conclusions that involve generalizations, or more broadly, the generalizability of conclusions" (p. 34). A key characteristic of external validity is the concept of generalization. Trochim and Donnelly (2007) explained that generalizability is the "degree to which study conclusions are valid for members of the population not included in the study sample" (p. 34).

The sampling model approach was utilized in this research study. The sampling model involves selecting a sample of the population and drawing generalizations about the entire population based on the results of the study (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007). A common complaint of the sampling model is that it does not account for time and place, and the sample may not be a fair representation of the population. There are procedures that can help minimize threats to external validity: (a) random sampling, (b) ensuring selected participants remain active throughout the entire study, and (c) using stratification for proper representation of the population (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007).

In this research study, random sampling was utilized to select USAF research participants and participants were selected based on 3 months retainability. Since the entire eligible RNLAF sample was selected for the study, random sampling was not required, however retainability was still considered. This approach narrowed down potential respondents, but a random sample of USAF personnel with retainability may have help improve the external validity of the study. Another step that was utilized in the study to improve external validity was stratification. Stratification of the USAF population based on gender was utilized to ensure proper representation of the population. Stratification of the RNLAF population was not required due to the inclusion of all RNLAF personnel.

Methodological Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

In order to conduct this study, a few assumptions were made. First, there was an assumption that the data collected was both reliable and valid. Second, that the effect of other variables, such as (a) age, (b) generation of participant

and leaders, or (c) religious affiliation, was limited and had minimal impact on participant answers or behavior of the selected leader. Another assumption in the study was that potential differences in leadership behavior are a result of differences in cultural factors versus military training.

In addition to the described assumptions, there are potential limitations to the utilized research methodology. There are inherent strengths and weaknesses present in the quantitative approach (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007; Zikmund, 2003). A few potential weaknesses of a quantitative approach are (a) random sampling error, (b) systematic error, and (c) nonresponse error (Zikmund, 2003). Another potential weakness is that the categories and questions utilized by the researcher may not reflect the participants' understandings (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). By contrast, strengths to quantitative research include (a) objectivity, (b) statistical reliability, (c) potential for generalization to the studied population, and (d) researchers can measure and control variables (Abusabha & Woelfel, 2003; Creswell, 2003; Pinsonneault & Kraemer, 1993; Trochim & Donnelly, 2007; Zikmund, 2003).

Friedrich (n.d.) suggested several means to reducing sampling error: (a) reduce or eliminate choices of preferences by the researcher and respondent, (b) provide specific instructions to the respondent, and (c) use quota sampling. This study eliminated preference choices by utilizing sampling frames, random sampling, and a random number generator, and the inclusion of the entire RNLAF eligible population. Each potential respondent was given clear and specific instructions on how to complete the survey and the purpose of the study.

Stratification of the USAF population was utilized to select potential USAF participants for the study. Stratification was not a factor for selection of potential RNLAF due the inclusion of the entire eligible population. With stratification factors in mind, every individual available had an equal probability of being selected. The study was designed to stratify the populations based on gender and be delimited based on time on station. Time on station was established at less than 5 years for all potential USAF respondents. During random sampling, procedures were employed that ensured the appropriate representation of respondents based on gender was achieved according to population percentages.

Johnson and Christensen (2004) pointed out that a potential weakness of quantitative studies is a misunderstanding of the categories and questions in the study from the participant's position. To reduce this potential weakness in the study, clear and simple instructions were provided to all respondents. Respondents were informed if there were any misunderstanding or confusion regarding a question or terminology, they should contact the researcher.

While this study was a cross-cultural study, native-language concerns were minimized based on language skills of the populations. At the NATO air base in Geilenkirchen, Germany, the official language for business is English, with specified proficiencies of reading, writing, and speaking (Allied Command Operations, 2006; E-3A Component, 2005). This survey was conducted in English. The two cultures involved in the study are proficient in the English language. The English language is the native language for Americans, and for

Dutch personnel, research shows that many Dutch are highly proficient in English (De Bot, 2004).

The design of each step in this study was intended to reduce the probability of systematic errors. Systematic errors include problems in the execution of the research design (Zikmund, 2003). Each step of this study was established in detail to help eliminate potential errors in design execution, including (a) random sampling procedures, (b) procedures for participants who do not provide consent to participate, (c) stratification procedures, (d) survey distribution procedures, and (e) data analysis procedures. The intent of the research design was to provide systematic and defined procedures for each step of the research study.

Controls were implemented in the study to minimize the potential of nonresponse errors. After selection of participants through random sampling, each potential respondent was asked to provide their consent to being included in the study. Another randomly selected participant replaced those who choose not to participate. This procedure did not guarantee every respondent who provided their consent completed a survey, but it was a means to reduce potential nonresponse errors.

Another limitation of the study was the applicability of the results. The results of the study were based on a limited scope and populations. The populations under investigation were Dutch and American leaders in a NATO organization. Based on the scope of this project and the populations under investigation, the generalization of the results to greater populations should be

restricted to NATO. Conversely, the concepts and ideas of understanding, exploring, and discovering cultural differences may be applicable to other organizations and industries.

This study was delimited to Dutch and American military personnel stationed at Geilenkirchen Air Base, Germany. The Dutch and American military participants were in the same chain of command randomly selected USAF leaders and RNLAF leaders. The scope of the project could be extended to other NATO organizations worldwide, however, this was not possible due to the lack of time and resources. Additionally, it was not within the scope of the study to include civilian personnel on or off Geilenkirchen Air Base. Finally, the number of variables under investigation was limited. Other variables that could be included in future research include (a) age of respondent, (b) international experience levels, (c) generation of respondent, and (d) military and civilian status.

Ethical Assurances

All planned procedures for the study were designed to adhere to principles established by the APA Ethics Code (2002) and all policies developed and required by Northcentral University (NCU). A thorough research proposal was submitted for review and committee and school approval was obtained before execution of this research study. Confidentiality of the potential respondents was protected throughout the study. Additionally, the utilization of the BOSS web application, which allows for the exclusion of all personal data from reports, allowed for further control of personal data. Respondent answers were reported from the BOSS with personal data. Data reports from the BOSS only provided

the score totals for each leadership practice and did not contain the names of the respondent or observed leader. The reports were free of participant information in order to ensure participant anonymity.

Potential respondents were provided with introductory information on two occasions. Prior to receiving the survey hyperlink, each potential respondent was be asked to consent to participate in the study. The initial consent form, distributed by email, explained (a) the purpose of the study, (b) expected time commitment to complete the study, (c) procedures, (d) confidentiality statement, (e) statement offering an electronic copy of study after completion, and (f) personal contact information for any potential questions regarding the study.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

This chapter includes the data gathered through the employment of Kouzes and Posner's (2003) LPI survey. The purpose of this study was to examine if significant differences exist between two cultures across five pre-determined leadership practices. The presentation of data in this chapter was designed to address the problem that many of today's MNCs have an insufficient level of cross-cultural awareness and insufficient knowledge of the differences that are present in cross-cultural environments. In this chapter, several areas are covered, including (a) survey response rate, (b) post-hoc power analysis, (c) demographic data of study participants, (d) distribution of data, (e) descriptive statistics of collected data, (f) results of performed statistical analysis, and (g) a presentation of the results of the statistical analysis as related to the research questions and hypotheses. Finally, the chapter was concluded with a summary of the findings.

Findings

In this section, the findings from this study are presented. The topics covered in this section are (a) survey response rate, (b) post-hoc power analysis, (c) demographics of study participants, (d) distribution of data, (e) descriptive statistics, and (f) statistical test results.

