INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

UMI®

The Pennsylvania State University

The Graduate School

College of Health und Human Development

COMPARISON OF THE PERCEPTION OF TRANSFORMATIONAL

LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES, SKILLS AND TRAITS

BETWEEN HOSPITALITY STUDENTS FROM THE

UNITED STATES AND FOUR ASIAN COUNTRIES

A Thesis in

Man-Environment Relations

by

Michael Vieregge

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

December 2000

UMI Number: 9998452

UMI®

UMI Microform 9998452

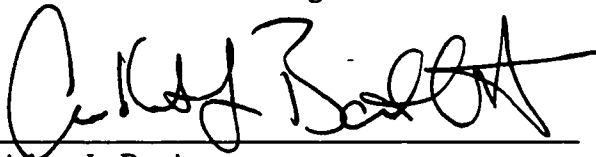We approve the thesis of Michael Vieregge.

Date of Signature

Elwood L. Shafer
Professor of Tourism and Environmental
    Management
Thesis Advisor, Chair of Committee

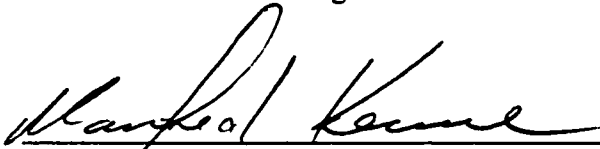21 Sept 2000

Frederick J. DeMicco
Associate Professor of Hotel, Restaurant and
    Recreation Management

27 September 2000

Albert L. Bartlett
Assistant Professor of Hotel, Restaurant and
    Recreation Management

9 27 00

Manfred Keune
Associate Professor of German Literature

9/27/00

Sara C. Parks
Associate Professor, Director, School of Hotel,
    Restaurant, and Recreation Management

9/27/00

ABSTRACT

This study provides U.S. hospitality management educators with insight into how to prepare their students for global work assignments in some of Asia's major emerging hospitality markets: Hong Kong, India, the People's Republic of China (PRC) and Taiwan. Educators must prepare their graduates for those U.S. hospitality businesses that intend to expand globally and into these Asian markets. The study also provides hospitality businesses with information, suggestions, and guidelines appropriate for selecting hospitality students for successful assignments overseas. It identifies preferred leadership qualities of hospitality students from Hong Kong, India, the People's Republic of China (PRC) and Taiwan and compares them with those of hospitality students from the U.S. At the time of the study, all of the students involved were spending a semester abroad at English-speaking hospitality programs in Switzerland.

Following the theories pronounced by Hofstede (1995)* and Trompenaars (1994), the study proceeded on the premise that national cultures are vastly different, and that these differences extend to the perceptions and acceptance of supervisors and leaders. The study tested two hypotheses: (1) That cultural differences exist between the student groups, (2) The students prefer certain leadership attributes and that differences in these preferences exist among the five groups, and (3) Based on the results of Objectives 1 and 2, recommendations for four-year bachelor hospitality management programs in the U.S.

* Originally published in 1980 but the author used a 1995 Edition.

All three objectives focused on comparing the U.S. students with each of the four Asian cultures.

The study found that one cannot apply Hofstede's (1995) approach to much smaller studies like this, but that one can use alternative statistical approaches. Furthermore, in contrast to Hofstede, who reported differences among the cultures, this study found both similarities and differences in leadership attribute preferences, indicating that future research involving national culture should apply the Hofstede findings cautiously because the younger generation of students appears to be less divergent attitudinally than its parents.

By understanding the different leadership preferences among future indigenous managers from Asia, companies entering these foreign markets can hire U.S. hospitality management graduates for these markets with more precision and certainty. In turn, these staffing guidelines for managerial positions abroad should increase managerial effectiveness, reduce the number of failed assignments, and reduce the substantial cost occasioned by managerial failure.

Globalization	Cultural Differences
Expatriate Manager	Cultural Competencies
Transformational Leader	Leadership Perception

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation could not have been completed without the help, support and encouragement of many people whom I like to thank at this time. I am extremely grateful to Dr. Shafer who oversaw the completion of this research with patience and valuable advice. I also thank Professor Frederik J. DeMicco, Professor Albert L. Bartlett, and Professor Manfred Keune for their time and effort as members of my doctoral committee. I would also like to thank Professor HaeMoon Oh for his advice and Mr. John Swinton for his help in editing this study.

Most grateful am I to my wife, Linda, and my children, Karsten, Wallis Anne and Max, who provided me with the love and encouragement to finish this dissertation.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

In the future, United States hospitality companies seem certain to expand abroad at an accelerated rate (Cetron and DeMicco, 1995). But (1) they have been slow to create intercultural training programs for the managers they send abroad, and (2) they have yet to understand fully the managerial traits and skills desired and expected in the host countries (Shames, 1986). Shay and Tracey (1997) estimated that the hospitality industry's managerial failure rate is higher than the overall U.S. economy's 40 percent failure rate for expatriate managers, and this high managerial failure rate abroad costs U.S. businesses in excess of $2 billion annually (Black and Mendenhall, 1990).

In particular, the emerging markets of the People's Republic of China and India, as well as similar markets in Hong Kong and Taiwan will continue to attract investment in hospitality businesses. As accelerated development of the hospitality industry continues to accelerate in the Pacific Rim countries and Southeast Asia, hospitality education systems need to provide students with a deep appreciation for and understanding of the differences in culture and leadership perceptions between Asian and U.S. students, as stressed by Gerstner and Day (1994) and Cichy (1992), both of whom underscored the need for universities to provide tomorrow's U.S. hospitality trained managers with a deeper understanding of how to cope with and relate to their counterparts in other nations whose leadership and cultural values are quite different.

On the other hand, scholars of post-modernism and post-colonialism (notably Apparadai, 1990; and Lovell, 1995) have predicted that technology -- and in particular, telecommunications, worldwide business and commerce expansion, the globalization of advertising (the world of Coca-Cola and McDonald's), and the commercialization of all cultures -- will break down cultural differences and make national cultures obsolete in the "world-village" of the future (Giroux, 1994; Mitchell, 1995). Many business executives share the view that Anglo corporate culture will be so pervasive that national differences become unimportant (American Management Association, 1995).

If however, national cultures are, indeed, becoming homogenized as rapidly as the cultural geographers of post-modernism suppose, there would be less evidence of cultural differences than there is. But Cichy (1992), Gestner and Day (1994), and Punnett, Singh and Williams (1994) clearly documented the existence of profound cultural differences in approaches to business and management. Their findings support the empirical work of Hofstede (1995)*, Ralston, Gustafson, Elsass, Cheung and Terpstra (1992), and Trompenaars (1994), who contended that the existence of differences and similarities between national cultures are at the center of commercial and non-commercial contact between nations.

* Hofstede's work was first published in 1980. The author used an 1995 reprinted edition.

Statement of the Problem

From a hospitality education perspective, the accelerated growth of the hospitality industry in Asian countries, and the opportunities for U.S. trained hospitality professionals to operate successfully in those countries, necessitates research to determine significant differences in leadership characteristics and cultural values between U.S. trained students and their counterparts from Asian countries. U.S. hospitality educators can use the results of this research to train students more effectively for multicultural management situations in foreign assignments. In the past, hospitality schools and the hospitality industry in general have spent only meager resources on efforts to determine the magnitude of the differences, if any, between U.S. hospitality students from those Asian countries – where American trained hospitality students could be working in the future (Shames, 1986; Black and Mendenhall, 1990; Gamio and Sneed, 1992).

Research Objectives

This study had these three major objectives:

(1) To determine if a significant difference exists in terms of five cultural dimensions, as described by Hofstede (1995), between American students and students from four Asian cultures (Hong Kong, India, the People's Republic of China, and Taiwan) -- all of whom were studying at ten hotel schools in Switzerland at the time of the study. These five cultural values were defined as follows:

<u>Power Distance (small to large).</u> This cultural value refers to how power in institutions and organizations is distributed. A small power distance is characterized by minimal inequalities, social mobility, and equal rights for superiors and subordinates within a culture. These distances are measured by using the scores on a Likert scale from 1 to 5 from answers to five questions about and statements describing this dimension.

<u>Uncertainty Avoidance (weak to strong).</u> Uncertainty avoidance describes a society's mechanism to avoid uncertain, ambiguous situations. A high number of rules and regulations govern relationships in strong uncertainty avoidance cultures. The differences are measured by using the Likert scores from answers to four questions about and statements describing this dimension.

<u>Masculinity – Femininity.</u> What kinds of values prevail within a culture? Masculine values include assertiveness, competition, and win-lose thinking. Feminine values include quality of life, interdependence, and win-win thinking. The differences are measured by using the Likert scores from answers to three questions about and statements describing this dimension.

<u>Individualism – Collectivism.</u> This dyad refers to a culture's value of autonomy, and the "I" consciousness. Individual decision making takes center stage: everyone takes care of himself or herself and everybody takes responsibilities for his or her own actions and lives. The differences are measured by using the Likert scores from answers to five questions about and statements describing this dimension.

<u>Long-term Orientation.</u> How much value is placed on the present, past or future within a culture? Are decisions made for short-term or long term outcomes? The

differences are measured by using the scores from answers to three questions about and statements describing this dimension.

(2) To determine if significant difference exists in terms of five leadership dimensions, as described by Yukl (1994), between American students and students from each of four Asian cultures (Hong Kong, India, the People's Republic of China, and Taiwan) -- all of whom were studying at ten hotel schools in Switzerland at the time of the study. These five leadership dimensions were defined as follows:

Physical Attributes. One can describe physical characteristics of an individual by observing the person and relating the observations to a general description of appearance. This dimension includes the following nine physical attributes:

     is athletic,
     is trim and fit,
     is attractive,
     is healthy looking,
     is well-groomed,
     is well-dressed,
     is very energetic,
     is male, and
     is older in age.

Personality Traits. This leadership dimension includes those traits related to basic behavior and values that can be observed in people. The following nine traits were included in this dimension:

     has self-control,
     has integrity and a strong belief system,
     is unselfish and loyal to the group,
     has courage and takes risks,
     is mature,
     is creative,
     is a warm and approachable person,
     is honest, and
     has a good sense of humor.

Transformational Leadership Skills. This leadership dimension refers to
competence and knowledge to facilitate change and includes conceptual skills like
problem solving and idea creation as well charismatic traits. This dimension
included the following nine skills, traits and behaviors:

> creates a vision and aligns others with it,
> believes in reason only,
> is charismatic,
> is able to solve and create conflict,
> is able to align individuals with organizational goals,
> believes in situations where everybody wins (win-win),
> appreciates diversity,
> is entrepreneurial, and
> is constantly learning, changing and innovating.

Interpersonal Skills. This leadership dimension includes skills that refer to a
person's ability to interact successfully with other people. The nine skills
involved follow:

> seeks input for group-based decisions,
> is trustworthy and trusts and believes others,
> is able to communicate effectively,
> is an excellent listener,
> believes and participates in mentoring programs,
> supports mistakes and failure making,
> walks around and talks to people one-on-one,
> keeps promises, and
> is open to influence from others.

Administrative Skills. This leadership dimension includes skills of a leader in an
organization that refer to the ability to effectively plan, delegate, coach, and so
forth. The nine skills included in this dimension follow:

> challenges the way things are done,
> delegates effectively,
> shares information, knowledge, and ownership,
> ignores or destroys bureaucratic obstacles,
> plans for long-term well being and profitability,
> forms effective teams,

supports and believes in long-term training,
agrees to long-term employment guarantees, and
creates and delegates meaningful tasks.

(3)   Based on the results of Objectives 1 and 2, to prescribe specific subject matter

areas that are needed in U.S. based four-year hospitality management programs in

order to improve the capabilities of those students to cope with and succeed in

managerial assignments abroad.

Limitations of the Study

The research reported in this study included nine major limitations:

(1)   Hofstede's (1995) original survey was conducted for the IBM corporation

to establish cultural differences among the company's employees and

managers in 40 countries in order to determine how cultural differences

influenced management effectiveness. The study was administered

between 1967 and 1973, over 30 years ago. Since then no adjustments

have been proposed for Hofstede's methodology,

(2)   Telecommunications, globalization of brands and commercials over the

30 years since Hofstede's research, may have defined the generation

of students included in this research. These global influences might be

responsible for changes within the last three decades that reduced the

differences between students of this generation compared with those of

their parents

(3)   Categories from Hofstede's (1995) study have been widely used in business and behavior studies – for exmple Gerstner and Day (1994) -- but have not been used in research in the hospitality industry.

(4)   Multivariate statistical methods were not used by Hofstede (1995) to verify the factor structure of his categories.

(5)   Hofstede's (1995) data base (n = 116,000) was much larger than that of this research (n = 207), possibly creating problems when one applies methodology to the much smaller sample in this study.

(6)   Only students from four Asian nations were involved in this study; ideally, other major Asian countries could have been included.

(7)   Only ten of the 22 hotel schools in Switzerland agreed to participate in the study and four schools accounted for almost 80 percent of the usable questionnaire data.

(8)   No attempt was made to control for the overall English comprehension levels of the students in this study. All students spoke English and were enrolled in university programs conducted in English. The author assumed that those with English proficiency problems could not complete the questionnaire.

(9)   The author had to assume some bias toward "Western values" among those Asian students who attend schools in Switzerland. By studying in a Western culture, these students were more likely to be influenced by Western values than their counterparts in their home countries.

Chapter 2

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter examines the primary and secondary literature addressing

globalization issues, cultural geography, leadership theories, and perception theories as

they relate to the hospitality industry in general and to the objectives of this study in

particular. This literature review proves what Warren Bennis wrote in 1959 and what is

still true today:

> Of all the hazy and confounding areas of social psychology,
> leadership theory undoubtedly contends for top nomination.
> And, ironically, probably more has been written and less known
> about leadership than any other topic in the behavioral sciences (p. 259).

Globalization of the Hospitality Industry

In the last ten years, U.S. hospitality organizations have increasingly looked

abroad to sustain the continuous growth their shareholders expect. Table 2.1 shows, for

example, that McDonald's increase of units between 1989 and 1994 came mainly outside

of the U.S.

Table 2.1: McDonald's Growth in Number of Units Between 1989 and 1994

	1994	**1989**	**% Change**
U.S.	9,744	8,270	17.8
Abroad	5,461	2,891	88.9
Total	15,205	11,161	36.2

Sales data for the same time period in Table 2.2 support this globalization by

McDonald's where most of the sales increases occur outside of the U.S.

Table 2.2: McDonald's Growth in System Sales ($Million) Between 1889 and 1994

	1994	**1989**	**% Change**
US	14,941	12,012	24.4
Abroad	11,046	5,321	107.6
Total	25,987	17,333	49.9

Source: McDonald's. *The Annual.* McDonald's Corporation

1994 Annual Report. Oak Brook, Ill.

McDonald's 1994 *The Annual* reports that the company had opened new units in

28 more countries (1989, 51 countries and 1994, 79 countries). This data from

McDonald's suggest the importance of the foreign markets to the company. Other

restaurant chains (including Pizza Hut, Kentucky Fried Chicken, Wendy's) are

following suit and expanding into foreign markets.

Meanwhile, the U.S. lodging industry also shows strong international

representation, with owned and managed properties in many foreign countries. A 1995

survey of the leading lodging companies (Table 2.3) shows that, of the top ten, eight are

represented in more than ten countries.

Table 2.3: Global Representation of Eight Leading U.S. Lodging Companies

Company	Total Number of Properties	# of Countries
Holiday Inn Worldwide	2,031	62
ITT Sheraton	417	61
Best Western International	3,401	60
Carlson Hospitality Group	368	39
Choice Hotels International	3,476	38
Renaissance Hotels	138	38
Hyatt International	67	32
Marriott Hotels	898	27

Source: *Hotel & Motel Management*. Annual Survey. September 18, 1995.

Only two of the top ten companies, industry leader Hospitality Franchise Systems

and Hilton Hotels Corporation (excluding London-based Hilton International), have

properties in fewer than ten countries. This globalization trend should continue into the

foreseeable future as emerging countries in Asia, Eastern Europe and South America develop their hospitality sectors (*Hotels*, September 1996).

As Table 2.4 shows, DeMicco and Williams (1996) found evidence that U.S. contract food service companies are also making substantial foreign inroads.

Table 2.4: U.S. Contract Food Service Market Penetration for Europe in 1990 Compared with Forecasts for 2000

Country	1990	2000	Increase
Germany	3.0%	18.3%	15.3%
The Netherlands	11.6%	23.0%	11.4%
Italy	15.9%	24.9%	9.0%
Spain	6.9%	14.5%	7.6%

Cetron and DeMicco (1995) predicted that this overall globalization trend will continue for the hospitality industry; that multilateral contracts like the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) will spur foreign expansion by easing regulations and reducing costs; and that global restaurant and lodging groups will become established and flourish.

The Expatriate Manager

The typical multinational hospitality company still does business the way the American and German inventors of this species designed it over 125 years ago. Companies are divided into a parent company and its subsidiaries in foreign countries. The parent companies control most of the critical decisions (product offerings, executive personnel, capital investment, hiring and deployment). Parent company executives send home office executives to supervise those decisions over which the subsidiaries have theoretical autonomy. These executives from the parent companies are called "expatriate managers." Their dual roles are to protect the interests of the parent company and to integrate themselves and the business into the host countries' cultures (Drucker, 1986).

Problems concerning these expatriate managers and especially the failure of expatriates to complete assignments successfully fill the literature (Adler, 1995; Black and Mendenhall, 1990; and Peterson et al., 1996). These scholars, and the industry in general, consider unscheduled recalls of managers from overseas assignments to be "failures." The reasons for these failures may relate to family (the manager or his or her family cannot adjust to the new environment), business (financial goals go unachieved), or other factors. Tung (1982) suggested that cultural adjustment problems experienced by the managers, or more important, by the spouse and family, are by far the commonest reasons for failure. Adler (1995) supported this observation with his case study of a "top gun" American executive who failed in Switzerland.

At a cost of $150,000 to $300,000 per family, failures of expatriate managers are costly to the U.S. economy: up to $2.0 billion per year (Black and Mendenhall, 1990). Tung (1982) estimated that the failure rate for U.S. expatriate managers (40 percent) is substantially higher than for managers from other countries. Shay and Tracey (1997) supported these findings. The research of Peterson et al. (1996) indicates that the U.S. may have reduced these high failure rates to not more than five percent for all companies mainly by using executives from third-party countries to fill foreign assignments. They aggressively recruit Australian, British, Dutch, New Zealand, and Swiss managers to fill positions.

Tung (1982), Peterson et al. (1996), and others have pointed out that American management training and career planning programs rarely emphasize foreign assignments. British, German, and Japanese companies, however, understand foreign assignments to be requisites for advancement into top executive positions.

Tung (1982) attributed the higher U.S. failure rates to lower training expenditures by U.S. companies. Only 32 percent of the U.S. companies in her study indicated that they had a formalized training program for expatriate managers, while 69 percent of the Western European and 75 percent of the Japanese companies offered such preparation for foreign assignments.

Cullen (1981) and Conrade, Woods and Ninemeier (1994) addressed the problem of expatriate managers and training in the hospitality industry. As Cullen observed, "We send an executive abroad and see whether he sinks or swims. If he swims, we train him" (p. 18). He added a quote by business scholar William Newman about the lack of cross-cultural training in the hospitality industry: "Neither formal training at universities nor in-

house expertise within companies yet measures up to the political challenges that lie ahead. We seem to be in a twilight zone of recognizing a need, but not knowing how to meet it" (p. 24).

In their survey of lodging industry training expenditures, Conrade et al. (1994) found that most lodging industry firms spend less than one percent of total revenue on training. Furthermore, only 51 percent of the surveyed companies indicated that they used formal training programs, and 61 percent of their training expenditures went to train new employees. Training in the lodging industry focuses mainly on attracting "warm bodies," rather than on teaching skills and providing preparation for job assignments.

Moreover almost all of the studies address the expatriate issue from the CEO's perspective. Hailey (1996) appears to be the first scholar to examine the followers' perceptions of expatriate managers. His study focused on local managers in Singapore who worked under expatriate managers, and he reported that expatriate training is generally missing, and where provided, is inadequate to meet the current challenges of dealing with increasingly sophisticated local subordinate managers. He also reported increasing tensions between expatriate and indigenous managers. Because of this tension, some management scholars predict the end of the species altogether (for example, Mueller-Maerki, 1995).

Training Expatriate Managers

Cross-cultural training (CCT) has long been advocated as a facilitator of cross-cultural interaction, but that American business organizations and management scholars

have yet to embrace it. Only 30 percent of managers sent abroad from America receive

cross-cultural training. U.S. businesses consider CCT ineffective and rarely support it.

They tend to believe that "a good manager in New York or Los Angeles will be effective

in Hong Kong or Tokyo" (p. 114). Significantly, only 1.5 percent of the articles in *The*

Academy of Management Review between 1984 and 1988, dealt with international cross-

cultural training (Black and Mendenhall, 1990). Nevertheless, Black and Mendenhall

found that cross-cultural training positively influenced cross-cultural skill development,

cross-cultural adjustment and, therefore, better performance in a cross-cultural setting.

Gamio and Sneed (1992) studied cross-cultural training in the hospitality industry

but found little support for it among hospitality managers. Few of the managers saw

a need for this training and were willing to pay for it, even though the National

Restaurant Association (1988) strongly recommended these cross-cultural skills for

restaurateurs by the turn of the century.

Shames (1986) reported on three hospitality companies that provided their

expatriate managers with cross-cultural training. Only one of the companies, Marriott,

was American; of the other two, one was British (Hilton International) and one was

French (Meridien). London-based Hilton reported more than 400 international transfers a

year and had developed a comprehensive, two-part training manual for their expatriates.

Training occurs on-site and is administered by the personnel managers at both the present

and destination hotel. The training package, entitled *Meeting the Transfer Challenge*,

prepares on-site managers to assist and support incoming expatriate managers. Hilton

distributes two other packages, *Making Your Transfer Work* and *Starting Right*, among its

expatriates. Both deal with the cultural differences a manager will encounter in an

assignment abroad. Overall, however, this program relies heavily on the transferring manager's own interest in preparing.

Meridien uses a more active approach. All expatriate managers go through the Paris-based career department where managers with cross-cultural skills are selected and are sent to train at properties around the world for two years each.

Marriott has established few standing training policies to accommodate cultural differences, but its overseas properties all have one indigenous executive committee member. Overseas Marriott hotels are run by cosmopolitan managers. Only two are American; the rest are European, South American, and Australian. The company also maintains a multinational interdisciplinary team that visits and assists properties abroad.

In short and in general, hospitality companies are slow to create intercultural and cross-cultural training programs and are unwilling to spend money on cultural training, despite its obvious benefits.

The Manager Versus Leader Argument

In *Shop Management* (1903) and *The Principles of Scientific Management* (1911), Frederic Taylor introduced the manager as a position and a class of person. Over the subsequent years, the U.S. managerial class became a glorified group of workers. Managers were those employees credited with turning American business organizations into huge and efficient companies. In *The Functions of an Executive*, Chester Barnard (1938) observed that skillful handling and operating, and the ability to run a tight, controlled ship were the most important job skills for these managers. For much of the

previous century, these skills received over-emphasis, while the ability to motivate and instill "meaning" for the members remained neglected.

In the 1980s, however the focus shifted from managing to leading as a primary skill for top executives. In *Leaders*, Bennis and Nanus (1985) wrote, "Managers are people who do things right, and leaders are people who do the right thing" (p. 21). In this discussion of managing versus leading and manager versus leader, Bennis and Nanus saw managing as the ability to facilitate the smooth operation of the organization and as the guarding of daily operations. Managers were technocrats busy with input and output data, production quotas, cost control, and so forth. Leaders developed visions, communicated them to their subordinates, and created commitment among the followers. They act strategically to reach a desired state for the organization.

Leadership issues became predominant topics of discussion in management and organizational behavior in the 1980s when U.S. organizations had to reorganize to face the economic challenges of a new world order (Peters, 1982). One heard constant laments that the U.S. had too many managers and too few leaders, and it needed effective leaders and effective leadership to meet the economic challenges of the 1980s and 1990s (Yukl, 1994).

With the emergence of leadership as the top management issue, leadership consulting and training experienced a surge in popularity. Transformational leadership theories came to the forefront with new approaches to help the U.S. regain its competitive position in international commerce (Deming, 1982; and Peters and Waterman, 1982).

Deming (1982) observed that bad management had led to the weak competitive position of the US economy. In *Out of the Crisis*, he called for the transformation of

American businesses and demanded that management change its priorities. Deming

presented a 14-point catalogue of issues that became the basis for much of the

transformational leadership literature of the 1980s and 1990s (pp. 23-24).

These points are listed in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5: Deming's 14 Points of Transformational Management

---

   (1) Create constancy of purpose.
   (2) Encourage management to adopt a leadership of change.
   (3) Eliminate inspections; build quality into the product in the first place.
   (4) Develop long-term relations of loyalty and trust with a single supplier.
   (5) Constantly improve.
   (6) Institute training on the job.
   (7) Institute leadership.
   (8) Drive out fear.
   (9) Break down barriers between departments.
  (10) Change the system, not the worker.
(11 a) Eliminate quotas and substitute leadership.
(11 b) Eliminate Management by Objectives (MBO), substitute leadership.
(12 a) Remove barriers that keep workers from having pride in workmanship.
(12 b) Remove barriers that keep managers from having pride in their work.
  (13) Institute education and self-improvement programs.
  (14) Make transformation everybody's job.

Four of the fourteen points (points 2, 7, 11, and 14) posit transformational

leadership as the key to change. Deming's concept of Total Quality Management (TQM)

addresses the changes new management must make, but does not specify the skills or

attributes of the leader who would carry out these transformations. This whole field of

transformational leadership and trait characteristics was popularized by Belasco and

Stayer (1993), Bennis and Nanus (1985), Covey (1989 and 1990), Kouzes and Posner

(1995), and Peters (1982 and 1987), all of whom saw the prototypical transformational leader as a sort of Lee Iacocca (see, for example, Bennis and Nanus, 1985).

Covey (1989) provided an apt comparison between managers and leaders. The manager's task is to most efficiently climb a wall while the leader worries whether it is the right wall to climb (p.98).

In the hospitality industry, ground-breaking research by Arnaldo (1981) and Worsfold (1989) found that general managers (GMs) at 31 large hotels in the United Kingdom considered the task of leadership to be the most challenging and time consuming of all the roles GMs play. Breiter and Clement's (1996) survey of 900 hospitality businesses found leadership skills to be the manager's most important skills. Yet, leadership receives only scant attention from hospitality schools and scholars (Worsfold, 1989; and Breiter and Clements, 1996). As an example, only Cornell University currently offers specific courses in leadership for the hospitality industry.

Peters' 1980 article on leadership skills appears to be the first to address the hospitality industry. Later on, Casado (1987), Berger (1989), Cichy (1992), and Tracy (1994) published articles that dealt with leadership issues in the hospitality industry. An unpublished annotated bibliography of articles in hospitality magazines dealing with organizational behavior, prepared by graduate students for Bartlett and Farrar (1995), supports the finding that leadership issues receive only slight attention in the professional literature.

Historical View of Leadership Theories:

The Trait Approach

"The safest general characterization of the European philosophical tradition," said Alfred North Whitehead in 1960, "is that it consists of a series of footnotes to Plato." Areas of inquiry for Plato stretched from ethics, logic, linguistics, education, and political philosophy to leadership theories, and the principles he discussed nearly 24 hundred years ago have found their way into the current discussion of organizational behavior and transformational leadership theories.

The Republic is, in many ways, the first scholarly example of the trait approach in the area of leadership theory. Plato's character trait inventory for leaders reads like an inventory from one the current theories that use the trait approach. In Book IV, Plato notes that leaders

> learn quickly and continuously and possess good memories,
> have a quality of magnificence,
> have grace,
> seek the truth,
> are just,
> have courage and braveness,
> are stable and have temperance,
> love to work,
> are tough and have perseverance,
> are not blinded by opinion or fashion, and
> are the best looking.

Plato also advanced the idea, implied in the foregoing list, that leadership combines natural and nurtured traits. The idea of continuous learning permeates current transformational leadership theories even though it was disregarded in the trait theories of the immediate post-Platonic era. A 50-year-long formal education will separate leaders

from non-leaders and will establish the two foundations of successful leadership:

character (truth and trustworthiness) and competence (skill development). In fact, Plato's

recommendation to rotate leadership tasks among those who survived the long education

process still receives deference among today's scholars.

The trait approach remained the most popular approach to the leadership

discussion until the 1940s. Nicknamed "The Great Man Approach," this approach

described leaders' traits and attributes. Its drawbacks included the assumption that traits

directly influence outcomes, that too many traits had accumulated to fit any one model,

and that traits resisted accurate measurement. Stogdill's and Mann's work in the 1940s

and 50s brought this approach to

a halt. Mann's research on the relation of personality traits and performance showed a

negative correlation (Mann, 1959). A literature review of works on character traits had

earlier led Stogdill (1948) to the same conclusion: Traits alone, they decided, are

insufficient to explain successful performance, and their work paved the way for the

behavioral approach to leadership.

The trait approach became almost totally abandoned until the 1980s when, upon

review, Mann's interpretations were exposed as wrong. Lord and his associates (1986)

demonstrated in a meta-analysis that Mann's results had actually shown positive

correlations between personality traits and attributes and performance. Thus, Lord's

research helped vindicate the trait approach.

The Behavioral Approach to Leadership

Meanwhile, in the 1940s, Stogdill and other researchers at Ohio State University put aside the notion that traits directly affect outcomes. They perceived an intervening variable, a mediator, that influenced outcomes. Stogdill set out to evaluate behavior as this influential variable, and he and his research team assembled some 1,800 leadership behaviors which they then subjectively reduced to 150 items. These 150 behaviors became part of a leadership questionnaire administered to members of the military. The Ohio State team used advanced factor analysis to combine the 150 behaviors into classes of similarity, and posited twelve major factors. The group then narrowed this dozen down to two primary behavioral factors that could explain leadership performance: (1) initiating structure, and (2) consideration--that is, whether leaders were concerned about the tasks at hand or about their people. A study to measure turnover rates and levels of consideration at International Harvester showed significant inconsistencies between hypothesized and actual data (Yukl, 1994).