Survey response rate. One of the populations in the study was USAF personnel stationed at the NATO air base in Geilenkirchen, Germany. One hundred and ten USAF personnel stationed at Geilenkirchen Air Base were asked to participate in this study. Sixty-six USAF personnel provided their

consent. All consenting personnel were provided an email with the hyperlink to the website hosting the LPI survey. All emails were successfully delivered. For a survey to be considered complete, all questions were to be answered. Of the 66 consenting USAF personnel, 64 successfully completed the survey. Reminders were sent to the remaining personnel, but the surveys were never completed. Based on the number of completed surveys the response rate for the American sample was 96.9%.

The second population in this study was RNLAF personnel stationed at the NATO air base in Geilenkirchen, Germany. Fifty-eight RNLAF personnel stationed at Geilenkirchen Air Base were asked to participate in this study. Thirty-six RNLAF personnel provided their consent. All consenting personnel were provided an email with the hyperlink to the website hosting the LPI survey and all emails were successfully delivered. Of the 36 consenting RNLAF personnel, 29 successfully completed the survey. Reminders were sent to the remaining consenting personnel, but the surveys were never completed. Two of the seven nonresponse participants began the survey, but never fully completed the survey. The two partial surveys were excluded from the study. Based on the number of completed surveys the response rate for the Dutch sample was 80.6%. A summary of the response rates is included in Table 3.

Table 3

Response Rates

Culture	Consented	Completed	Response Rate
American - USAF	66	64	96.90%
Dutch - RNLAF	36	29	80.60%

Post-hoc power analysis. The total number of participants in the study was 93. The total number of participants includes samples from two independent populations. The two populations that are compared in this study are American and Dutch military personnel at Geilenkirchen Air Base, Germany. Of the 93 total participants, 64 (67%) were American and 29 (33%) were Dutch. To help ensure that the results of this study were meaningful, it was important that identified characteristics were proportionately represented in the samples (Creswell, 2003). While the proportion of participants is unequal, the sample sizes are reflective of the distribution of American and Dutch personnel on Geilenkirchen Air Base. The result of a post-hoc power analysis using G* Power software with an alpha of .05 was approximately .70 (see Figure 2).

Demographics of study participants. The study included 51 male USAF and 26 male RNLAF participants, represent 81% and 90% of the total participants, respectively. Twelve female USAF and three female RNLAF participants represent 19% and 10% of the total participants, respectively (see Tables 4 and 5).

Table 4

USAF Demographic Frequency Data for Gender

Variable	N	n	Percentage (%)
Gender	64		
Male		51	81%
Female		12	19%

Table 5

RNLAF Demographic Frequency Data for Gender

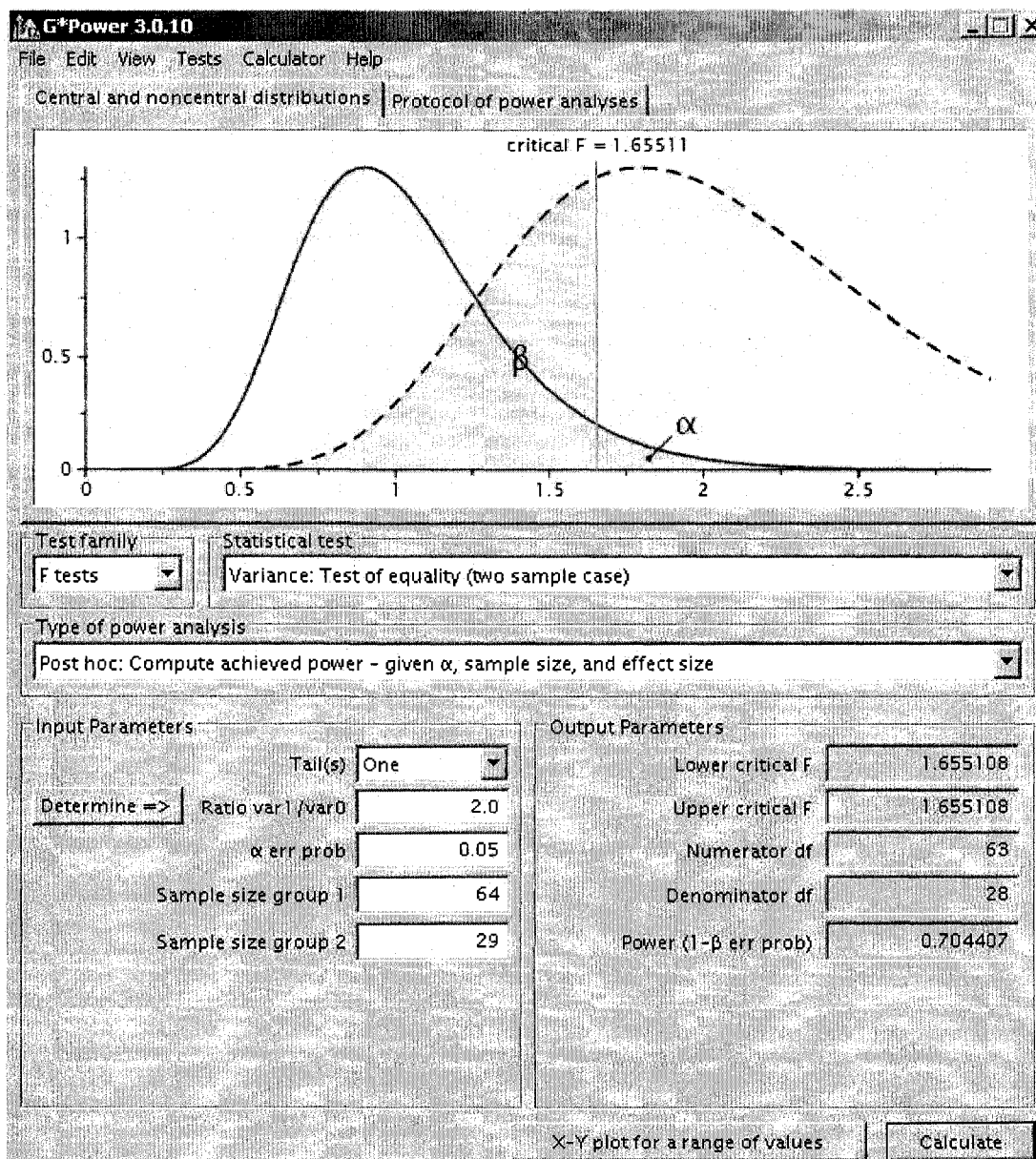| Variable	N	n	Percentage (%)
Gender	29		
Male		26	90%
Female		3	10%

Figure 2. Post-hoc Power Analysis.

Distribution of data. The distribution of data is a determining factor on the

appropriateness of the analysis tool utilized to analyze the research hypotheses

(Norusis, 2006). To determine if the data collected had a normal distribution, the

skewness value compared to twice the standard error of skewness was utilized

to determine if the data was outside the range of a normal distribution. When the

skewness value is more than twice the standard error of skewness, than the data

are beyond the range of normal distribution. Presented in Table 10, are the

results of this analysis. SPSS ® software was utilized to calculate the skewness

value and standard error of skewness.

Table 6

Distribution of Data Analysis

Variable	Skewness Value	Standard Error of Skewness	Std. Error X 2	Normal Distribution
Challenge the Process				
American	-.73	.29	0.59	No
Dutch	-1.17	.43	0.87	No
Enable Others to Act				
American	-.89	.29	0.59	No
Dutch	-1.34	.43	0.87	No
Encourage the Heart				
American	-.99	.29	0.59	No
Dutch	-.96	.43	0.87	No
Inspire a Shared Vision				
American	-.69	.29	0.59	No
Dutch	-.24	.43	0.87	Yes
Model the Way				
American	-1.16	.29	0.59	No
Dutch	-1.44	.43	0.87	No

As the data presented in Table 6 illustrate, the distribution of the collected data was outside the normal distribution range for both cultures across each of the practices, except for data involving Dutch participants and the leadership practice, inspire a shared vision. The results of the data distribution analysis indicated that a nonparametric approach was appropriate. The Kruskal-Wallis test allows for the comparison of means across multiple samples and does not require the data to be normally distributed. "The Kruskal-Wallis test is a nonparametric alternative to one-way analysis of variance" (Norusis, 2006, p. 396). For the purpose of this study, the Kruskal-Wallis test was used to compare the means of the two cultures across the five leadership practices.