Likert (1961 and 1967) summarized the findings of behavioral studies pursued concurrently at the University of Michigan. Katz (in Yukl, 1994) and his associates studied the behavior of leaders in one insurance company, one manufacturing company, and one group of railroad section gang supervisors. Like the Ohio State researchers, Katz and his associates found two major dimensions of behavior: (1) task-oriented behavior, and (2) relationship-oriented behavior (Yukl, 1994).

Blake and Mouton (in Yukl, 1994) summarized a third prominent behavioral approach they developed in their "Managerial Grid." Their behavioral dimensions

included (1) concern for production, and (2) concern for people, which resemble the Ohio

State and University of Michigan categories. But different from the other two

approaches, Blake and Mouton incorporated both categories on a nine-square grid. The

most effective leader behavior falls at a score of 9 on both scales: high in concern for

both production and people.

The shortcomings of the behavioral approach included the difficulties inherent

in remembering and categorizing other people's behavior at some time in the past; the

simplification of complex relations into two categories; and a lack of emphasis on

situational components.

The Contingency Approach to Leadership

Yukl (1994) provided a useful summary of the contingency theories that

developed from the critique of the behavioral approach in the late 1960s and 1970s. The

following alternative theories attracted the most attention in the literature: Fiedler's Least

Preferred Co-worker Theory (1964 and 1967), Fiedler and Garcia's Cognitive Resources

Theory (1987 and 1992), Hersey and Blanchard's Normative Decision Model (1984),

House's Path-Goal Theory (1971), Kerr and Jermier's Leader-Substitution Theory

(1978), Vroom and Yetton's Normative Decision Model (1973), and Yukl's Multiple-

Linkage Theory (1971 and 1989). These theories produced numerous moderating

situational variables that influenced the outcome. As a result, researchers tested only

parts of these complex theories, and consequently lacked accurate measurements to

ensure reliable conclusions. The underlying assumption of the specifics for each

situation in any one approach conflicted with the need for more or less universal

explanations (Yukl, 1994). In short, the new approaches lacked universal applicability.

The Transformational and Charismatic Approach to Leadership, or

The Trait Approach Revisited

After 1980, the trait approach reemerged with the arrival of transformational

and charismatic leadership theories (some researchers use these terms interchangeably,

others separate them). Once again, academic and popular research focused on leadership,

on personality traits, and on the attributes of leaders; situation and contingency had

contributed little to explaining effective leadership (Peters, 1987).

Bass and Avolio (1984), Deming (1982), and Lord et al. (1986) reported on the

academic research that had brought the trait approach back to leadership. In a time of

economic downsizing and increased global competition, after all, the leader who can

transform the organization appeared likeliest to improve its effectiveness (Bass and

Avolio, 1994). Meanwhile, Lord and his colleagues (1986) provided the academic and

scientific justification for transformational leadership theories.

Bass and Avolio (1994) grouped the traits of the transformational leader into

four behavioral categories, the "Four I's":

    (1) idealized influence (trust, consistency, ethics, and so forth);
    (2) inspirational motivation (motivation, inspiration, communication, and so forth);
    (3) intellectual stimulation (innovation, creativity, a willingness to make mistakes, and so forth); and
    (4) individual consideration (coaching and mentoring, listening, learning) (pp. 3-4).

Deming (1982) had not explicitly mentioned traits, but others used his 14 points

to improve competitiveness and to extrapolate the traits needed to carry out managerial

tasks (Covey, 1990). Kuhnert (1994) added other traits that define effective

transformational leaders or, as he called them, the "self-defining leaders" (p. 19). These

people combined transactional and transformational leadership with charisma; such

leaders not only empower, delegate, coach and respect, but they also become the

personification of the transformation as they operate on a high level of morality.

The work of Belasco and Stayer (1993), Bennis and Nanus (1985), Covey (1989

and 1990), Deming (1982), Kouzes and Posner (1995), Peters (1987), and Peters and

Waterman (1982) together provide a guide to these traits and attributes important for

effective transformational leadership. As Kouzes and Posner (1995) documented, the

works of all these authors have survived the acid test: They have avoided the "here today,

gone tomorrow" history of most books on management and leadership. Leadership

books proliferate, but these remain widely accepted and applied. Deming's and Peters'

work has been widely credited as responsible for the successful turnaround at the Ford

Motor Company and Harley Davidson, and for the unprecedented success of the new

Saturn cars. As Newsweek magazine (1996) noted, Covey exerted a strong influence at

Marriott International and as President Clinton's management advisor (p. 35).

Perception Theory and Transformational Leadership

Bennis and Nanus's (1985) survey of 90 U.S. business leaders provides an

interesting example of differing perceptions. Asking executives and their employees to

draw charts of their organizations, Bennis and Nanus found measurable differences between the way an executive saw the organization and how the employees assumed the chart to look. Goll (1988) reported similar findings in the hospitality industry. He surveyed what hospitality workers wanted from their jobs, compared their responses to the results of a survey of supervisors asked to rank what they thought their workers wanted from their work, and found substantial differences. Both studies hint strongly at perception differences between leaders and followers.

Perception theory and transformational leadership emerged at the same time and tend to complement each other. Lord et al. (1986) and Gestner and Day (1994) researched the role a follower's perception plays in the affirmation of leadership positions. In their research, they assumed a categorization process in that followers categorize a leader and compare him or her with a leader prototype stored in their memories. They develop this prototype from a multitude of traits and attributes combined into a "fuzzy set" against which they compare the leader. The closer the correlation between the prototype and the person in question, the likelier the leader will be perceived and accepted as a leader (Gestner and Day, 1994, at p. 122).

Much earlier, Cantor and Mischel (1979) had shown that just such a categorization process occurs on three levels: the superordinate, the middle-level or basic, and the subordinate. Most perception takes place at the basic level, where a balance exists between the superordinate categories, in which members share no common attributes, and the subordinate categories, where individualized differences are located. The basic category includes a set of leader perceptions that differentiate between such

types of leaders as business, education, finance, labor, mass media, military, minority, political, religious, and athletic.

It makes intuitive sense that a manager should be perceived as a leader--that is to say, he or she should fit the prototype of the leader notion the subordinates have and, thus, must be respected to be effective (Shaw, 1990). Perception theory contrasts with trait theory in that it defines the prototype as a collection of character traits and attributes. Research by Lord (1986) and Phillips (1984) confirmed that observers indeed match leaders with a prototype they have in their minds. Furthermore, Lord (1986) found the prototypes consistent within a culture and different between cultures. Everett and Stening (1987), Shaw (1990), and Hofstede (1993) confirmed that subordinates in different cultures possess different cognitive maps of what a leader should look like, and that different cultures give rise to different leadership prototypes. Shaw (1990) and Hofstede (1993), in particular, attributed perception differences to cultural differences in people. Hofstede (1993) stated (as also quoted in Gestner and Day's 1994 article), "Managers derive their raison d'être from the people managed: culturally, they are followers of the people they lead, and their effectiveness depends on the latter" (p. 93).

Currently, expatriate managers are rarely perceived as leaders and rarely understand this underlying conflict in perception (Adler, 1995). Hailey (1996) reported on workplace tensions arising in some Asian countries and the negative impact they could have on business performance. As Western companies expand, he concluded, they need to understand what members of other cultures expect from a leader (p. 264).

Cichy (1992) recommended that more empirical research be conducted to substantiate his preliminary findings that people in different cultures have different leader

prototypes. More specifically, he suggested that this research focus on hospitality students so as to reveal how their cultural differences will influence their leadership acceptance. Soon thereafter, Gestner and Day (1994) proved that cross-cultural differences exist in leadership prototypes, and that culture influences perception. Their study employed 142 students from eight cultures. Since all the students were future entry-level managers and subordinates, their perceptions promised to be vital to a leader's effectiveness.

Cultural Geography and Transformational Leadership

Hofstede (1995) confirmed that leadership prototypes, which people develop through categorization of traits and attributes, form systematically and depend upon the cultural environment. Between 1967 and 1973, Hofstede conducted a study in 62 countries with managers of IBM, the dominant U.S. multinational corporation at the time. This research produced a data bank with more than 116,000 usable responses, and Hofstede's empirical study has subsequently yielded a taxonomy that facilitates an understanding of the dimensions of national culture. His taxonomy, widely accepted in today's research (Gestner and Day, 1994; and Hailey, 1996), uses four criteria to describe national cultures:

(1) Power Distance (small or large). "Power distance" refers to how power in institutions and organizations is distributed. A small power distance is characterized by minimal inequalities, social mobility, equal rights for superiors and subordinates within a culture. The U.S. shows a

medium score for power distance of 41 on a scale from small equals 11 to 94 equals large, with 44 being the dividing score (p. 382).

(2) Uncertainty Avoidance (weak or strong). "Uncertainty avoidance" describes a society's mechanisms to avoid uncertain, ambiguous situations. A high number of rules and regulations govern relationships in strong uncertainty avoidance cultures. On a scale of 8 to 112, with 56 as the divider, the U.S. scores 43 and is grouped with almost all English-speaking countries in the weak uncertainty avoidance group (p. 382).

(3) Individualism-Collectivism. This dimension describes a culture's value of autonomy and the "I" consciousness. Individual decision making takes center stage: everyone takes care of herself or himself and everybody takes responsibility for his or her own actions and lives. The U.S. scored the highest of all countries in this criterion with 91 points. The scale of points range from 12 equals strong collectivism to 91 equals strong individualism (p. 383).

(4) Masculinity-Femininity. The question here is which values prevail within the culture. Masculine values include assertiveness, competition, win-lose thinking, and so forth. Feminine values include quality of life, interdependence, win-win thinking, and so forth. The U.S. scored 62 points, and is, therefore, a society with a "masculine" value system (p. 284).

In a subsequent study with students in 40 countries, Hofstede (1993) added a fifth dimension: Long-term Orientation. This dimension quantifies how much value a culture places on the present, past or future. The U.S. typically reveals a short-term orientation, while Asian countries reveal precisely the opposite.

Hofstede (1995) discussed why some of the best-known U.S. leadership theories (McGregor's Theory X versus Theory Y, Likert's Systems Management, and Blake and Mouton's Management Grid) tend to be inapplicable in European countries. It was because, he supposed, they fail to allow for a country's cultural values. In support of this proposition, Hofstede cited findings by Ferguson (1970) and Frank (1973). Ferguson studied the implementation of Peter Drucker's idea of Management by Objectives (MBO) in Germany. There the national culture and character favor the process of co-determination (both employers and employees set corporate goals) as part of uncertainty avoidance, which then turns MBO into "Management by Joint Goal Setting" (*Fuehrung durch Zielvereinbarung*). Frank documented the failure of MBO in France, where it became DPO (*Direction par Objectives*), and linked it to the large power distance that permeates the French culture.

In 1994 Hofstede's work received support from work by Trompenaars, who surveyed 15,000 subjects in 29 countries exploring cultural differences and similarities among national cultures that significantly influence business and management decisions. Trompenaars incorporated some of Hofstede's dimensions, but under different names. The seven dimensions Trompenaars used follow:

(1) <u>Relationship to time.</u> A culture's preoccupation with the past, present, or future.

(2) <u>Relationship with nature.</u> Whether and how a culture tries to dominate nature.

(3) <u>Universalism-Particularism.</u> How many rules regulate a society.

(4) <u>Individualism-Collectivism.</u> Whether the emphasis is on the individual or the group.

(5) <u>Neutral-Emotional.</u> Whether and how the group tolerates public displays of emotion.

(6) <u>Diffuse-Specific.</u> Whether and how a culture separates social roles for different situations (for example, in a diffuse culture, the boss is the boss both at work and outside of work).

(7) <u>Achievement-Ascription.</u> How a group accords social status.

Table 2.6 shows that Hofstede's (1995) and Trompenaars' (1994) dimensions

refer to closely similar social behaviors and attitudes

Table 2.6: Comparison of Hofstede's and Trompenaars' Cultural Dimensions

<u>Trompenaars</u>	<u>Hofstede</u>
Relationship to Time	Long-term Orientation
Relationship with Nature	Masculinity versus Femininity
Universalism -Particularism	Uncertainty Avoidance
Individualism-Collectivism	Individualism-Collectivism
Neutral-Emotional	Masculinity-Femininity
Diffuse-Specific	Power Distance
Achievement - Ascription	Power Distance

The work of both authors has undergone extensive analysis and criticism and has

nevertheless, or accordingly become persuasive in this field, mainly because they are the

only two empirical studies of this magnitude (Gestner and Day, 1994; Hailey, 1996; and

Punnett, Singh, and Williams, 1994).

Cichy et al. (1992) studied the leadership foundations of the Japanese lodging industry in 1990, and they enumerated the leadership traits and attributes desired among American CEOs in theJapanese hotel industry. They attributed most of the differences they found to the basic Japanese philosophy of *kaizan* (continuous improvement), which permeates all Japanese competitive behavior. Cichy and his collegues established no connections to cultural geography or national culture beyond the connections they found to *kaizan*. But following Hofstede (1995) and comparing it to the U.S., one can conclude that Japan has

> a larger power distance,
> a much higher uncertainty avoidance (third highest of 40 countries),
> a much lower score for individualism,
> a much higher score for masculinity, and
> a higher score for Long-term Orientation (see Hofstede, pp. 382-384).

Cichy's study neither explored these questions, nor included some of the newer, influential transformational leadership literature like those discussed in the next section.

Desirable Attributes, Traits, and Skills in Current Theories of Transformational Leadership

Conger (1992) divided leadership approaches into four categories and described each category's historical development and emergence. The four overarching categories he deduced include

> (1) the personal growth approach,
> (2) the conceptual training approach,
> (3) the feedback approach, and
> (4) the skill-building approach.

The "personal growth approach," which evolved out of the humanistic psychology of the 1960s and 1970s, attempts to place individuals back in touch with their inner callings, desires, and abilities. Everyone has leadership potential, but one has to find leader motivation within one's self and take "response-ability" for one's actions and life. Two major philosophies evolved from this insight. One included outdoor exercises, risk-taking, and team building, and followed the approaches espoused by Outward Bound in the 1970s. The other drew upon the New Age movement of the 1970s and 1980s with its concepts of self-actualization and development of personal visions. This approach was publicized by Lifespring (Robert Bound) and est (Erhard Seminar Training). Lifespring developed into ARC Vision Quest and est turned into the Forum.

Both programs focus on leadership training and remain influential for industry. Stephen Covey's works (1989 and 1991) followed the Personal Growth Approach (in Beals et al., 1996). Covey stated that the ultimate goal is to make people "response-able." Covey reused an observation made by Berthold Brecht: "Give a man a fish and you feed him for a day; teach him how to fish and you feed him for a lifetime." He focused, as well, on the development of trustworthiness (character and competence) and trust as the basis for successful leadership. To establish trustworthiness and trust, leaders must start with themselves and must possess some or all of the 35 traits and attributes Covey listed (shown here in Appendix A). Covey went on to present 30 behaviors (shown in Appendix B) for effective leaders to influence their followers positively without the use of coercion or power, which rely upon the attributes and traits mentioned.