Descriptive statistics. This section includes the descriptive statistics of the collected data. The data are organized and presented as they relate to the five research questions and subsequent hypotheses. The five research questions were designed to determine to what extent, if any, was there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit each of Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership. The five practices include (a) challenging the process, (b) enabling others to act, (c) encouraging the heart, (d) inspiring a shared vision, and (e) modeling the way (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Presented in Tables 7-11 are the mean, median, and mode for each of the five leadership practices.

The means for the leadership practice challenge the process, as presented in Table 7, indicated that Americans ($M = 42.8$), on average, exhibited the practice of challenging the process more often than the Dutch ($M = 36.97$) in

the sample populations. The significance of the difference is discussed later in this chapter. The next practice under evaluation is enabling others to act.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics - Challenge the Process

Variable	Mean	Median	Mode
American	42.8	42	40
Dutch	36.97	39	37, 39

The means for the leadership practice enabling others to act, as presented in Table 8, indicated that Americans (M = 49.50), on average, exhibited the practice of enabling others to act more often than the Dutch (M = 42.21) in the sample populations. The significance of the difference is discussed later in this chapter. The next practice under evaluation is encouraging the heart.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics - Enabling Others to Act

Variable	Mean	Median	Mode
American	49.50	52	59
Dutch	42.21	46	52

The means for the leadership practice encouraging the heart, as presented in Table 9, indicated that Americans (M = 46.38), on average, exhibited the practice of encouraging the heart more often than the Dutch (M = 36.48) in the sample populations. The significance of the difference is discussed

later in this chapter. The next practice under evaluation is inspiring a shared vision.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics - Encouraging the Heart

Variable	Mean	Median	Mode
American	46.38	48	52
Dutch	36.48	40	40

The means for the leadership practice inspiring a shared vision, as presented in Table 10, indicated that Americans (M = 40.63), on average, exhibited the practice of inspiring a shared vision more often than the Dutch (M = 35.86) in the sample populations. The significance of the difference is discussed later in this chapter. The next practice under evaluation is modeling the way.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics - Inspiring a Shared Vision

Variable	Mean	Median	Mode
American	40.63	40	46, 50, 53
Dutch	35.86	35	35

The means for the leadership practice modeling the way, as presented in Table 11, indicated that Americans (M = 48.47), on average, exhibited the practice of modeling the way more often than the Dutch (M = 42.62) in the sample populations. The significance of the difference is discussed later in this

chapter. The following section provides an analysis and discussion of the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test results, research questions, and hypotheses.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics - Modeling the Way

Variable	Mean	Median	Mode
American	48.47	40	52
Dutch	42.62	35	35

Statistical test results. This section includes the statistical analysis of the collected data. The Kruskal-Wallis test was utilized as the nonparametric analysis tool to compare the means of the two cultures across the five leadership practices. The following data are arranged according to each of the five leadership practices: (a) challenging the process, (b) enabling others to act, (c) encouraging the heart, (d) inspiring a shared vision, and (d) modeling the way (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Presented in Table 12 are the results of the Kruskal-Wallis analysis of each of the five practices. The grouping variable utilized for the Kruskal-Wallis analysis was the independent variable culture. SPSS ® software was utilized to conduct the Kruskal-Wallis test.

Table 12

Kruskal-Wallis Results

	Challenge the Process	Enable Others to Act	Encourage the Heart	Inspire a Shared Vision	Model the Way
x^2	7.53	10.04	14.73	4.62	10.27
df	1	1	1	1	1
Asymp. Sig.	.006	.002	<.001	.032	.001

Evaluation and Analysis of Findings

In this section, the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test are analyzed and applied to each of the five research questions and hypotheses. The research questions, hypotheses, and test results are presented and discussed in this section.

Research question 1. To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of challenging the process, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

According to the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, there appears to be a significant difference in the extent between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of challenging the process, as measured by the LPI. With alpha level of .05, the effect of culture was statistically significant, $x^2(1) = 7.53$, $p = .006$. The data results indicated that there was a significant difference between the two sample populations in regards to the tendency of their leaders to exhibit the leadership practice of challenging the process.

$H1_0$. There is no significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of challenging the process, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, $p = .006$, indicated that the null hypothesis, $H1_0$, can be rejected. Comparison of the means between the sampled cultures revealed that

Americans (M = 42.8) exhibited the leadership practice of challenging the process more often, on average, than the Dutch (M = 36.97).

H1$_A$. There is a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of challenging the process, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, p = .006, indicated that the alternative hypothesis, H1$_A$, may be accepted.

Research question 2. To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of enabling others to act, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

Based on the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, there appears to be a significant difference in the extent between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of enabling others to act, as measured by the LPI. With alpha level of .05, the effect of culture was statistically significant, $x^2(1)$ = 10.04, p = .002. The data results indicated that there is a significant difference between the two sample populations in regards to the tendency of their leaders to exhibit the leadership practice of enabling others to act.

H2$_0$. There is no significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of enabling others to act, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, p = .002, indicated that the null hypothesis, H2$_0$, can be rejected. Comparison of the means between the sampled cultures revealed that

Americans (M = 49.50) exhibited the leadership practice of enabling others to act more often, on average, than the Dutch (M = 42.21).

H2$_A$. There is a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of enabling others to act, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, p = .002, indicated that the alternative hypothesis, H2$_A$, may be accepted.

Research question 3. To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of encouraging the heart, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

According to the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, there appears to be a significant difference in the extent between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of encouraging the heart, as measured by the LPI. With alpha level of .05, the effect of culture was statistically significant, $x^2(1)$ = 14.73, p < .001. The data results indicated that there is a significant difference between the two sample populations in regards to the tendency of their leaders to exhibit the leadership practice of encouraging the heart.

H3$_0$. There is no significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of encouraging the heart, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The Kruskal-Wallis test, p < .001, indicated that the null hypothesis, H3$_0$, can be rejected. Comparison of the means between the sampled cultures revealed that Americans (M = 46.38)

exhibited the leadership practice of encouraging the heart more often, on average, than the Dutch (M = 36.48).

H3$_A$. There is a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice encouraging the heart, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, p < .001, indicated that the alternative hypothesis, H3$_A$, may be accepted.

Research question 4. To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of inspiring a shared vision, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

Based on the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, there appears to be a significant difference in the extent between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of inspiring a shared vision, as measured by the LPI. The observed significance level for the leadership practice, inspiring a shared vision, was .032. With alpha level of .05, the effect of culture was statistically significant, $x^2(1)$ = 4.62, p = .032. The data results indicated that there is a significant difference between the two sample populations in regards to the tendency of their leaders to exhibit the leadership practice of inspiring a shared vision.

H4$_0$. There is no significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of inspiring a shared vision, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, p = .032, indicated that the null hypothesis, H4$_0$, can be rejected.

Comparison of the means between the sampled cultures revealed that Americans (M = 40.63) exhibited the leadership practice of inspiring a shared vision more often, on average, than the Dutch (M = 35.86).

H4$_A$. There is a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of inspiring a shared vision, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, p = .032, indicated that the alternative hypothesis, H4$_A$, may be accepted.

Research question 5. To what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of modeling the way, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007)?