The "conceptual training approach" developed out of the cognitive and theoretical models at American universities and was heavily influenced by concepts

derived from the Peace Corps. This approach sees leaders as helping and empowering

people destined to lead the resurgence of the sluggish U.S. economy. Improved

conceptual abilities and developed and refined skills are at the core of this approach.

Bennis and Nanus and the scholars with and around the Tom Peters Group (TPG) are the

prominent proponents of this approach. The Tom Peters Group includes Peters himself,

Belasco and Stayer, and Kouzes and Posner.

Tom Peters' *Thriving on Chaos* (1987) is "a handbook for a management

revolution," of which leadership issues are only one part. Peters associated the economic

situation with the call for transformational leadership. His chapters on "Learning to Love

Change, A New View of Leadership at All Levels" and "Flexibility by Empowerment"

complement this study in that they focus on the character traits required of leaders in this

revolution. U.S. companies must, according to Peters, make changes in the following

five areas and require the associated attributes from their leaders:

> (1) Total Customer Responsiveness
> Learn to listen,
> be creative and unique,
> be an internationalist, and
> be a specialist (pp. 57-234).
>
> (2) Fast Paced Innovation
> Support people who make mistakes,
> use fast failure in experimentation,
> support teamwork, and
> create capacity for innovation (pp. 235-338).
>
> (3) Flexibility by Empowerment
> Delegate,
> set up self-managing teams,
> train and retrain,
> listen, celebrate, recognize,
> use incentive pay,

give employment guarantees,
simplify organizational structure, and
abolish bureaucracy (pp. 339-468).

(4) Learning to Love Change
Inspire with a vision,
free creativity from bureaucracy,
live the vision,
manage by example,
promote people who love change,
create a sense of urgency,
set goals, and
demand integrity (pp. 467-578).

(5) Building Systems for a World Turned Upside Down
Decentralize and revamp control,
measure only important aspects, and
decentralize authority (pp. 579-634).

In their 1993 national bestseller *Flight of the Buffalo*, James Belasco and Ralph Stayer proposed leadership styles that allow employees to lead. The owner-manager as leader empowers workers--or, in their terminology, the "producers"--to take the leadership. The authors use the buffalo herd and flying geese to symbolize this transition. A buffalo herd blindly follows its leader or remains inactive if the lead animal is incapacitated. Geese show quite different behavior in their flight organization. Every goose will take the lead and fulfill the different functions (reducing wind resistance to various degrees, watching for predators, resting) within the formation.

Throughout their book, Belasco and Stayer suggest characteristics that these new leaders should possess or acquire after they discover that they, themselves, are the problem. They state some of these traits directly; others a reader must infer from the context of the discussion. A total of 37 characteristics (listed in Appendix C) appear to be the what Belasco and Stayer have in mind for leaders who learn to let employees lead.

Even more than Peters himself or Belasco and Stayer, Jim Kouzes and Barry

Posner orient their writing toward leadership theories and actual leadership skills. As

part of the Tom Peters Group (Kouzes is the chairperson of the TPG Learning Systems),

all five advance Peters' theoretical work, but *The Leadership Challenge* by Kouzes and

Posner (1995) developed directly from their Leadership Challenge training seminars, and

follows the postulate, "Yes, all leaders are born. We have no empirical evidence to the

contrary. Leadership is, after all, a set of skills" (p. 321).

Kouzes and Posner (1995) advanced these five fundamental practices of

exemplary and effective leadership one can learn by trial and error, observation or

education:

(1) Challenge the process.
Search for new opportunities and seek change to challenge the status quo;
experiment and take risks and encourage this in followers; and see
mistakes as opportunities to improve and as a means for innovation
(pp. 35-90).

(2) Inspire a shared vision.
Envision a bright and ideal future for the organization and gain followers'
commitment by showing them how they can fulfill their own needs in this
shared vision (pp. 91-150).

(3) Enable others to act.
Create an environment that will help employees realize the
ideal future; on the basis of mutual trust, foster cooperation and team
building; and turn power over to the employees so that they can feel
capable, powerful and responsible (pp. 151-208).

(4) Model the way.
Set standards for excellence in the organization and enforce them by
example; emphasize and celebrate small wins on the way to
accomplishing great things; and "walk the talk"(pp. 209-268).

(5) Encourage the heart.
Use referent power to influence employees; appeal to the human need for

recognition and accomplishment in the followers; and use rewards and celebrations as tools to accomplish the extraordinary (pp. 269-316).

Over the years, Kouzes and Posner used their twelve-page Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) to compile a database reflecting nearly 60,000 respondents. Managers and executives listed more than 220 different values, traits and characteristics in response to the question, "What values (personal traits or characteristics) do you look for and admire in your superiors?" Then they compared the responses and listed the 20 most frequently recurring traits and attributes, shown in Table 2.7.

Kouzes and Posner also listed an inventory of character traits they considered appropriate for effective leaders, and they compared it to current management views and practices, as Table 2.8 shows.

Table 2.7: Kouzes and Posner's Admired Leader Characteristics

Trait/Attribute	% Selecting
Honest	88
Forward-looking	75
Inspiring	68
Competent	63
Fair Minded	49
Supportive	41
Broad Minded	40
Intelligent	40
Straightforward	33
Dependable	32
Courageous	29
Cooperative	28

Table 2.7: Continued

Trait/Attribute	% Selecting
Imaginative	28
Caring	23
Determined	17
Mature	13
Ambitious	13
Loyal	11
Self-controlled	5
Independent	5

Source: Kouzes and Posner, 1995, p. 21.

Table 2.8: Kouzes and Posner's Comparison of Current Management with Desired Leader Skills

Effective Leadership	Current Management
Risk taking	Orderly, stable, "clock work"
Deep faith	Renegade
Long-term view	Short-term view
Mundane, small steps	Mystical
Emotional	Cool, aloof
Purpose, convictions	Charisma
Serve and support	Command and control
Part of organization	Lonely at the top
Involved with deeds	Detached
Process	Position
Everyone's business	Only a few executives

Earlier, Bennis and Nanus (1985) surveyed 90 U.S. executives and summarized their findings in their book *Leaders*. They found that effective leaders employ four basic strategies:

(1) attention through vision,

(2) meaning through communication,

(3) trust through positioning, and

(4) self-development (a. positive self-regard, b. confidence or "The Wallenda Factor") (p. 26).

Bennis and Nanus assigned the numerous skills and traits reported by the executives they surveyed to these four basic strategies. The executives in Bennis and Nanus surveys mentioned a total of 39 attributes (as shown in Appendix D). Many of the attributes Belasco and Stayer (1993), Covey (1989, 1991), Kouzes and Posner (1995), and Peters (1987) list turn out to be similar or identical to those on this Bennis and Nanus list.

"The feedback approach" and "the skill building approach" are the other two theoretical approaches Conger (1992) mentioned. The feedback approach develops leadership by providing leaders with insights into (feedback about) into behavior. Companies now use feedback instruments like the Myers-Briggs Type Indicators, the FIRO, Leadership Style Indicator, and Management Skills Profiles extensively to show people their leadership potential. The Forum Company in Boston (not Werner Erhard's Forum) has been the main user of the skill building approach, and has established a list of eleven traits and skills it teaches to leaders:

 (1) staying in touch,
 (2) listening,
 (3) understanding first,
 (4) taking initiative,
 (5) having courage,
 (6) not being concerned about failure,
 (7) caring,
 (8) having a vision,
 (9) feeling responsible,
(10) empowering, and
(11) encouraging risk taking (Conger, 1992).

Desirable Leader Attributes and Traits in the Hospitality Industry

The first scholar in the hospitality field to discuss cultural issues, Cichy (1992)

studied hospitality leadership styles in Japan. He and his associates surveyed Japanese

executives about the traits, attributes and skills they expect of leaders and leadership, and

their survey of the top CEOs in the Japanese lodging industry revealed many traits and

attributes of importance in both cultures. But they also found major differences, and the

"deeply ingrained philosophy of *kaizan*, or continuous improvement, as an almost

unconscious assumption" accounted for much of the difference between U.S. and

Japanese CEOs.

In the course of the research reported here, the author found the concept of

leadership still influenced by the transformational theories that have permeated leadership

studies since the 1980s (Bass, 1994 and Lord, 1986). Bass's transformational approach

and Lord's emphasis on the importance of follower perception in effective management

grew out of the earlier work of W. Edward Deming (1982). In the 1980s, the proponents

of transformational-charismatic theories reintroduced to the discussion of leadership the

trait approach, which had been discredited for almost thirty years.

Nebel and Sterns (1977), Peters (1980), Walker (1986), Berger, Ferguson and

Woods (1989), Worsfold (1989), Cichy et al. (1990, 1991,1992, 1996), Tracy and Hinkin

(1994), Muller and Campbell (1995), and Muller and Inman (1996) all studied leadership

traits and characteristics as they relate to the hospitality industry. All these studies

focused on CEOs or other higher-level managers and identified the traits and skills these

U.S. executives desire. So far, however, nobody has applied Lord's (1986) perception of leadership theories to the hospitality industry.

Lord (1986) and Gestner and Day (1994) found that the acceptance of leaders by their followers determine leadership effectiveness. To a great extent, the acceptance of a leader depends upon a correlation between the followers' leader prototype and the actual leader. A leader prototype is, as we have seen, the sum of traits, attributes, and skills the followers expect to find in a leader. But while Gestner and Day surveyed perceptions among students positioned to become future managers and leaders, the hospitality industry and its academic research has so far ignored the importance of perception theories and leader prototypes.

Cichy (1992) indicated a need for research to examine hospitality students' perceptions of leadership quality, and the several studies just cited, though focused on top executives, did help establish a list of traits and attributes U.S. hospitality executives expect. But in contrast to those studies, the research reported here determined whether the prototypes of effective leaders future entry-level managers expect match those of the executives in the hospitality industry. This research suggests that the expectations among students from foreign cultures are markedly different and warrant a good deal of further study, as their employment at U.S.-owned properties abroad, particularly in Asia, increases.

Meanwhile, some of the more influential American business analysts, including Belasco and Stayer (1993), Bennis and Nanus (1985), Covey (1991), Kouzes and Posner (1995), and Peters (1987) have popularized transformational leadership theories. They all built on and advanced the transformational ideas of Deming (1982) and developed and

promoted the prototype of the transformational leader. These authors have defined the traits and attributes a transformational leader should possess to be effective.

Nebel and Sterns (1977) were the first to apply leadership theories to management and organizational behavior in the hospitality industry. They used Fiedler's Contingency Theory in a survey of employees in the New Orleans hospitality industry and reported that employees consider a task-oriented leadership-management style most effective. Nebel and Sterns concluded that leadership style or leadership considerations depend upon the situation and the members of the group, their traits and their views.

Worsfold (1989) adopted the Ohio State Approach for a survey of leadership effectiveness conducted among 31 general managers of a major United Kingdom hospitality firm. His findings were somewhat inconclusive because the dimensions the Ohio State researchers used, consideration and initiating structure, produced equally high scores.

Peters (1980) applied transformational leadership concepts to the hospitality industry and introduced traits for a "leadership style that works" (p.13). The attributes and traits for the effective manager Peters recommended follow:

> has ability to innovate,
> has brute persistence,
> shows consistency,
> encourages experimentation,
> has extraordinary zeal,
> focuses on only one or two concerns at a time,
> grants considerable autonomy to managers down the line,
> listens,
> manages by walking about,
> rewards small successes,
> spends time with and pays attention to employees, and
> uses symbolic activities (pp. 13-22).

Walker (1986) reported from a hospitality industry CEO's standpoint what characteristics he expects from a leader in his hotels. His survey led to a list with 17 attributes and traits for effective leaders (shown in Appendix E). Berger, Ferguson and Woods (1989) studied corporate executives and unit managers of eight hospitality businesses and found them to be all "people-oriented" (p. 98). The authors summarized 16 characteristics mentioned by all these managers (shown in Appendix F).

Cichy and Sciarini (1990), Cichy, Sciarini, Cook and Patton (1991); Cichy, Sciarini and Patton (1992); Cichy, Aoki, Patton and Sciarini (1992); and Cichy and Schmidgall (1996) all based their research on the findings of Bennis and Nanus (1985), Labich (1988), and Roberts (1985). Moreover, all the Cichy studies surveyed presidents and CEOs of businesses in the food-service industry. Cichy, Sciarini and Patton (1992) developed the attributes and traits that appeared as the survey tools used for the two subsequent studies (1992, 1996). Fourteen attributes and traits that received the highest scores from the executives were arranged from highest to lowest together with the scores on 17 desired attributes for effective leaders, again ranked from highest to lowest (a shown inAppendix G). Finally, Cichy (1996) and his colleagues grouped their findings into four foundations of effective leadership (ranked from highest to lowest):

(1) trust,
(2) vision,
(3) communication, and
(4) perseverance (p. 52).

Tracy and Hinkin (1994) introduced Bass's (1994) transformational leadership theories to the hospitality industry and research agenda. They measured leadership in a

large hotel management organization in terms of transformational and transactional

leadership behavior, combining the behavioral and trait approaches:

Transformational Aspects

attributed charisma,
intellectual stimulation,
individualized consideration,
idealized influence, and
inspirational leadership.

Transactional Aspects

contingency rewards,
active and passive management by exception, and
laissez-faire leadership (p. 22).

Even though Tracy and Hinkin (1994) addressed behavior, they included many

traits and attributes in their 78-item Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. The list of

their 16 attributes closely resembles those found in other discussions of transformational

leadership (shown in Appendix H).

Muller and Inman (1996) focused on the characteristics and behavior of CEOs

in the hospitality industry. Their study involved 85 executives of U.S. chain restaurants

and set out to establish a profile of the successful leader for chain restaurants. The

attributes they reported include the following:

is entrepreneurial,
is a great communicator,
is a great teacher,
has a vision,
is an operator and doer, and
is a role model (p. 68).

As Yukl (1994) stated, "The proliferation of skill (and trait) concepts by different researchers has created a state of conceptual confusion similar to that prevailing for behavioral concepts" (p. 253). Indeed, the characteristics discussed in the transformational leadership literature remain inconsistently defined; every concept uses its own taxonomy to classify traits or skills; and "traits" and "skills" are, themselves, used interchangeably. With the hope of ending the confusion in the literature, Yukl proposed a taxonomy for traits and skills that builds on the three-skill approach Katz and Mann (in Yukl, 1994) suggested. Traits and attributes include aspects of personality, temperament, needs and motives, and values, while the skills categories are characterized as technical, administrative, and interpersonal. Some illustrative examples follow:

Traits

(1) Personality attributes include self-confidence, maturity, emotional maturity, energy level, and stress tolerance.
(2) Social needs and motives include achievement, esteem, affiliation, power, and independence.
(3) Values (or internalized attitudes) include fairness and justice, honesty, freedom, equality, loyalty, pragmatism, courtesy, politeness, progress, self-fulfillment, excellence, and cooperation.