According to the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, there appears to be a significant difference in the extent between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of modeling the way, as measured by the LPI. The observed significance level for the leadership practice, modeling the way, was .001. With alpha level of .05, the effect of culture was statistically significant, $x^2(1)$ = 10.27, p = .001. The data results indicated that there is a significant difference between the two sample populations in regards to the tendency of their leaders to exhibit the leadership practice of modeling the way.

H5$_0$. There is no significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of modeling the way, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The results of the Kruskal-Wallis

test, p = .001, indicated that the null hypothesis, $H5_0$, can be rejected. Comparison of the means between the sampled cultures revealed that Americans (M = 48.47) exhibited the leadership practice of challenging the process more often, on average, than the Dutch (M = 42.62).

$H5_A$. There is a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the leadership practice of modeling the way, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, p = .001, indicated that the alternative hypothesis, $H5_A$, may be accepted.

Summary

The populations under comparison in this study were Dutch and American military personnel at the NATO air base in Geilenkirchen, Germany. There were 93 total participants, 64 USAF and 29 RNLAF. The response rate was 96.9% for the American sample and 80.6% for the Dutch sample. The gender distribution for the American sample was 81% male and 19% female. The gender distribution for the Dutch sample was 90% male and 10% female.

A post-hoc power analysis revealed a power of .70 based on the sample sizes. The descriptive statistics for this study were provided and included (a) mean, (b) median, and (c) mode. A comparison of the means indicated that, on average, American leaders in the sample exhibited each of the five practices more often than Dutch leaders in the sample.

To ensure that the correct analysis test was used, an analysis of the data distribution was conducted. Based on the results of the data distribution analysis, it was determined that a nonparametric test was appropriate. The analysis

revealed that all only one distribution out of 10 was in the normal distribution range. As a result, the Kruskal-Wallis test was utilized as the analysis tool for this study.

The Kruskal-Wallis test provided data that helped answer the research questions and helped test the hypotheses. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated that a significant difference did exist between American and Dutch leaders at Geilenkirchen Air Base to exhibit each of the five leadership practices. For dependent variable, challenge the process, $p = .006$ indicated that $H1_0$ could be rejected and that $H1_A$ may be accepted.

Regarding the dependent variable, enable others to act, $p = .002$ indicated that $H2_0$ could be rejected and $H2_A$ may be accepted. For the dependent variable, encouraging the heart, $p > .001$ indicated that $H3_0$ could be rejected and $H3_A$ may be accepted. In reference to the dependent variable, inspire a shared vision, $p = .032$ indicated that $H4_0$ could be rejected and $H4_A$ may be accepted. Finally, the $p = .001$ score for the dependent variable, model the way, indicated that $H5_0$ could be rejected and that $H5_A$ may be accepted. In the next chapter, a summary of the study, conclusions, and recommendations are provided.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Leadership is needed in every organization. Koestenbaum (2002) stated, "Everyone is capable of leadership, and everyone needs it" (p. 199). The overarching topic of this study involved an evaluation of key leadership differences between two cultures. The leadership practices that were evaluated are Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership: (a) challenging the process, (b) enabling others to act, (c) encouraging the heart, (d) inspiring a shared vision, and (e) modeling the way.

Different factors influence an individual's behaviors and motivations, including experiences, personality, and culture (Maxwell, 2004; Northouse, 2004; Robbins & Judge, 2007). In today's rapidly growing global environment, it is essential for researchers and leaders to evaluate the effects culture has on leadership practices and adapt their leadership style to the environment (Albritton, 2007; Clover, 2008; Maitland, 2004; Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002). This study was developed as a means to collect data regarding leadership differences between two cultures. Five research questions and subsequent hypotheses were developed to examine each of the five leadership practices that were investigated.

The remainder of this chapter provides a summary of the study, conclusions, and recommendations. The summary includes a synopsis of the first four chapters of this study. In the conclusions section, the data results are summarized and discussed. Finally, this chapter is concluded with recommendations for future research.

Summary

This section provides a summary of the first four chapters of this study. The chapter includes (a) Chapter 1 – Introduction, (b) Chapter 2 – Literature Review, (c) Chapter 3 – Methodology, and (d) Chapter 4 – Findings. Each chapter is summarized below.

Chapter 1 – Introduction. Presented in chapter one was an introduction to the study. A few of the areas included in chapter one were (a) statement of the research problem and purpose of the study, (b) significance of the study, (c) research questions, and (d) definition of terms. The underlying problem addressed by this study was the lack of cross-cultural awareness in multi-cultural organizations.

This study was designed to address the documented problem of insufficient cross-cultural awareness found throughout many global organizations. Many of today's MNCs have an insufficient level of cross-cultural awareness to meet the needs of today's global environment (Fish, 2005; Hurn, 2007; Hutchings, 2003; Littrell & Salas, 2005). Littrell and Salas explained that to help organizations overcome the problem of insufficient levels of cross-cultural awareness that more and better CCT is required.

One important facet of CCT is cultural awareness development (Littrell & Salas, 2005), and a key element of improving cultural awareness is a clear understanding of cultural differences (Fish, 2005; Hurn, 2007; Hutchings, 2003) and cultural intelligence (Triandis, 2006). A lack of cultural awareness is a significant problem for MNCs and adversely influences a leader's ability to

manage intercultural conflict and the organization's overall effectiveness (Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002). Rodsutti and Swierczek's assertions apply to NATO organizations.

Picciano (2007) pointed out (a) NATO organizations need to focus more resources on CCT in order to maximize the effectiveness of multinational operations and (b) there is a lack of cross-cultural awareness in NATO. Picciano found that there is an urgent need for research regarding the multinational character of present-day military operations and that current literature regarding cultural challenges in military operations was inadequately covered in related research and literature.

The purpose of this quantitative study was to evaluate the differences in leadership practices exhibited by two cultures using Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership and LPI. This study may give leaders, managers, and employees knowledge about leadership differences that could help them lead in a multinational organization. In addition, this study could help organizations in the development of effective CCT programs. The overall purpose of this study was to evaluate the differences in Kouzes and Posner's five leadership practices between American and Dutch personnel at Geilenkirchen Air Base, Germany.

While the scope of the study is focused on a NATO organization regarding five specific leadership practices, the results may encourage future research in other industries involving various leadership practices and behaviors. This study is significant because organizational leaders need a formal and clear

understanding on how culture influences individual behavior, attitudes, and perceptions to succeed in today's global environment (Aimar & Stough, 2007; Robbins & Judge, 2002). One primary purpose of this study was to provide multinational organizations information that can help improve individual and organizational cross-cultural knowledge. There are several potential benefactors of this study: (a) human resource managers, (b) assignment personnel, (c) training managers, and (d) individual leaders.

The five research questions examined in this study were designed to determine to what extent, if any, was there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit each of Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership. Subsequent hypotheses were developed for this study. The five null hypotheses tested in this study were designed to test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Conversely, the five alternative hypotheses were designed to test the hypothesis that there is a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

Chapter 2 – Literature review. Presented in chapter two was a review of existing literature. The areas covered in chapter two include (a) theory, (b) global leadership concepts, (c) Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions framework, (d)

GLOBE project, (e) comparative studies, (f) universal characteristics, (g) globalization, (h) cross-cultural training, and (i) leadership practices inventory.

The theory that provided the framework for this study was a variation of Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory. Contingency theorists posit that societal culture influences individual leadership behaviors (Aimar & Stough, 2007; Albritton, 2007; Gilkey, 2005; Goelzer, 2003; House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002; Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002; Yavas & Rezayat, 2003), as well as perceptions of and approaches to leadership (House et al., 2002; Robbins & Judge, 2007). In the global leadership concepts section, the main premise that varying cultures view and accept leadership differently was presented and discussed.

Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions framework was presented as it was a study of cultural differences and directly related to this study. Another cultural study that was presented in chapter two was the GLOBE project. The GLOBE researchers looked at various leadership practices and behaviors across a variety of cultures. The GLOBE researchers found that culture played a significant role on leadership behavior (Dorfman & House, 2004). Along with the presentation of literature regarding Hofstede's work and the GLOBE project, was a discussion involving other cross-cultural comparative studies by Aimar and Stough (2007) and Matviuk (2006). Aimar and Stough's and Matviuk's studies indicated and validated that culture directly influences leadership behaviors.

The concept of universal leadership characteristics was presented in chapter four. Research indicated that there is still division between researchers

who believe there are universal leadership characteristics that transcend cultural boundaries and those who do not. The concept of globalization was examined as it related to inter-cultural influences on cultural specific behaviors or attitudes. Banks (2008) argued that globalization was having extensive effects on communities and cultures across the globe. The development of the new term *Global Leadership* was discussed and presented as an example of global influences on leadership practices.

A key point addressed in this study was the idea that there is insufficient cross-cultural training in many multi-cultural organizations. Data collected by Littrell and Salas (2005) and other researchers was presented in chapter four. The data collected by Littrell and Salas indicated that there was a need for more cross-cultural training and that understanding cultural differences was essential to preparing individuals for cross-cultural assignments. The final literature that was reviewed in chapter four involved the development and applicability of the LPI survey. Research indicated that the LPI had a high level of reliability and validity regarding Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership.

Chapter 3 – Methodology. Presented in chapter three was a discussion of the research methodology and research plan for this study. Chapter three included (a) a restatement of the problem and purpose, (b) research questions, (c) hypotheses, (d) description of the research design, (e) selection of the participants, (f) procedures, (g) discussion of data processing, (h) methodological assumptions, limitations, and delimitations, and (i) ethical assurances. As many

of these areas have been covered elsewhere in this summary, only a few areas are covered below.

This study was designed to gather evidence about leadership differences between two cultures. In order to collect the data, a quantitative research approach was utilized. The instrument used to collect the data was Kouzes and Posner's (2007) LPI survey. The version of the LPI used in this study was a thirty question, ten-point Likert-scale survey, with six questions for measuring each of the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). A detailed research plan was prepared and executed during the data collection phase of this study.

The research methodology for this study had inherent weaknesses and limitations. A few potential weaknesses of a quantitative approach are (a) random sampling error, (b) systematic error, and (c) nonresponse error (Zikmund, 2003). Several controls and procedures were implemented throughout the data collection phase to reduce the probability of (a) random sampling error, (b) systematic error, and (c) nonresponse error. For example, random sampling was conducted using sampling frames and a random number generator, which helped reduce researcher preference during sample selection.

Another limitation identified in this study involved the applicability of the research results to other organizations. The results of the study were based on a limited scope and populations. The populations under investigation were Dutch and American leaders in a NATO organization at Geilenkirchen Air Base, Germany. Due to the scope of this study and the populations under investigation,

the generalization of the results to greater populations should be restricted to NATO. However, the concepts and ideas of understanding, exploring, and discovering cultural differences may be applicable to other organizations and industries.

Before data collection began, a study proposal was developed and submitted for institutional review and approval. No data was collected prior to institutional approval. Participation in this study was on a voluntary basis. All planned procedures for the study were designed to adhere to principles established by the APA Ethics Code (2002) and all policies developed and required by Northcentral University (NCU).

Chapter 4 – Findings. Presented in chapter four were the findings and analysis of the collected data. Chapter four included the following areas, (a) survey response rate, (b) post-hoc power analysis, (c) demographics, (d) distribution of data, (e) descriptive statistics, (f) statistical test results, and (g) analysis of Kruskal-Wallis test.

The response rate was 96.9% for the American sample and 80.6% for the Dutch sample. The gender distribution for the American sample was 81% male and 19% female. The gender distribution for the Dutch sample was 90% male and 10% female.

A post-hoc power analysis revealed a power of .70 based on the sample sizes. According to the means provided in the descriptive statistics, a comparison of the means indicated that, on average, American leaders in the sample exhibited each of the five practices more often than Dutch leaders in the sample.

The results of the data distribution analysis indicated that a nonparametric test was appropriate. Consequently, the Kruskal-Wallis test was utilized as the analysis tool for this study. The Kruskal-Wallis test provided data that helped answer the research questions and helped test the hypotheses. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated that a significant difference did exist between American and Dutch leaders at Geilenkirchen Air Base to exhibit each of the five leadership practices.

Conclusions

The data collected in this study revealed that differences did exist regarding leadership practices between American and Dutch leaders stationed at Geilenkirchen Air Base, Germany. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test involving the comparison of the means of each culture across all five practices supported the acceptance of all the alternative hypotheses and rejection of all the null hypotheses. The results of this study may provide NATO leadership with insight into the role culture plays in influencing perceptions and behaviors of leadership by showing differences in how individuals from different cultures exhibit specific leadership practices. This section includes discussion involving (a) implications, (b) support of prior literature, (c) questions, hypotheses, and findings, (d) desired leadership expectations and behaviors, (e) military influences, and (f) new evidence.

Implications. Along with providing NATO leadership with insight into the role culture plays in influencing leadership practices, there are other implications that can be taken from the data. First, there are pre-conceived and commonly

accepted concepts regarding the two studied cultures. For example, prior research indicated that individual freedom and being consulted are higher priorities to Dutch than to Americans (Georgas, 1996, p. 206). The data collected in this study indicated a different affiliation towards consultation and freedom in the studied populations. Central tenets of the leadership practice, enabling others to act, include individual freedom to act and consultation between leaders and subordinates during decision-making processes.

Within the LPI there are specific questions that address the concepts of freedom and consultation, such as, (a) "supports the decisions people make on their own," and (b) "gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work," and (c) "develops cooperative relationship among the people he/she works with" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). For the leadership practice enabling other to act, the Americans (M = 49.50) had a higher mean than the Dutch (M = 42.21) in the studied populations. The data indicated that the American leaders in the population had a greater tendency to stress freedom and coordination with their subordinates. This is an important finding, as it does not follow previously held concepts and ideas regarding the studied populations. Organizational leaders should be cognizant and cautious about accepting previously held concepts in all contexts. Within the context of this study, American leaders appeared to exhibit a greater tendency of allowing more personal freedom in job performance and cooperation in decision-making.

A second implication from this study is that within the populations there was not an accepted or exhibited set of universal leadership practices. Across all

five practices, the data indicate that there were significant differences between the tendencies of the cultures to exhibit each of the five practices. The data in this study support the concept that there is not an accepted set of universal leadership practices.

Another implication derived from this study involved the impact of globalization on leadership behavior. Banks (2008) suggested that globalization is having extensive effects on communities and cultures across the globe. Likewise, Dorfman and House (2004) indicated that there was evidence that suggested cultural convergence. While globalized cultural influence and cultural convergence may be the case in specific circumstances, it was not the case in this study. Within the studied populations, there was no evidence to suggest that globalization was influencing leadership behavior or that there was a sense of cultural convergence. Conversely, the data indicate that there is still a significant difference in leadership behavior between the two studied cultures. Despite evidence showing cultural convergence, organizational leaders should understand that differences still exist in culturally diverse environments.

Support of prior literature. The results of this study support prior research and literature involving the same subject matter, but provided new evidence and findings important to cross-cultural leadership studies. Research by Aimar and Stough (2007), Hofstede (2001), GLOBE researchers, Matviuk (2006) and this study indicated that culture does influence individual behavior. While this study was designed to answer five research questions and related hypotheses, an analysis of the data uncovered new ideas regarding culture and leadership.

An example of new concepts is found when comparing the results of this study with one of Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions. A comparison of the data regarding the leadership practices of encouraging the heart and enabling others to act and Hofstede's data regarding masculinity scores for American and Dutch revealed that previously held expectations might not apply in a leadership context. Masculine societies are seen as being more assertive and competitive, where as feminine societies are classified as more caring and modest (Hofstede, 2001). The masculinity scores for the U.S. and NL were 62 and 14, respectively (Hofstede, 2003).

The lower score, 14, found in Hofstede's (2003) research indicated that the Dutch had a greater tendency to be more caring and modest than Americans. Conversely, the data in this study indicate that in the studied populations there appeared to be a greater concept of caring by American leaders than Dutch leaders based on the mean scores for two related leadership practices, enable others to act and encourage the heart. Caring and modesty are central tenants of the leadership practices of enabling others to act and encouraging the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Based on Hofstede's (2003) masculinity scores, an expectation that the Dutch should have had a higher mean for the leadership practices enabling others to act and encouraging the heart is possible. The data in this study indicate otherwise. When comparing the means between both cultures and across each practice, American leaders scored higher. The data in this study indicated that previously held beliefs about cultural differences may not be applicable across all contexts within the studied cultures.

This study provided new evidence regarding differences in specific leadership practices in a NATO organization. The concept of cultural diversity inspires the acceptance or realization of cultural differences. Knowing that people are different is not enough to successfully lead in today's global marketplace. Leaders need to know *how* people are different. This study provided new data that indicated how personnel are different in NATO. The data in the study indicated that American and Dutch personnel in the populations had different tendencies of exhibiting specific leadership practices. This data is new and provides NATO leadership with evidence regarding how two cultures are different in relation to leadership practices.

This study was important for several reasons. First, there was little literature on cross-cultural leadership involving NATO military personnel found during numerous database queries. This study may provide NATO leadership quantifiable evidence of leadership differences and may help justify and encourage the need for CCT throughout NATO.

Second, the data indicated that previously help concepts and ideas of the two studied cultures did not apply within the context of this study. This is important because misconceptions in culturally diverse environments can be detrimental to the organization's effectiveness (Hong, 2005; Robbins & Judge, 2007). The data in this study may help organizations maximize the benefits of diversity by helping leaders understand and realize misconceptions regarding members of their organization.

Third, this study refuted the concept of accepted universal leadership characteristics within the populations. Understanding that there is not a set of accepted universal leadership characteristics is important and may help organizations develop leaders who exhibit the concept of global leadership. Global leadership entails influencing others across cultural and national borders (Mobley & Dorfman, 2003).

Lastly, this study indicated that despite globalization there was no indication of cultural convergence between the two cultures. The data indicated that significant differences still existed between the two cultures. The assumption of similarities between two cultures could negatively influence future training and development programs. This study is important as it provided data that indicated that leaders should be cautious about assuming that cultural similarities exists within their organization and to what extent.

Questions, hypotheses, and findings. There were five research questions designed for this study. The research questions were developed to answer the question, to what extent, if any, is there a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit each of the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership: (a) challenge the process, (b) enable others to act, (c) encourage the heart, (d) inspire a shared vision, and (d) model the way (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). This study answered each of the five research questions. The mean scores calculated in this study indicate that American leaders in the populations, on average, had a higher tendency to exhibit each of the five leadership practices. To answer the research questions, the Kruskal-Wallis test

was used to determine if the differences were significant. Based on an alpha of .05, the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test indicate that there is a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit each of the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

The null hypotheses were designed to test if there was no significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit each of the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). According to the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, all p values were below the alpha of .05, which allowed for the rejection of all five null hypotheses. The alternative hypotheses were developed to test if there was a significant difference between Dutch and American leaders' tendency to exhibit each of the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership, as measured by the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Based on the outcome of the Kruskal-Wallis test and rejection of the five null hypotheses, all five alternative hypotheses were accepted.

Desired leadership expectations and behaviors. This study was designed to show that culture can play a role in leadership practices and that differences in leadership practices should be expected in a multi-cultural environment. The study does not address culturally influenced expectations and desired behaviors involving leadership. North American researchers James Kouzes and Barry Posner designed the LPI survey. Consequently, the concepts and expectations of exemplary leadership are influenced by western dominated research and ideas. With this in mind, the results of this study do not indicate that the leaders

of one culture are better than the other. Rather, this study meets the purpose of examining if differences existed between the tendencies of the leaders from each culture to exhibit each of the pre-defined leadership practices. The data collected in this study indicate that differences do exist between the two cultures across each of the five leadership practices.

Dorfman and House (2004) explained that Dutch leadership expectations and attitudes vary greatly from North American perspectives. Dorfman and House suggested that the Dutch are far less enthusiastic about leadership than Americans. This attitude towards leadership appeared to be evident during the data collection phase of this study. Dutch participants, on the whole, seemed to be less enthusiastic about participating in a leadership study. The number of Dutch military personnel who provided their consent to participate supported Dorfman and House's assertion. Approximately 50% of the Dutch population consented to participate or completed the survey. Of those who did consent, multiple reminders were often required to initiate survey completion. This is in contrast to the resulting American participation. Eighty-five potential US participants were sent an invitation and consent form and 66 provided consent, with 64 completing the survey. This was calculated to be a 78% consent rate.

While the data indicate that there was a greater willingness from the American population to participate in this study, the data cannot definitively prove that the Dutch consent and response rate were solely influenced by attitudes towards leadership. Further research into this matter is warranted and needed.

Research into this matter could reveal data about attitudes towards leadership as well as attitudes towards research in general.

Military influences. The data collected in this study reveal that differences do exist between American and Dutch military personnel stationed at Geilenkirchen Air Base, Germany. The structure of this study utilized the independent variable, culture, as the grouping variable for comparing the calculated means. Identification of culture for the research participants was accomplished by determining the individual's national military membership. Consequently, it is important to consider the concept that military association could have had an influence on the results of this study.

An important tenet of the leadership practice, enabling others to act, is trust (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Additionally, trust between leader and subordinate span across all the examined leadership practices (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). This is important, as reviewed literature indicated a difference in attitude towards leadership-subordinate trust between American and Dutch militaries. Vogelaar (2007) explained that in the Dutch Armed Forces there is a prevalence of a low trust/high distrust disposition. This disposition implies that leaders have little trust in their subordinates' performance. This is in contrast to USAF leadership doctrine, which promotes the development and maintenance of trust across all levels of the organization (United States Air Force, 2006).

The results of this study indicated that differences did exist in leaders' tendency to exhibit specific leadership practices between the two populations, which was the scope of the study. The data in this study provide quantifiable

justification for future research. Proving and substantiating that there are important differences in leadership behavior behaviors across cultures are a first step towards helping organizations develop CCT programs. However, more research is needed to determine what factors from each culture are directly influencing leadership behavior, such as trust and distrust.

New evidence. This study provided new evidence for NATO organizations to consider. The data from this study supply quantifiable evidence that significant differences existed between two NATO member states. This evidence is new and important to the NATO organization. Picciano (2007) explained that cross-cultural training and awareness is needed in NATO as a means to improve organizational effectiveness. Littrell and Salas (2005) pointed out that understanding cultural differences was key to developing cultural awareness.

North Atlantic Treaty Organization missions are multinational and span the globe. American and Dutch militaries are actively engaged in security activities in Afghanistan and are involved in other peacekeeping operations worldwide (Gates, 2007). The effectiveness of NATO operations is directly influenced by the dynamics associated with cross-cultural cooperation (Picciano, 2007). This study provided new evidence that there are key differences in American and Dutch leadership practices in a NATO organization. Consequently, this study revealed specific differences in leadership practices, but also revealed that there is more research needed to better understand cultural influences on leadership behavior.

The specific meaning that may be garnered from this study is that culture association can influence leadership behaviors. The results of this study support

Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory. Contingency theorists posit that societal culture influences individual leadership behaviors (Aimar & Stough, 2007; Albritton, 2007; Gilkey, 2005; Goelzer, 2003; House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002; Rodsutti & Swierczek, 2002; Yavas & Rezayat, 2003), as well as perceptions of and approaches to leadership (House et al., 2002; Robbins & Judge, 2007). This study also provided new data on how two cultures differ across five leadership practices.