Skills

(1) Technical skills refer to competence and knowledge.
(2) Administrative skills refer to planning, delegating, and coaching.
(3) Interpersonal skills refer to communication, tact, empathy, a willingness to listen, and sensitivity (pp. 252-253).

Summary

The literature review provided support for this study. In an globally expanding hospitality industry, U.S. trained managers seem to experience the highest failure rate

among expatriate managers and as a consequence, many international hospitality companies prefer to hire graduates of hospitality management programs in countries like Australia, Britain, New Zealand, Switzerland, and The Netherlands.

For Objective 1, substantial support was found for the use of the Hofstede (1995) model for this study. Hofstede's work is considered by many the benchmark for discussions about national culture in management research. Growing importance of post-modernism theories for discussions about national culture became evident.

For Objetive 2, the literature review resulted in a list of 45 variables for leadership attributes, skills and traits mentioned in either all or most of the reviewed theories.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter contains four sections, all of which address the problem of determining if significant differences exist in terms of five cultural dimensions and five leadership dimensions between hospitality students from the United States and hospitality students from each of four Asian nations. Section one describes the schools involved and the criteria used to select these schools. Section two discusses how the survey questionnaire was constructed and validated. The data collection process is described in section three. The fourth section describes the statistical procedures used to analyze the data.

Study Locations and Participating Schools

At the time of this research, there were 22 hotel-restaurant schools in Switzerland with an average enrollment of 250 students per school. Eleven of the 22 schools were organized in the "*Verein Schweizerischer Hotel- und Restaurantfachschulen*" (Swiss Hotel Schools Association) and eleven were not. Sixteen of the schools were privately owned and six received public funding. Twelve schools used English as their main language of instruction, and three of the "native speaking" (French, German or Italian) hotel schools of the "*Verein der Schweizerischen Hotel- und Restaurantfachschulen*" now offer hotel management studies in English equivalent to those offered in the local language. Most hotel schools in Switzerland offer the Swiss Diploma in Hotel Management after one, two or three years. Typically, each academic year contains six

months of studies and six months of paid internships in Switzerland. The curricula were

similar to the first three years in a bachelors program in the U.S., and most students enroll

for a fourth year seeking a bachelor's degree awarded by a partner university in the U.S.

The study involved students from the following ten schools where English was the main

language of instruction:

> Centre International de Glion, Glion-sur-Montreux (n=4),
>
> Domino Carlton Tivoli (DCT) Hotel Management School, Lucerne (n=9),
>
> Hotel Institute Montreux (HIM), Montreux (n=33),
>
> Hotel Management School Les Roches, Bluche (n=10),
>
> HTF Hotel- und Tourismusfachschule, Chur (n=13),
>
> Institute hotelier "Cesar Ritz", Le Bouveret (n=47),
>
> International College of Hospitality Administration (ICHA), Brig (n=7),
>
> International Management Institute (IMI), Kastanienbaum (n=27),
>
> International Hotel and Tourism Training Institute (IHTTI), Neuchatel (n=4), and
>
> Schiller International University (SIU), Engelberg (n=53).

At the time of the study, these schools together enrolled approximately 2,200 of

the approximately 4,000 foreign students at all of Switzerland's English-speaking hotel

management schools. (The author based the enrollment estimates on telephone

interviews with all 22 hotel schools in 1998.)

Most of the educators-proctors were contacted at Euro-CHRIE, the European

branch of the American Council of Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Educators

(CHRIE) organization, meeting in Sheffield, England in 1997. Most educators at these

Swiss schools were schooled in U.S. or British hospitality programs and were familiar

with this type of survey research from their own Ph.D. studies.

Questionnaire Construction

The survey questions, phrased in English, included statements originally used by

Hofstede (1995) and Trompenaars (1994) in their studies of national cultures and

leadership traits. Both U.S.- and British-educated university lecturers and professors

from the surveyed participants' native countries reviewed the questionnaires to reduce the

chance of bias in phrasing. The questionnaire (shown in Appendix J) contained four

separate parts:

      (1) an introductory statement,

      (2) fifteen cultural questions,

      (3) nine leadership questions, and

      (4) seven demographic questions.

The Introductory Statement

Part 1 of the questionnaire, the opening statement, introduced the researcher,

described the research topic, explained that participation was voluntary, and assured the

respondents of confidentiality. The statement explained that the surveys had been coded

only to identify the respondent's school.

The 15 Cultural Value Questions

Of the 150 questions in Hofstede's original questionnaire, the author selected three

cultural value statements randomly for each of the five cultural-value dimensions

(Hofstede, 1995; Trompenaars, 1994). This process produced a total of 15 questions, as

shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: The Fifteen Questions for the Five Cultural Dimensions used in this Study

Five Cultural Dimensions	Number of Questions
Power Distance	3 questions
Uncertainty Avoidance	3 questions
Masculinity-Femininity	3 questions
Individualism-Collectivism	3 questions
Long-term Orientation	3 questions.
Total	15 questions

The respondents' answers to each of the 15 questions involved this five-point

Likert scale:

1 = I STRONGLY AGREE,
2 = I Somewhat Agree,
3 = I neither agree nor disagree,
4 = I Somewhat Disagree, and
5 = I STRONGLY DISAGREE.

The 15 questions and their order in this phase of the questionnaire appeared as follows:

Power Distance

Question Number

1 Your boss asks you to paint his or her house on the weekend. (No compensation is offered.) The boss has the right to expect you to paint the house.

3 Your company institutes a time-card system for all workers except for employees at the management level. There is nothing wrong with that.

7 Your boss's young and inexperienced college-age child is chosen to supervise a new major hotel development. As a senior employee, you would be upset with this decision.

Uncertainty Avoidance

Question Number

6 You are a food critic for an influential newspaper. Your friend has just invested a considerable amount of money in a new restaurant. You eat at the restaurant and do not think that the food is good. Your friend has the right to expect a favorable review from you.

9 You are riding in a car driven by your best friend. He hits a pedestrian. You know he was driving too fast. There were no witnesses. If you testify that he drove slowly, you can save him from going to prison. As his best friend you will protect him.

12 As a senior employee of a bank, you have valuable information about some currency exchange rates. Your friend has a lot of this currency and could lose a lot of money if not informed. You would share this information with your friend.

Masculinity-Femininity

Question Number

2 If you were disgruntled at work, you would express it openly right at work.

8 You have two job offers, one for a small, casual resort property and one for a fast-paced, large convention hotel. You would definitely accept the one at the small, casual property.

13   A company is responsible for housing all its employees.

Individualism-Collectivism

<u>Question Number</u>

4   If we always took care of our fellow human beings, the quality
       of life would improve for everyone. This is true, even if it hinders
       individual freedom and individual development.

11   If a hotel room is not properly cleaned, the whole housekeeping
       crew, supervisors and involved workers included are responsible.

14   The most important thing in life is to think and act the way you are,
       even if this means that you cannot get all the things you want.

Long-term Orientation

<u>Question Number</u>

5   Heritage and tradition are so important to you that you would not
       move away from, or would always return to, the place where your
       family lives.

10   You are willing to sacrifice things now for the things you want to
       have in the future

15   You work hard and you spend all the money you earn right away.

Nine Leadership Attribute Questions

The author developed the third part of the questionnaire from current

transformational leadership theories and selected the 45 leadership attributes cited in all

or most often in the works by Belasco and Stayer (1993), Cichy (1992), Covey (1989 and

1990), Kouzes and Posner (1995), and Peters (1987). The questionnaire format for the

leadership attribute questions followed the format Cichy (1992) and Gerstner and Day

(1994) used.

The author assigned nine variables describing the same leadership attribute, skill

or trait to each of the five leadership dimensions Yukl (1994) describes, as shown in

Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Assignment of 45 Leadership Attributes to Five Leadership Dimension Questions

Leadership Dimension	Number of Questions
Physiological attributes (PA)	9
Personality traits (PT)	9
Transformational leadership skills (TLS)	9
Interpersonal skills (IS)	9
Administrative skills (AS)	9
Total Questions	45

The five leadership dimensions contained the following leadership attributes,

skills and traits:

Physiological Attributes (PA)

is athletic and has stamina,
is trim and fit,
is attractive,
is healthy looking,
is well-groomed,
is well-dressed,

is energetic,
is male, and
is older in age.

Personality Traits (PT)

has self-control,
has integrity and a strong belief system,
is unselfish and loyal to the group,
has courage and takes risks,
is mature,
is creative,
is warm and approachable,
is honest, and
has a good sense of humor.

Transformational Leadership Skills (TLS)

creates a vision and aligns others with it,
believes in reason only,
is charismatic,
is able to solve and create conflict,
is able to align individual with organizational goals,
believes in situations where everybody wins (win-win),
appreciates diversity,
is entrepreneurial, and
is constantly learning, changing and innovating.

Interpersonal Skills (IS)

seeks everybody's input for group-based decisions,
is trustworthy and trusts and believes others,
is able to communicate effectively,
is an excellent listener,
believes and participates in mentoring programs,
supports making mistakes and failures,
walks about and talks to people one-on-one,
keeps promises, and
is open to influence from others.

Administrative Skills (AS)

challenges the way things are done,
empowers employees and delegates effectively,
shares information, knowledge and ownership,

ignores and destroys bureaucratic obstacles,
plans for long-term welfare and profitability,
forms effective teams,
supports long-term training,
agrees to long-term employment guarantees, and
creates and delegates meaningful tasks.

Next, the author randomly picked one leadership attribute from each of the above

five dimensions and listed them in the random order they were chosen—for example AS,

PA, PT, TLS, and IS. He continued this process until he eventually had nine questions

for each leadership dimension, each question containing one each of the five possible

leadership categories arranged in the random order they were chosen. The nine

leadership dimension questions appeared as follows:

Question Number in Questionnaire	Attribute, Trait, Skill	Dimension
16	is older in age	PA
	has self-control	PT
	creates a vision and aligns others with it	TLS
	seeks everybody's input for group-based decisions	IS
	challenges the way things are done	AS
17	empowers the employees and delegates work	AS
	walks around and talks to people one-on-one	IS
	is entrepreneurial	TLS
	has integrity and a strong belief system	PT
	is trim and fit	PA
18	is athletic and has stamina	PA
	is unselfish and loyal to the group	PT
	is charismatic	TLS
	is trustworthy and trusts and believes others	IS
	shares information, knowledge and ownership	AS

Question Number
in Questionnaire   Attribute, Trait, Skill   Dimension

19	ignores or destroys bureaucratic obstacles	AS
	is able to communicate effectively	IS
	believes in reason only	TLS
	has courage and takes risks	PT
	is healthy looking	PA
20	is attractive	PA
	is mature	PT
	is able to align individual with organizational goals	TLS
	is open to influence from others	IS
	plans for long-term well being and profitability	AS
21	forms effective teams	AS
	believes and participates in mentoring programs	IS
	is able to create an solve conflicts	TLS
	is creative	PT
	is well-dressed	PA
22	is well-groomed	PA
	is a warm and approachable person	PT
	appreciates diversity	TLS
	supports mistakes and failure making	IS
	supports and believes in long-term training	AS
23	agrees to long-term employment guarantees	AS
	believes in situations where everybody wins (win-win)	TLS
	is an excellent listener	IS
	is honest	PT
	is male	PA
24	is very energetic	PA
	has a good sense of humor	PT
	is constantly learning, changing and innovating	TLS
	keeps promises	IS
	creates and delegates meaningful tasks.	AS

For each question, the participating students were asked to rank the attributes by

their importance from 1 to 5, where 1 equals most important and 5 equals least important.

Demographic Information

The demographic information requested in the questionnaire included

> gender,
> age,
> major of study,
> semester of study,
> years of working experience in the hospitality industry,
> nationality, and
> primary racial-ethnic identity.

Data Collection and Sample Size

The procedures used to select the sample of hospitality management students

followed the recommendations of Cichy (1992), Gerstner and Day (1994), and Harley

(1996). All the students in this sample were enrolled in an undergraduate hospitality

management programs at ten hotel management schools in Switzerland (shown in

Appendix I), currently a destination country for students of many nationalities preparing

for hospitality careers.

The surveys were conducted in the fall of 1998 and the spring of 1999, the goal

being to obtaining 250 completed usable student responses, 50 from each country.

Toward this goal, a total of 1200 survey forms were distributed and 805 (67 percent)

useable questionnaires were collected, 207 from students of the cultures included in this

study. The author performed no screening and thus received responses from other

nationalities as well.

The questionnaire was administered by the author or proctors to foreign students at their respective Swiss hotel management schools. The procedure for administering the questionnaire remained identical for all groups, whether carried out by the author or one of the proctors, each of whom followed this nine-step format:

(1) Appointments were scheduled with the respective schools two to three weeks in advance.

(2) If the survey was conducted by a proctor, the author send the written materials to the school well in advance so the proctor could study the proceedings. To avoid any misunderstandings, a telephone conference with each proctor also preceded the actual collection of data.

(3) The author or a proctor visited the classes at the respective hospitality schools.

(4) The author or a proctor explained the nature of the study to the students.

(5) Before the survey was conducted, pamphlets with additional information about the study were made available to the students. The pamphlet reiterated that participation was voluntary and that the survey results would be reported as aggregate data.

(6) The author or a proctor explained how to fill out the questionnaire using an overhead projection of the questionnaire.

(7) The author or a proctor assured the students of the confidentiality of the study and emphasized that participation was voluntary.

(8) The author or a proctor answered any additional questions from the participants before distributing the questionnaires.

(9) The author or a proctor placed a box in the room where the students could deposit their completed questionnaires.

The following professors and teachers agreed to serve as survey proctors:

School	Proctor
Centre International Glion	Francine Goessel
Domino Carlton Tivoli	Birgit Black
Hotel Institute Montreux	Ronald Thomson
Hotel Management Les Roches	Eric Fevre
HTF Hotel- und Tourismusfachschule Chur	George Conrad
Institute hotelier "Cesar Ritz"	Richard Bladen
International College of Hospitality Administration	William Samenfink
International Hotel and Tourism Training Institute	Martin Senior
International Management Institute	Sean Duffy

Potential language problems were solved by disregarding incomplete questionnaires under the assumption that those students with language deficiencies would probably be among those who would leave a questionnaire incomplete.

For the 15 cultural value questions, the participants were asked to indicate their agreement on a five-point Likert scale from " I strongly agree" to "I strongly disagree." For the nine leadership questions, the participants were asked to rank from 1 to 5 the five leadership attributes in each cluster according to their perceived importance, where 1 equaled the most important attribute and 5 equaled the least important attribute.

The survey and the survey procedures followed the guidelines of The

Pennsylvania State University human subjects regulations and were approved by the

university. Participation was, of course, voluntary and the data did, in fact, remain

confidential.

The author or a designated assistant entered the data and arranged and analyzed it

by SPSS, version 7.5, on an IBM compatible computer.

Chapter 4

DATA ANALYSIS

The first part of this discussion focuses on the reliability and validity of the survey

instrument the author used to collect the data to ensure a meaningful analysis that allows

for interpretation and invites inferences.

Response Rate

In the fall of 1998 and early spring 1999, the author distributed a total of 1200

survey questionnaires equally among the ten hotel schools. By the end of the spring

1999, he had collected 805 questionnaire responses (67 percent). A total of 207 of these

questionnaires (26 percent) were usable; the other 598 came mostly from students of

national cultures precluded from the study, or from students who left the survey

incomplete. The author was unable to obtain the targeted 50 completed usable per group,

except for students from the U.S. A tabulation of the total usable surveys, as spread

among the five national groups studied, follows:

Country	N
Hong Kong	28
India	43
PRC	47
Taiwan	39
USA	50
Total	207

Four of the ten participating schools accounted for almost 80 percent of the students in the survey sample. The other schools returned many questionnaires completed by participants from countries precluded from this study. The imbalance was attributable in part to the interest the various proctors took in the project and in part, to the situation at the Swiss hospitality schools where students of one nationality seem to concentrate at particular schools.

Demographic Characteristics

Four of the five survey groups included more females than males. The exception was the sample for India that included mostly males.

The average age of all the students was 21.69 years, with the average for the Taiwanese students being somewhat higher (23.18 years). Taiwanese male students tended to be 23 to 25 years old because most had to serve in their country's army before they were allowed to study abroad.

A major difference between the groups showed in the average number of years of work experience. The U.S. students reported on average almost four years of work experience in the hospitality industry while the other students reported, on average, about one year of work in the industry. For most Asian students, the six months required internship in Switzerland represented all their work experience in the industry.

Table 4.1 summarizes these demographic characteristics:

Table 4.1: Summary of Respondents' Demographic Characteristics (n = 207)

	Hong Kong	India	PRC	Taiwan	U.S.A.	Total	Percent
Participants	28	43	47	39	50	207	100
Male	12	37	13	15	15	92	44
Female	16	6	34	24	35	115	56
Average Age	21.32	21.05	21.38	23.18	21.50	21.69	
Years of work Experience	0.78	1.14	0.92	1.24	3.91	1.60	

Table 4.2 breaks down the respondents by participating school in Switzerland. As

one can see from the table, four schools accounted for the majority of the usable surveys.

One could have anticipated this result since students from the same nationality tend to

enroll in the same Swiss school.

Table 4.2: Number of Usable Surveys Obtained from each of the 10 Swiss Schools (n = 207)

School	Hong Kong	India	PRC	Taiwan	U.S.A.	Total
Glion	0	0	0	4	0	4
DCT	0	5	0	4	0	9
HIM	0	7	0	0	26	33
Les Roches	3	3	0	4	0	10
HTF Chur	1	3	3	4	2	13
Institute "Cesar Ritz"	2	12	23	10	0	47
ICHA	6	0	1	0	0	7

Table 4.2: continued

School	Hong Kong	India	PRC	Taiwan	U.S.A.	Total
IHTTI	2	0	0	2	0	4
IMI	9	12	0	6	0	27
SIU	5	1	20	5	22	53
TOTAL	28	43	47	39	50	207

Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

The first part of the data analysis for both objectives tested the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. In a first step, the author had to establish that he could appropriately apply these methodologies to this study, or whether he had to use different approaches to interpret the responses to the questionnaire.

Cultural Dimensions

Validity of Cultural Dimensions

The author sought validity by basing his study upon and then closely following established and accepted research procedures. This study presented new concepts within the hospitality research context, but these concepts had become well established in other areas of research and other sectors of the economy (Cichy, 1992; Gestner and Day, 1994). In fact, Hofstede's (1995) and Trompenaars' (1994) taxonomies have become the most acceptable descriptors for studies dealing with national culture, and are based on extensive empirical work.

Reliability of Cultural Dimensions

Chapter 1 suggested that Hofstede's (1995) methodology might not be wholly adequate for measuring cultural dimensions for this study on hospitality students. On the one hand, Hofstede's work is cited repeatedly and is clearly the benchmark research in the realm of cultural studies; therefore, the author felt compelled to apply this research in his study. On the other hand, Hofstede's data is over 30 years old, his analysis of that data is some 20 years old, and his approach may be less applicable to today's hospitality students because of (1) burgeoning telecommunications and brand and commercial globalization, (2) its use in the manufacturing industry but not in the service industry, and (3) new PC-supported statistical methods virtually unknown two decades ago. The author decided to use the Hofstede approach for his study, but at the same time he decided that extensive reliability testing had to be an important part of the data analysis for the 15 cultural questions of the cultural dimensions.

The following steps summarize the manner in which the data were analyzed to meet Objective 1.

Statistical Analysis	Rationale	Result
Adoption of Model	Hofstede's model is adopted, five cultural dimensions with three questions (variables) per dimension, doubts about the model's fit for this study exist.	

Statistical Analysis	Rationale	Result
1. Cronbach Alpha	Test reliability of questionnaire: How well do the three variables measure each of the five dimensions.	Variables do not relate, thus Hofstede dimensions cannot to used to meet Objective 1.
2. Orthogonal Factor Analysis with Bartlett Spericity and Keiser-Meyer-Olkin Sampling Adequacy constraints	Determine underlying relationships among 15 variables across all five student groups.	Six factors with all 15 variables included were found.
3. ANOVA with six surrogate variables for six factors with Levene constraint	Compare the mean scores of U.S. students with each of the four Asian student groups	Variance was not homogeneous for four of six surrogate variables so use of ANOVA was not possible.
4. Unpaired T-test with Levene constraint for all six surrogate variables	Compare the mean scores for each surrogate variable for the the U.S. students with each of the four Asian student groups. Test null hypotheses that no significant differences existed for any variable for all paired comparisons.	Eleven variances are homogeneous and seven hypotheses were rejected for alternative hypotheses.

The following paragraphs explain each step in detail.

Step 1: Cronbach Alpha Testing. To address the just outlined concerns

regarding the application of the Hofstede methodology, the author used the Cronbach

Alpha statistic (Norusis, 1990) to determine the reliability of the data for the cultural

dimensions of the questionnaire. He used alpha values of at least .60 (deemed at the

lower limit of acceptability) to determine whether or not each of the 15 dimensions were

acceptable for this study.

Data from across all five student groups and all five cultural dimensions helped

establish the overall alpha. Furthermore, tests were conducted for the cultural dimensions

and categories of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity-femininity,

individualism-collectivism and long-term orientation. The author conducted Cronbach

Alpha tests on the responses to the 15 cultural value questions in order to determine if the

average scores for the three questions in each of the five cultural dimensions significantly

represented the respective dimension. (Table 4.3 shows the results)

Table 4.3: Cronbach Alpha Scores for the Five Cultural Dimensions of the Questionnaire (Appendix K)

Cultural Dimensions	Cronbach Alpha
All Five Dimensions	0.43
Power Distance	0.17
Uncertainty Avoidance	0.30
Masculinity-Femininity	0.03
Individualism-Collectivism	0.13
Long-term Orientation	0.06

The alpha scores for all five cultural dimensions were well below .60, indicating

that none of the values of the three questions for each dimension related significantly to

their respective dimensions. The alpha levels for the cultural dimensions were too low

for the author to proceed with the analysis as originally planned. As noted in Chapter 1, the use of the Hofstede model for this study may have been less than totally appropriate for addressing Objective 1, but it is the most widely accepted model for measuring differences in cultural values.

At this point in study, the author explored the possibilities that (1) there may be an underlying structure (or set of factors) in the data base that could represent the cultural values for the entire sample of 207 respondents, and (2) the resulting factors could be used to test for significant differences in cultural values between the U.S. students and students from each of the four Asian countries.

Step 2: Factor analysis. Following this reasoning, the author used factor analysis with orthogonal rotation and the Varimax criterion reduced the data from 15 variables to six factors. The sample size, with an almost 14-to-1 ratio of 207 statistical observations to the original 15 variables, satisfied the minimum requirements for factor analysis (Hair et al., 1995). Factor analysis addressed any underlying pattern of scores for the 15 variables and determined whether the data base could be condensed or summarized in a smaller set of factors (Hair et al., 1995, p. 365). That is, factor analysis served to create a new set of variables, much smaller in number, replace partially or completely the original set of variables for inclusion in subsequent techniques while still considering the conceptual underpinnings of the variables (Hair et al., 1995, p.371). Prior to the factor analysis, the author had used the R factor analysis for the variables demonstrating an underlying relationships of the variables derived from a correlation matrix was used. (Table 4.4)

To determine the significance of the underlying correlation values within the correlation matrix, the author turned to the Bartlett Sphericity test and the Keiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. The Bartlett Sphericity tested the underlying assumption that significant correlations existed among at least some of the variables, while the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy established the appropriateness of using the correlation matrix by comparing correlation values for the whole matrix and for individual variables (Hair et al., 1998). As Table 4.5 shows, the Bartlett Sphericity test indicated the existence of such an underlying relationship in the data, thus meeting requirements for factor analysis.

Table 4.4: Correlation Matrix for the 15 Variables of the Cultural Dimension (N = 207)

Correlation Matrix

Variable	X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	X7	X8	X9	X10	X11	X12	X13	X14	X15
X1 Paint	1.00	.15	.08	.10	.06	.11	-.05	.07	.08	.05	.10	-.04	.26	-.01	.21
X2 Unhappy		1.00	.03	-.08	-.12	.12	.12	.04	.06	.07	.02	-.01	.00	-.01	.12
X3 Timecard			1.00	.12	-.02	.06	.16	.06	.02	.07	.12	-.02	-.05	.07	.17
X4 Takecare				1.00	.06	.02	-.05	.10	-.05	-.03	-.01	.11	.09	.00	-.03
X5 Stayhome					1.00	.10	.06	.00	.18	-.14	.11	.02	.15	.04	-.03
X6 Foodcritic						1.00	.00	.04	.18	-.08	-.08	.14	.18	.04	.03
X7 Bosson							1.00	-.02	.01	.04	.08	.09	-.18	.10	-.09
X8 Smallhotel								1.00	-.05	.18	.05	.08	-.05	.09	.10
X9 Savefriend									1.00	-.08	.02	.06	.10	.04	.05
X10 Future										1.00	.21	.00	-.20	.22	.21
X11 Hotelroom											1.00	.12	-.04	.18	.10
X12 Exchange												1.00	-.03	.14	-.12
X13 Housing													1.00	-.04	.18
X14 Actyourself														1.00	.17
X15 Spending															1.00

Table 4.5: Results of the Bartlett Test of Sphericity for the 15 Original Cultural Variables (Appendix L)

Approx. Chi-square	202.197
Df	105
Significance	.000

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy test having been applied to his data, the author derived a value of .569, which was above the .50 acceptable score for the sample size used in this study (Hair et al., 1998). The results of the Bartlett Sphericity test and the Keiser-Meyer-Olkin test allowed the author to use factor analysis to determine the underlying structure of the correlation matrix of the 15 cultural variables.

To interpret the factors, the author then adopted the Orthogonal Rotation Method with Varimax criterion to simplify the rows and columns of the matrix (Hair et al., 1998). Factor loadings found acceptable were those variables with greater than .40 values. Loadings of .40 indicated significance of the variable for the factor. As Table 4.6 shows, the factor loading met the criteria of the required sample size.

Table 4.6: Sample Size Requirements for Factor Loading

Sample Size	Factor Loadings
50	.75
60	.70
70	.65
85	.60
100	.55
120	.50
150	.45
200	**.40**
250	.35
350	.30

Hair et al., 1998

The orthogonal rotated factor matrix with all 15 cultural variables produced six factors. Table 4.7 summarizes the rotated matrix with those factors with loadings greater than .40. The 15 variables had significant loadings onto six factors, which the author retained for further analysis.

Table 4.7: Results of the Orthogonal Rotated Factor Matrix with all 15 Variables (Appendix M)

Surrogate Variable		Factors 1	2	3	4	5	6
X1	Paint	.648					
X13	Housing	.637					
X15	Spending	.600					
X14	Actself		.657				
X10	Future		.657				
X11	Hotroom		.596				
X9	Savefriend			.646			
X5	Stayhome			.610			
X12	Exchange				.699		
X4	Takecare				.516		
X8	Smallhotel				.493		
X6	Foodcritic				.434		
X2	Unhappy					.760	
X3	Timecard						.767
X7	Bosson						.611

Next, the resulting six factors received names associated with the appropriate cultural values. Four the six factors, however, contained some of the same variables as Hofstede's original dimensions, with some minor exceptions. Because some of the six factors resembled Hofstede's original dimensions, the author used Hofstede's original

names for some of these factors. The variables were rearranged and re-named as

shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Summary of the Orthogonal Rotated Factor Matrix with the Resulting Six Factors (n = 207)

Factor	Variable		Name of Factors
Factor 1:	X1	Paint	**Social Equality**, all three variables
	X13	Housing	reflect individual versus group
	X15	Spending	issues.
Factor 2:	X14	Actself	**Individualism**, as all three variables
	X10	Future	indicate an individuals choice for
	X11	Hotroom	self determination
Factor 3:	X9	Savefriend	**Collectivism**, both variables address
	X5	Stayhome	responsibilities toward a group.
Factor 4:	X12	Exchange	**Social Rules**,
	X4	Takecare	three of four variables reflect in some
	X8	Smallhotel	way a group's rules for social
	X6	Foodcritic	behavior.
Factor 5:	X2	Unhappy	**Masculinity**, variable includes outspokenness, normally seen as a gender difference
Factor 6:	X3	Timecard	**Power Distance**, both variables
	X7	Bosson	address social stratification issues within groups.

At this point, the author selected the surrogate variables within each factor for

further testing to determine if significant difference existed between a given surrogate's

mean value for U.S. students and that surrogate mean value for each of the four Asian

student groups. According to Hair et al., one can use the variable with the highest factor

loading on each factor as the sole independent variable in further data analysis for that

factor (p. 389). The author used the surrogate variables for each of the factors shown in

table 4.9. They received the original terms for the dimensions where appropriate.

Table 4.9: Surrogate Variables Chosen for the Six Factors, Plus Their Names from Hofstede's Original Cultural Dimensions and Names of the Factors

Factor Name	Surrogate Variable	Original Cultural Dimension
Social Equality	X1 Paint	Power Distance
Individualism	X14 Actself	Individualism-Collectivism
Collectivism	X9 Savefriend	Uncertainty Avoidance
Social Rules	X12 Exchange	Uncertainty Avoidance
Masculinity	X2 Unhappy	Masculinity-Femininity
Power Distance	X3 Timecard	Power Distance

Comparison of Means for Cultural Dimensions

Step 3: ANOVA. The author selected ANOVA testing as the best comparison of

the means across the five different populations (Ott, 1988). But before he could conduct

the ANOVA, he used a Levene statistic to determine whether or not the variances of the

six surrogate variables were homogeneous – a requirement for ANOVA. The results of

the Levene statistics shown in Table 4.10 indicated that the variances of the six

surrogate variables were not homogeneous; therefore, ANOVA could not be used in this

study.