For NATO this study has specific meaning. Picciano (2007) explained that NATO mission effectiveness is contingent upon cross-cultural awareness. This study provided new evidence that there are key differences in leadership practices between two NATO members. NATO leadership should be cognizant of the differences discovered during this study.

Based on USAF doctrine and Vogelaar's (2007) study, there are different expectations involving leadership behavior. This means that in NATO, American personnel should be aware of normal Dutch leadership behavior and understand the specific differences when compared to their own expectations. Likewise, Dutch leaders should consider the leadership expectations of Americans in their organizations.

The concepts of understanding leadership practices and expectations are bi-directional. Developing cross-cultural awareness may have a direct influence on task effectiveness involving American and Dutch personnel in NATO. Likewise, understanding differences in leadership behavior may have an impact on morale. When normal expectations, such as trust, are not met there may be

an adverse effect on morale, which could negatively influence mission effectiveness. It is important for individuals and leaders to understand cultural leadership differences as a means to avoid misunderstandings and disappointment when culturally idealistic leadership expectations are not met. The results of this study provided data that could help NATO and individuals avoid misunderstandings and disappointment.

Avoiding misunderstandings and disappointment could allow for the positive aspects of diversity to be exploited. Robbins and Judge (2007) explained that to become an efficient and effective leader in today's global environment, it is essential for leaders to embrace and understand the value of diversity. A part of valuing diversity is learning to appreciate the cultural differences of others. This study provided evidence of cultural differences between two independent cultures, which may be a means for NATO leaders to take advantage of cultural diversity in their units.

The effectiveness of NATO missions may be contingent upon the ability of individual's to understand culturally influenced leadership practices. NATO has a responsibility to help members develop their cross-cultural awareness. A key meaning that may be taken from this study is that differences do exist and that NATO and individuals should increase their knowledge about cultural differences to better prepare themselves for cross-cultural activities. This study provided evidence that could help in that endeavor.

Recommendations

The call for more cross-cultural research can be found throughout various studies and literature. This study is no different. The intent of this study was to examine if the leaders from the two identified cultures had different tendencies to exhibit each of the five leadership practices: (a) challenge the process, (b) enable others to act, (c) encourage the heart, (d) inspire a shared vision, and (e) model the way. What this study does not reveal is if the participants in both cultures agree that these practices are desired or needed. The differences uncovered in this study may be influenced by the expectations and desires of subordinates and leaders to exhibit certain leadership behaviors. This section is divided into two subsections: (a) duplication of study and (b) future research.

Duplication of study. If this study were to be duplicated, there are a few ideas that should be considered. First, while email and electronic surveys provide convenience and flexibility, a more personal approach and contact with potential respondents could be beneficial to participation of the populations. Personal contact with randomly selected participants could help in encouraging participation and minimizing survey apprehension. In addition, this approach would allow for open dialog when questions about the survey arise.

Second, due to the small size of the Dutch military population, the sample size of the Dutch culture was limited. This could be overcome by including civilian personnel at Geilenkirchen Air Base as part of the studied Dutch population. By increasing the size of the total Dutch population and sample sizes the accuracy and reliability of the data would increase.

Third, while the Dutch in the sample population were proficient in the English language, it could be beneficial to the study to provide the respondents an option of taking the survey in Dutch or English. This approach could help minimize any misunderstandings regarding terminology within the survey, which improves the accuracy and reliability of the study.

Lastly, more time and resources would allow for the expansion of this study. The study could include (a) interviewing of participants, (b) inclusion of multiple NATO bases, (c) inclusion of more than two cultures, (d) utilization of a 360° survey approach, (e) translation of survey into several languages, and (f) development of a new survey instrument.

Future research. More research is needed to examine what leadership practices are desired, expected, and needed by various cultures. This study was a first step to helping organizations develop an effective CCT program and quantified that leadership differences exist. Littrell and Salas (2005) explained that an important facet of a CCT program is developing cultural awareness, which is directly influenced by the development of an understanding of cultural differences (Fish, 2005; Hurn, 2007; Hutchings, 2003) and cultural intelligence (Triandis, 2006).

In the future, leadership researchers should examine what leadership behaviors are desired for each of the cultures examined in this study. Additionally, the scope of the research should be expanded to include other variables, such as (a) age, (b) generation of participants, and (c) education level.

Research conducted by Ree (2003) showed that leadership preferences and expectations varied across generational lines and education levels.

Future research should include data collection on the impact that poor cross-cultural awareness is having on multi-cultural organizations. Data collected on the impact of poor cross-cultural awareness may give organizations quantifiable justification for implementing CCT development programs. Additionally, research is needed to determine what specific factors are influencing leadership behaviors in different cultures. Next, the size of the populations should be expanded beyond the levels of this research study. An increase in the populations and sample sizes of future research may allow for a greater generalization of the results compared to this research study. Also, future research should be conducted with populations that are not strictly military related.

Finally, research is needed to examine the level of influence, if any, cross-cultural leadership is having on individual and group performance and behavior. Such research could be designed to determine if leaders of different cultures are influencing individual behavior, preferences, and ideas. With the growing number of multi-national organizations this could be a valuable line of research in helping organizations develop global leaders.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A:

LPI Survey

To what extent does your immediate supervisor typically engage in the following behaviors? Choose the number that best applies to each statement.

<u>Response Legend</u>

1 = Almost Never	6 = Sometimes
2 = Rarely	7 = Fairly Often
3 = Seldom	8 = Usually
4 = Once in a while	9 = Very Frequently
5 = Occasionally	10 = Almost Always

1. ____ Seeks out challenging opportunities that tests his/her own skills and abilities
2. ____ Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done
3. ____ Develops cooperative relationship among the people he/she works with
4. ____ Sets a personal example of what he/she expects from others
5. ____ Praises people for a job well done
6. ____ Challenges people to try out new and innovative approaches to their work
7. ____ Describes a compelling image of what our future could be like
8. ____ Actively listens to diverse points of view
9. ____ Spends time and energy on making certain that the people he/she works with adhere to the principles and standards that we have agreed on
10. ____ Makes it a point to let people know about his/her confidence in their abilities
11. ____ Searches outside the formal boundaries of our organization for innovative ways to improve what we do
12. ____ Appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future
13. ____ Treats others with dignity and respect
14. ____ Follows through on the promises and commitments he/she makes
15. ____ Makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects
16. ____ Asks "What can we learn?" when things do not go as expected
17. ____ Shows others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision
18. ____ Supports the decisions people make on their own
19. ____ Is clear about his/her philosophy of leadership
20. ____ Publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values
21. ____ Experiments and takes risks even when there is a chance of failure
22. ____ Is contagiously enthusiastic and positive about future possibilities
23. ____ Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work
24. ____ Makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on
25. ____ Finds ways to celebrate accomplishments
26. ____ Takes the initiative to overcome obstacles even when outcomes are uncertain
27. ____ Speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work
28. ____ Ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves
29. ____ Makes progress towards goals one-step at a time
30. ____ Gives the members of the team lots of appreciation & support for their contributions

APPENDIX B:

Copyright Approval

KOUZES POSNER INTERNATIONAL
15419 Banyan Lane
Monte Sereno, California 95030 USA
FAX: (408) 354-9170

September 3, 2008

Mr. Matthew Reagan
PSC 7 Box 306
APO, AE 09104
Email: matthew.reagan@geilenkirchen.af.mil

Dear Matthew:

Thank you for your request to use the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) in your dissertation. We are willing to allow you to *reproduce* the instrument in written form as outlined in your request, at no charge, with the following understandings:

> (1) That the LPI is used only for research purposes and is not sold or used in conjunction with any compensated management development activities;
> (2) That copyright of the LPI, or any derivation of the instrument, is retained by the authors, and that the following copyright statement is included on all copies of the instrument: "Copyright © 2003 James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. All rights reserved. Used with permission.";
> (3) That one (1) **electronic** copy of your dissertation and one (1) copy of **all** papers, reports, articles, and the like which make use of the LPI data be sent **promptly** to our attention; and,
> (4) That you agree to allow us to include an abstract of your study and any other published papers utilizing the LPI on our various websites.