Table 4.10: Results of Levene Statistic for Homogeneity of Variance for the Six Surrogate Variables

Factor	Surrogate Variable	Levene Statistics	df 1	df 2	Sig .05
Social Equality	X 1 Paint	3.385	4	202	.010*
Power Distance	X 3 Timecard	3.481	4	202	.009*
Collectivism	X 9 Savefriend	2.522	4	202	.042*
Social Rules	X12 Exchange	1.703	4	202	.151
Masculinity	X 2 Unhappy	5.220	4	202	.001*
Individualism	X14 Actself	1.582	4	202	.181

* Highlighted scores indicate significant differences at the .05 level.

Step 4: Unpaired T-test. For each of the six surrogate variables, the author used

unpaired t-tests in accordance with Ott (1988) to determine if the mean scores for the

U.S. students differed significantly from the mean scores for each of the four other

student groups: 24 paired comparisons = 6 surrogate variables X 4 sets of un-paired

comparisons.

Two of the six surrogate variables (X9 "savefriend" and X12 "exchange") had to

be omitted from further testing because their variances lacked homogeneity. But as table

4.11 shows, for the other four surrogate variables (X1 "paint," X14 "actself," X2

"unhappy", and X3 "timecard"), the Levene statistics indicated equal variances for

eleven of the 24 t-testing comparisons.

Table 4.11: **Results of Levene Statistics in Order to Establish Homogeneity Among the Surrogate Variables for Comparisons of Mean Scores from the U.S. Students and the Respective Scores for Students from Each of the Four Asian Countries (Appendix N)**

Factor	Countries Comparing	Levene Test Equal variance F	Sig .05
Social Equality	**US v. HK**	**10.102**	**.002***
Individualism	ditto	.162	.688
Collectivism	ditto	1.708	.195
Social Rules	ditto	.046	.831
Masculinity	ditto	**11.699**	**.001***
Power Distance	ditto	.650	.423
Social Equality	**US v. India**	**8.333**	**.005***
Individualism	ditto	**4.365**	**.039***
Collectivism	ditto	2.258	.136
Social Rules	ditto	0.045	.832
Masculinity	ditto	1.174	.282
Power Distance	ditto	**11.200**	**.001***
Social Equity	**US v. PRC**	**7.746**	**.006***
Individualism	ditto	3.620	.060
Collectivism	ditto	**6.801**	**.011***
Social Rules	ditto	.626	.431
Masculinity	ditto	**4.863**	**.030***
Power Distance	ditto	**7.702**	**.007***
Social Equity	**US v. Taiwan**	**7.394**	**.008***
Individualism	ditto	0.144	.706
Collectivism	ditto	0.023	.880
Social Rules	ditto	3.331	.071
Masculinity	ditto	**4.442**	**.038***
Power Distance	ditto	2.502	.117

* Highlighted scores indicate significant differences at the .05 level.

The results of the Levene statistics allowed the author to test the following null

hypotheses where X_{ij} was the arithmetic mean score for all students from any country i

(which can vary: 1 = Hong Kong, 2 = India, 3 = PRC, 4 = Taiwan, 5 = USA) and for all

six new surrogate variables j (1 to 6). A total of eleven research hypotheses for the six

surrogate variables of the new cultural dimensions of Objective 1 underwent testing.

(Table 4.11) The eleven null-hypotheses follow:

(1)   Ho: $\overline{X}_{51} = \overline{X}_{11}$,

(2)   Ho: $\overline{X}_{55} = \overline{X}_{15}$,

(3)   Ho: $\overline{X}_{51} = \overline{X}_{21}$,

(4)   Ho: $\overline{X}_{52} = \overline{X}_{22}$,

(5)   Ho: $\overline{X}_{56} = \overline{X}_{26}$,

(6)   Ho: $\overline{X}_{51} = \overline{X}_{31}$,

(7)   Ho: $\overline{X}_{53} = \overline{X}_{33}$,

(8)   Ho: $\overline{X}_{55} = \overline{X}_{35}$,

(9)   Ho: $\overline{X}_{56} = \overline{X}_{36}$,

(10)   Ho: $\overline{X}_{51} = \overline{X}_{41}$, and

(11)   Ho: $\overline{X}_{55} = \overline{X}_{45}$.

The results of the t-tests adduced seven significant differences between the mean

scores for the U.S. students and the mean scores for each of the other four groups. For

the Social Equality factor, the mean scores between the students from the U.S.A. and

those from all three Chinese cultures of Hong Kong, People's Republic of China and

Taiwan were significantly different. Additionally, significant differences between the

scores of the U.S. students and those from Hong Kong were tested for the factor

Masculinity, while differences in mean scores for the factor Power Distance were shown

between U.S. students and those from the People's Republic of China. Significant

differences in mean scores between students from India and the U.S.A. were tested for

the Individualism and Power Distance factors. (Table 4.12)

Table 4.12: Results of Eleven T-tests to Determine if Significant Differences Existed for Four Factors for Eleven Comparison of Mean Scores Between U.S. Students and Students from Each of Four Asian Groups (Appendix N)

Factor	Student Group Comparing	T-test for Equality of Means		
		T	df	Sig. (2tail)
Social Equality	U.S. v. HK	3.680	76	.000*
Masculinity	U.S. v. HK	2.881	76	.005*
Individualism	U.S. v. India	-3.079	90	.003*
Power Distance	U.S. v. India	-3.218	91	.002*
Social Equality	U.S. v. PRC	3.704	95	.000*
Power Distance	U.S. v. PRC	-2.822	95	.006*
Social Equality	US v. Taiwan	3.454	87	.001*

* Highlighted scores significant differences at the .05 level.

Table 4.13 summarizes the mean scores for the seven factors for which significant

differences were tested between the U.S. students and the four Asian student groups.

Table 4.13: Results of Two-way Comparisons of Mean Scores Between U.S. Students and Each of Four Asian Groups in Terms of Four Factor's Surrogate Variables with Significant Differences (Appendix N)

Factor	Surrogate Variable	USA N = 50	Hong Kong N = 28	Country India N = 43	PRC N = 47	Taiwan N = 39
Social Equality	X1 (Paint)	4.56	**3.71***	4.16	**3.79***	**3.85***
Individualism	X14 (Actself)	1.78	2.14**	**2.49***	2.30**	1.95**
Masculinity	X2 (Unhappy)	3.20	**2.46***	3.21**	3.02**	3.10**
Power Distance	X3 (Timecard)	2.38	2.46**	**3.30***	**3.17***	3.03**

* Darkened scores indicate significant differences at .05 level.

** Two-way comparisons disallowed under the Levine constraint.

Ratings are 1 = strongly agree, 2 = somewhat agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = somewhat disagree and 5 = strongly disagree.

The implications of these results for Objective 1 receive further attention in Chapter 5.

Leadership Dimensions

The testing of Objective 2, to determine whether significant differences existed among the five student groups for five leadership dimensions, included two major steps in which the author tested the data from the questionnaire for reliability and validity and then for significant differences among the five student groups.

Validity of Leadership Dimensions

The author assured the validity of the leadership dimensions by basing this part of his study upon and then closely following established and accepted research methodologies and procedures pioneered by Cichy (1992), Gerstner and Day (1994), and Yukl (1994). He selected the leadership attributes from current transformational leadership theories, isolating 45 discrete leadership attributes, and consciously selecting five for each of Yukl's five leadership dimensions. Leadership attributes were selected from the works of Belasco and Stayer (1993), Cichy (1992), Covey (1989 and 1990), Kouzes and Posner (1995), Peters (1987), among others.

Reliability of Leadership Dimensions

The data for the second part of the survey focused on leadership attributes and skills and underwent other reliability tests, as they involved rank order variables requiring non-parametric analysis.

In the testing of Objective 2, the author used two steps in which he tested the data from the questionnaire for reliability and then for significant differences among the five student groups. The two steps follow in tabular form:

Statistical Analysis	Rationale	Result
1. Kruskal-Wallis H	Non-parametric test for all 45 variables too see whether they are significant for testing differences among the means of the five student groups	19 variables tested significantly different
2. Mann-Whitney U	Pair comparison for non-parametric data for each of 19 variables between the U.S. and each of the four Asian groups	Number of times significant differences found: U.S. - India 7 U.S. - HK 9 U.S. – PRC 15 U.S. – Taiwan 10

Step 1: Kruskal-Wallis H test of the data. Norusis (1990) and Ott (1988)

recommended the Kruskal-Wallis H test for determining differences in mean rank scores

when more than two populations are involved. In this study, students in each of the five

groups were asked to rank from 1 to 5 -- where 1 equaled most important and 5 equaled

least important variable -- their questionnaire answers to nine questions with five

variables each. Each of the five groups had a mean rank score between 1 to 5 for all 45

variables.   The results of the Kruskal-Wallis H tests, shown in Table. 4.14, indicated that

for 19 of the 45 variables significant differences existed for the mean rank scores among

the five student groups.

Table 4.14: Kruska-Wallis H Test Results for Mean Rank Order Scores of 45 Variables Used to Describe Leadership Qualities Within Each of Five Student Groups (Appendix O)

45 Variables of Leadership	Grand Rank Order Mean Score for all Five Student Groups	Chi-Square	df	Sig. Level .05
DIMENSION: Physical Attributes (PA)				
X 1 is older	4.58	6.707	4	.152
X 2 is trim and fit	4.08	52.077	4	.000*
X 3 is athletic and had stamina	4.19	41.189	4	.000*
X 4 is healthy	4.23	35.368	4	.000*
X 5 is attractive	4.43	31.305	4	.000*
X 6 is well-dressed	4.47	2.456	4	.652
X 7 is well-groomed	4.10	11.183	4	.025*
X 8 is male	4.74	13.735	4	.008*
X 9 is energetic	3.67	12.293	4	.015*
DIMENSION: Personality Traits (PT)				
X10 has self-control	2.56	3.813	4	.432
X11 has integrity	2.37	13.667	4	.008*
X12 is unselfish	2.66	6.790	4	.147
X13 has courage	2.36	12.540	4	.014*
X14 is mature	3.34	6.003	4	.199
X15 creative	2.84	5.225	4	.265
X16 is approachable	2.51	1.432	4	.839
X17 is honest	2.45	17.719	4	.001*
X18 has good sense of humor	3.51	11.495	4	.022*
DIMENSION: Transformational Leadership Skills (TLS)				
X19 creates vision	2.29	5.684	4	.224
X20 is entrepreneurial	2.86	16.299	4	.003*
X21 is charismatic	3.17	5.655	4	.226
X22 believes is reason only	3.21	23.094	4	.000*

Table 4.14: continued

45 Variables of Leadership	Grand Rank Order Mean Score for all Five Student Groups	Chi-Square	df	Sig. Level .05
X23 aligns personal and organizational goals	2.26	52.693	4	**.000***
X24 Creates and solves conflicts	2.36	21.072	4	**.000***
X25 appreciates diversity	2.61	2.862	4	.581
X26 believes in win-win	2.45	6.243	4	.182
X27 is constantly learning and Changing	2.29	62.828	4	**.000***

DIMENSION: Interpersonal Skills (IS)				
X28 seeks everybody's input	2.42	9.206	4	.056
X29 walks around talks to people	3.00	30.695	4	**.000***
X30 trusts and believes	2.24	8.293	4	.081
X31 communicates effectively	1.63	20.928	4	**.000***
X32 is open to influence	2.89	8.485	4	.075
X33 believes in mentoring	2.74	8.826	4	.066
X34 supports mistake and failures	3.00	6.820	4	.146
X35 is an excellent listener	2.16	5.166	4	.271
X36 keeps promises	2.86	12.228	4	**.015***
DIMENSION: Administrative Skills (AS)				
X37 challenges the way things are done	3.10	2.187	4	.701
X38 empowers and delegates	2.42	2.666	4	.615
X39 shares information and ownership	2.62	2.406	4	.661
X40 ignores and destroys obstacles	3.42	7.279	4	.122
X41 plans long-term profitability	2.31	1.516	4	.824
X42 forms effective teams	2.58	3.992	4	.407
X43 believes in long-term training	2.57	7.496	4	.112
X44 agrees to long-term employment	3.00	8.282	4	.082
X45 creates and delegates meaningful tasks	2.66	5.908	4	.206

* Highlighted scores indicate significant differences at the .05 level.

Notice that the dimension Administrative Skills was dropped from further analysis, because for none of the leadership variables in that dimension were the mean rank scores were significantly different among the five student groups.

Comparison of Mean Rank Scores for Leadership Dimension

Step 2: Mann-Whitney U statistic for 19 significant variables. For the 19 leadership variables retained in Step 1, the author used the Mann-Whitney U statistic -- which, as Ott (1988) noted, does not require normal distributions or equal variances in the statistical observations -- to compare the mean rank score of each of the 19 variables for U.S. students with the corresponding score for that variable for each of the other four student groups. The tests yielded significant differences between the U.S. students and the other groups; the largest number of differences occurred between the U.S. and the People's Republic of China, followed by those between the U.S. and Taiwan and Hong Kong. The comparisons between the U.S. and Indian students produced the smallest number different variables with significantly different mean rank scores. (Table 4.15)

Table 4.15: Summary of Variables Tested for Significant Differences in the Paired Comparisons of the Mann-Whitney Tests (Appendix P)

Dimension/ Variable	USA	Hong Kong	India	PRC	Taiwan
1. Physical Attributes (PA)					
X2 is trim and fit	4.80	**3.89***	4.44	**3.36***	**3.77***
X3 is athletic and has stamina	4.78	**3.89***	4.60	**3.64***	**3.85***
X4 is healthy	4.64	4.29	4.65	**3.72***	**3.82***
X5 is attractive	4.78	**4.39***	4.70	**3.81***	**4.46***
X8 is male	4.90	4.82	4.70	**4.40***	4.92
X9 is energetic	3.68	3.57	4.07	3.19	3.87
X7 is well-groomed	4.28	3.86	4.00	**3.77***	4.54
2. Personality Traits (PT)					
X16 is honest	1.90	**2.50***	**2.84***	**2.53***	**2.59***
X11 has integrity	1.90	**2.68***	2.33	2.32	**2.85***
X13 has courage	2.00	**2.64***	2.26	**2.64***	**2.38***
X18 has a good sense of humor	4.00	3.43	**3.40***	3.49	**3.10***
3. Transformational Leadership Skills (TLS)					
X27 is constantly learning and changing	1.38	**2.25***	1.84	**3.49***	**2.54**
X23 aligns personal and organizational goals	1.76	2.07	1.88	**3.53***	1.90
X22 believes in reason only	3.52	3.00	3.19	**2.64***	3.67
X24 creates and solves problems	2.08	2.14	**2.88***	**2.77***	1.79
X20 is entrepreneurial	3.22	3.11	**2.67***	**2.32***	3.10
4. Interpersonal Skills (IS)					
X29 walks around and talks to people	2.22	**3.18***	**3.02***	**3.70***	**3.00***
X31 communicates effectively	1.20	**1.75***	**1.93***	**1.85***	1.51
X36 keeps promises	2.84	2.79	**3.40***	2.51	2.74

* Highlighted scores indicate 41 significant differences at .the 05 level.
Ranking was from 1 = first most important, 2 = second most important, 3 = third most important, 4 = fourth most important and 5 = least important

Table 4.16 summarizes the number of times the mean rank scores for the students

from the U.S. significantly differed from those scores from one of the other four student

groups.