If the terms outlined above are acceptable, would you indicate so by signing one (1) copy of this letter and returning it to us. Best wishes for every success with your research project.

Cordially,

Barry Z. Posner, Ph.D.
Managing Partner

I understand and agree to abide by these conditions:

(Signed) _Matthew Reagan_ _____ Date: _5 Sep 08_

APPENDIX C:

Electronic Permission Agreement

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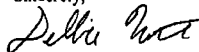September 23, 2008

Matthew Reagan
PSC 7 Box 306
APO, AE 09104

Dear Mr. Reagan:

Thank you for your request for permission to use the LPI Observer (the "Work") in an online survey setting such as Survey Monkey.

The Use: You may place the LPI Observer questions into a password-protected online survey setting and may collect data based on those questions.

1. Permission is granted for this Use, however, no rights are granted to use any content that appears in the Material or the Work with credit to another source.

2. Credit to our Work will appear as follows: *The Leadership Practices Inventory, 3rd Edition, Self Instrument* by James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner, Copyright 2007 by John Wiley & Sons., Inc. All rights reserved. Reprinted by permission of John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

3. We have received your payment of $50 for this Use.

4. This license is non-transferable. This license shall automatically terminate if you fail to exercise the rights granted hereunder to use the Material for the specified term or comply with the terms herein.

5. You agree to supply us with a copy of your research results and any papers you write based on this research when your project is completed.

Sincerely,

Debbie Notkin
Contracts Manager

APPENDIX D:

U.S. Survey Approval Letter

DEPARTMENT OF THE AIR FORCE
GEILENKIRCHEN NATO AIR BASE, GERMANY

17 Sep 2008

MEMORANDUM FOR NORTHCENTRAL UNIVERSITY

FROM: AFELM/CC
Colonel Eugene W. Mittuch
Unit 3485
APO AE 09104

SUBJECT: Research Approval

1. Enclosure (1), Concept Paper, has been reviewed and approved. Capt Reagan has my full support to conduct the required research involving US military personnel at Geilenkirchen Air Base in order for him to fulfill his dissertation requirements at Northcentral University.

2. My point of contact for this matter is Capt Anthony Pinto at (0049) 2451633502 or email at anthony.pinto@geilenkirchen.af.mil.

EUGENE W. MITTUCH, Colonel, USAF
Commander, Air Force Element

APPENDIX E:

Dutch Survey Approval Letter

NATO UNCLASSIFIED

E-3A COMPONENT
NATO AIRBORNE EARLY WARNING & CONTROL FORCE

SENIOR NATIONAL REPRESENTATIVE

OF THE NETHERLANDS
D-52511 Geilenkirchen, NATO Air Base
APO AE 09104 P.O. Box 433001
Tel : 02451-63-2003

0900/E-3ACGD/496251/08

AAN: NORTHCENTRAL UNIVERSITY

BETREFT: Research Approval

DATUM: 17 september 2008

1. Enclosure (1), Concept Paper, has been reviewed and approved. Capt Reagan has my full support to conduct the required research involving Dutch military personnel at Geilenkirchen Air Base in order for him to fulfill his dissertation requirements at Northcentral University.

2. My point of contact for this matter is Sgt1 Oscar Bebelaar at (0049) 2451632003 or e-mail at obebelaar@e3a.nato.int

Ton Van Happen
Colonel, RNLAF
Deputy Commander, E-3A Component
NL Senior National Representative

APPENDIX F:

Selection and Consent Message

Notification of Selection and Informed Consent Request

Comparison of Dutch and American Leadership Practices in a NATO Organization

Purpose. You have been randomly selected to participate in a study that evaluates the differences in leadership practices exhibited by Dutch and American military personnel at Geilenkirchen Air Base, Germany. The results may aid NATO in the development of understanding of the influence culture has on leadership practices and the development of effective cross-cultural training programs.

Participation requirements. You were randomly chosen as a participant in this study. Your respective Senior National Representative has given their permission for this study to be conducted. You will be asked to complete a 30-question survey that ranks responses from almost never to almost always. It should take approximately 15-20 minutes for you to complete. You will be ranking your immediate national supervisor based on your observations. The survey will be conducted through the Bold Online Survey System (BOSS) website.

Research Personnel. Matthew E. Reagan may be contacted at his extension: (49) (0) 2451 63 3526; mreagan@gk.e3a.nato.int; matthew.reagan@geilenkirchen.af.mil

Potential Risk/ Discomfort. You are under no obligation to participate in this study. You may withdraw at any point with no fear of repercussion. You are asked to make every effort to answer all questions. Your responses will not be distributed and you are asked not to share your responses with other participants.

Anonymity/ Confidentiality. The information gathered in this survey is completely confidential. The BOSS application anonymously reports responses and provides reports free of participant details. All published reports and results will be free of personal data. In addition, the names of the ranked leaders will not be reported or published.

Use of data. The data collected will be used in the completion of a doctoral dissertation. An electronic copy of the completed dissertation will be provided upon request.

Consent. I have read the above description of the Comparison of Dutch and American Leadership Practices in a NATO Organization study and understand the conditions of my participation. By selecting the *Yes* voting button I agree to participate in the experiment. After receiving your response you will receive an email with a hyperlink that will direct you to the survey.

Please feel free to ask questions regarding this study. Your responses are greatly appreciated. You may contact Matthew E. Reagan with questions at: (49) (0) 2451 63 3526; mreagan@gk.e3a.nato.int; matthew.reagan@geilenkirchen.af.mil

APPENDIX G:

Participant Instructions

Introduction. You previously provided your consent to participate in a study that evaluates the differences in leadership practices exhibited by Dutch and American military personnel at Geilenkirchen Air Base, Germany. The data collected in this study will be used to help complete a doctoral dissertation. Thank you for offering to take time to assist in the completion of this study.

Survey. You are asked to complete Kouzes and Posner's (2007) Leadership Practice Inventory through the Bold Online Survey System. The survey contains 30-questions, with each question having a possible answer ranging from almost never to almost always. You should be able to complete the survey in approximately 15-20 minutes. If you have questions at any point, please contact me at (49) (0) 2451 63 3526 or mreagan@gk.e3a.nato.int.

Instructions. Please utilize the attached hyperlink to complete the survey. Follow the instructions provided with the survey carefully. After completion of the survey your participation is complete. If you would like an electronic copy of the completed report, please notify me and one will be provided upon completion of the study.

Confidentiality. Full confidentiality is assured throughout this study. Personal information will not be reported or shared at any point.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

APPENDIX H:

Completion Message

Dear Participant,

The Bold Online Survey System has notified me that you have completed the requested survey. I would like to thank you once again for taken time to complete the survey. Your answers are an invaluable part of the study.

Your responses will be reported, free of personal data, and analyzed to examine if differences exists between the leadership practices exhibited by Dutch and American leaders at Geilenkirchen Air Base, Germany. The provided information should be helpful in aiding others in developing a better understanding of leadership differences in a cross-cultural environment and may assist NATO in the development of cross-cultural training programs.

If you have any questions, please contact me at: (49) (0) 2451 63 3526 or mreagan@gk.e3a.nato.int.

Sincerely,

Matthew E. Reagan
Learner, Northcentral University