Table 4.16: Number of Times Mean Rank Scores for U.S. Students Differed
Significantly at .05 Level from the Other Four Countries

Countries Comparing	Number of Times with Sig. Differences in Mean Rank Scores
U.S. v. Hong Kong	9
U.S. v. India	7
U.S. v. PRC	15
U.S. v. Taiwan	10
TOTAL	**41**

Based on Table 4.16, the significant differences between the cultures for the

leadership categories of Objective 2 seem to result from differences in mean rank scores

between the U.S. and those scores for the other four groups, and here mostly the scores of

the three Chinese student groups. The U.S. students placed little emphasis on variables

the in dimension Physical Attributes and strong emphasis on those in the Interpersonal

Skills dimension when their scores were compared with those of the other four groups.

For the dimension Transformational Leadership Skills, the significant differences in

scores occurred between the Indian and U.S. students.

The findings for Objectives 1 and 2 show similarities. The U.S.

students' scores are in most cases the ones that set them apart from the other student

groups. The scores for the Indian students showed smaller differences from the U.S. students than those of the three Chinese cultures. Chapter 5 discusses these findings, which seem intuitively to be accurate, in more detail and places these findings in the context of the results and findings of previous studies.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The Problem and Study Objectives

A substantial amount of the hospitality management literature indicates that students who graduate from U.S. hospitality management schools are inadequately trained for international assignments in an ever more global hospitality industry. Foremost among the absent essential skills, one finds a basic understanding of foreign cultures and their corresponding leadership styles. For example, in the early 1980's,the Marriott Corporation hired predominantly Australian, British, Dutch, New Zealand, or Swiss trained managers, but only two American-trained managers, for international assignments (Shames, 1986). In addition, high on-the-job failure rates in the 1980's in foreign assignments of U.S. trained hospitality managers occasioned large financial losses for many international hospitality businesses (Black and Mendenhall, 1990). Examples of major markets where this problem currently exists include Hong Kong, India, the People's Republic of China (PRC), and Taiwan.

The study presented here was designed to help solve this problem, and it focused on these three objectives:

(1)   To determine if significant differences exist in cultural values between U.S. students and their counterparts from Hong Kong, India, the PRC, and Taiwan.

(2)   To determine if significant differences exist in leadership

characteristics between U.S. students and their counterparts from

Hong Kong, India, the PRC, and Taiwan.

(3)   Based on the results of Objectives 1 and 2, to prescribe specific

subject matter areas U.S. based four-year hospitality management

programs need to include in order to improve the capabilities of

their graduates to cope with and succeed in managerial assignments

abroad.

The discussion of the study results follows primarily the sequence and major

content of the first two study objectives centered on cultural values and leadership skills.

Prescriptions for four-year U.S. hospitality management programs appear within each of

these two categories. Because of the serendipitous nature of the distributions uncovered

in the study's database, and what these discoveries mean in terms of future research, the

author has also included a brief discussion of his methodology in both the cultural value

and leadership sections of this chapter.

Cultural Factors

Methodology

Hofstede's (1995) taxonomy for cultural dimensions (or values) remains the

most widely used empirical model for examining differences in national culture, as

reflected in the work Ralston et al. (1992) and Gerstner and Day (1994); and the author

used a condensed version of Hofstede's taxonomy initially to design a survey

questionnaire with 15 variables, in the form of 15 questions to meet Objective 1.

(Appendix J sets forth the questionnaire) The survey was administered to a total of 207

hospitality students from the U.S. and the four Asian groups who were studying at ten

hotel management schools in Switzerland in between 1998 and 1999.

The survey data results indicated that the condensed number of variables (15)

used with the Hofstede approach in this study were neither reliable nor valid. As a result,

the author used factor analysis in order to explore any underlying structure in the overall

database (n = 207). Six factors emerged, and the content of four of them somewhat

resembled Hofstede's original dimensions. The author labeled these six new factors:

Social Equality, Individualism, Collectivism, Social Rules, and Power Distance. (Table

4.8 shows the six factors)

Six surrogate variables served to represent each of the six factors. The six

surrogate variables did not have homogeneous variance; therefore, the author subjected

24 two-way comparisons (each of the six surrogate variables times each for four

comparisons between the U.S. versus each of the four Asian groups) to the Levene test.

The Levene test produced homogeneous variances between the student groups for eleven

out of the above 24 two-way comparisons. As a result, eleven out of the 24 two-way

comparisons were eligible for the next step in which unpaired t-tests were used to

determine if significant differences existed between the mean score values of U.S.

students and those for each of the other four student groups. The test results indicated

that for seven out of eleven surrogate variables the mean scores for U.S. students differed

significantly from one or more of the four Asian student groups. Those associated

surrogate variables were: Social Equality, Individualism, Masculinity, and Power

Distance.

Cultural Factors where Significant Differences Occurred Between the U.S. Students

and One or More of the Four Asian Student Groups

The mean scores for factor surrogate variables of the U.S. students differed

significantly from the corresponding mean scores for those variables in the other four

groups, as shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Results of Two-way Comparisons of Mean Scores Between U.S.
Students and Each of Four Asian Groups in Terms of Four
Factor's Surrogate Variables with Significant Differences
(Appendix Ø) ∿

Factor	Factor's Question Number	Surrogate Variables	Four Asian Student Groups				
			USA N = 50	HongKong N = 2	India N = 43	PRC N = 47	Taiwan N = 39
Social Equality	1	Paint	4.56	**3.71***	4.16	**3.79***	**3.85***
Individualism	14	Actself	1.78	2.14**	**2.49***	2.30**	1.95**
Masculinity	2	Unhappy	3.20	**2.46***	3.21**	3.02	3.10
Power Distance	3	Timecard	2.38	2.46**	**3.30***	**3.17***	3.03**

* Dark scores indicate significant differences at the .05 level.

** Two-way comparisons disallowed under the Levene constraint.

Scores range from: 1 = strongly agree, 2 = somewhat agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = somewhat disagree and 5 = strongly disagree.

Concise definitions for the surrogate variables can be found in Appendix J.

Discussion of the Social Equality Factor

Referring to the initial factor analysis (Table 4.8), Social Equality pertains to the professional interaction between superiors and subordinates in both a work and a non-work environment. More specifically, in terms of the way the question for this factor was worded in the survey, a supervisor cannot ask an employee to work outside of working hours. Significant differences occurred between the mean score for the U.S. students (4.56) and each of the three Chinese groups (Hong Kong, 3.71: PRC, 3.79: Taiwan, 3.85). (Table 5.1) These findings are similar to those reported by Hofstede's (1995) Power Distance dimension, in that the U.S. has less of a Power Distance than the two of the three Chinese cultures in his study (the PRC was not included in Hofstede's study.)

In American society, hierarchies and chains of command in the work environment do not normally carry over into an employee's private life, and this expectation is evident in the higher scores of the U.S. students compared to the scores for the three Chinese groups. Furthermore, Chinese businesses are typically family businesses with a patriarch as head of both the family and the business, and the family and business members tend to

follow his orders whenever and wherever they occur (Ralston et al., 1992). This strict

social hierarchy in Chinese culture follows the teachings of Confucius. Belonging to

established social groups and not disturbing the harmony within those groups are major

aspects of Confucian teaching (Fukuyama,1995). Despite many changes in the three

Chinese societies over the last 40 years (the Cultural Revolution, the Gang of Four, the

opening of trade overtures under DENG XiaoPing.) the social rules of Confucius still

prevail within Chinese societies; these values have been passed down through family

generation despite concerted efforts by the Communists to eradicate these values.

(Ralston, 1992)

No significant differences emerged between the mean scores for the U.S. students

(4.56) and those for Indian students (4.16). Indian students appear unwilling to accept

work related assignments when off work.

Discussion of the Individualism Factor

As shown in Table 4.8, the individualism factor refers to how an individual

behaves in term of his or her own interests. That is, in terms of the question for this

factor in the survey, a person would always act the way s/he feels without worrying about

consequences for other people.

There were significant differences between the U.S. scores (1.78) and the Indian

students (2.49) where one equaled highest level of individualism. These findings parallel

those reported by Hofstede (1995); who reported scores for Individualism for U.S.

participants (actually for all Anglo groups including Australians and Canadians) while reporting scores for collectivism for the Indian culture.

The significant difference found in scores between the U.S. and the Indian students seemed to suggest that the social group (immediate and extended family) still plays a large role in Indian society. The Indian students seemed more concerned with the effect of their actions for and their responsibility to the social environment. This response may reflect the fact that Indian students studying abroad in Switzerland are often supported not only by their immediate families but by relatives as well. It is not uncommon, that a whole extended Indian family supports the education of one student who helps other family members into the profession. Furthermore, many students receive funding for their studies from their government, which expects them to pay back their obligation to society.

Discussion of the Masculinity Factor

This masculinity factor, involved the willingness to complain openly about work-related problems. (Table 4.8) The literature equates outspokenness with assertiveness and therefore masculine value. Significant differences occurred between the Hong Kong (2.46) and the U.S. (3.20) groups. (Table 5.1) Nonetheless, the mean scores for all groups clustered around the neutral opinion category. Hofstede (1995) reported almost identical scores for the U.S., Hong Kong and Indian cultures in his study, and substantial differences in scores for these same three groups versus the Taiwanese culture.

Compared with Hostede's original findings, the PRC and U.S. students seemed to have moved toward more feminine the values characteristic of the Taiwanese students. These results came somewhat unexpectedly, because U.S. students are believed to be more outspoken than their Asian counterparts. This significant difference in the scores between the U.S. and the Hong Kong students, may be due to the highly competitive current market situation in Hong Kong, resulting in a need for students to assert themselves in their society in order to be successful.

Discussion of the Power Distance Factor

The factor labeled "power distance" addressed the social stratification that takes place within a specific group, as in this study of five groups. The scores for U.S. students (2.38) differed significantly from those from India (3.30) and the PRC (3.17). Again, as in several of the other factors, scores tended to cluster around both sides of the neutral score.

These findings agree with Hofstede's scores for power distance between Indian and U.S. participants. Results here relate to the results of the Social Factor discussed. The U.S. students' scores for Social Equality factor (2.38) strongly support the imposition of a strict separation between business and private lives of employees, in that managers should not interfere with the private life of their employees outside of the work environment. Yet, the high score for U.S. students (2.38) for the power distance factor suggests that they agree that there does not need to be an equal treatment of all employees

by managers within the work environment. The scores for students from India (3.30) and the PRC (3.17) differed significantly from those of the U.S. students in the other direction, suggesting the advisability of equal treatment of all employees within a business organization.

India and the PRC have both been under the strong influence of socialist theories stressing equal rights and treatment for all people in the work environment. In the socialist approach, all employees are considered workers, they dress in the same work outfits, and they receive the same pay for all types of work (Ralston et al., 1992). This equal treatment in the workplace, where no significant differences exist in treatment between managers and workers is in stark contrast to the U.S. where substantially different rules exist for blue- and white-collar workers within a business organization.

Discussion of the Two-way Comparisons Without Significant Differences Between the U.S. Students and Each of the Four Other Student Groups

Notice, as well, that in four of the eleven t-tests no significant differences emerged in scores between the U.S. students and those for the other four student groups. (Table 5.2 shows this result.)

These findings were different than those of Hofstede (1995). In his study, predominantly substantial differences occurred in the scores between the U.S. and those for the three cultural groups (the PRC was not included in Hofstede's study).

The similarity between the U.S. students and the Asian students in these two-way comparisons may suggest a convergence of cultural values between the U.S. students and students from these Asian countries. These findings lend credence to the theories of post-modernism that have argued that today's generations are not as different as their parents' still were. Proponents of post-modernism theories attribute this convergence to technology and telecommunication advancements, as well as economic globalization (Giroux, 1994). Changes in cultural values were earlier adduced in a study comparing cultural dimensions for respondents from Hong Kong and the PRC (Ralston,1992). Considering those results, this study's findings suggest that one should apply post-modernism theories more often to discussions of cultural differences. Future studies might well involve documenting changing values that result in a blending of cultural values among the students of different countries.

Table 5.2: Results of Two-way Comparisons of Mean Scores Between U.S. Students and Four Asian Groups in Terms of Four Factors' Surrogate Variables With No Significant Differences

Factor	Number	Factor's Surrogate Variables	USA N = 50	Hong Kong N = 2	India N = 43	PRC N = 47	Taiwan N = 39
Social Equality	1	Paint	4.56		**4.16**		
Masculinity	2	Unhappy	3.20			**3.02**	**3.10**

Scores range from 1 = strongly agree, 2 = somewhat agree, 3 = neither agree not disagree, 4 = somewhat disagree, to 5 = strongly disagree.

Full text for the questions for the surrogate variables can be found in Appendix J.

Summary for Cultural Factors and Implications for Educators

For the social equality factor, U.S. students are accustomed to a clear separation of the work environment from private life. Owners and managers exert authority over their employees in the work environment but lose this authority outside the workplace where superiors and subordinates have equal rights and statuses. U.S. students who may eventually work in Asia need to be made aware of this cultural difference, because they could experience substantial problems with Asian hospitality executives and managers, when faced with work requests outside the workplace. Also once being in leadership positions in Asia themselves, U.S. managers may on occasion reasonably expect to encounter responsibilities beyond business. For example, they might be held responsible for the housing decisions for their employees.

For the individualism and masculinity factor, U.S. students and businesses should be prepared for a higher level of individualism and outspokenness (masculinity) among Chinese students in particular. These findings seem to contradict the widespread public impression that these cultural groups are more timid than American students and that they are more concerned than American students with maintaining harmony in the social group. This view might have to undergo an adjustment, as today's Chinese students seem to be more outspoken than their parents, and in fact, their scores for the individualism factor were not substantially different from those of the U.S. students. Even though the scores for individualism were not significantly different between the U.S. and the

Chinese students, further studies should address these higher scores for individualism to see whether the pursuit of individualism could come into conflict with business interests.

Even more importantly, U.S. businesses and the students they send as managers to India and the PRC need to understand the importance of the concept of equal treatment for all employees at work. Increasingly, students and employees everywhere are beginning to expect this equal treatment, regardless of rank and organizational charts. The author can support this finding from his own experience as an academic advisor to more than 300 Chinese students over the last four years. These students expect absolute equal treatment notwithstanding the differences in academic entry levels among them.

Educators need to address all these cultural differences so that their students will be prepared for and can successfully overcome problems in international assignments, in at least the four foreign countries studied here. Table 5.3 summarizes the salient differences and identifies the possible underlying causes for these differences. These causes, in turn, should receive attention in the students' four-year bachelor's degree programs in hospitality management in the U.S.

Table 5.3: Summary of Reasons for Differences Between the U.S. Students and the Students form Four Asian Countries for Cultural Factors

Factor	Surrogate Variable	Survey Question	Significant Difference	Potential Underlying Cause(s) of Differences
Social Equality	Paint	2	U.S.-Hong Kong U.S.-PRC U.S.-Taiwan	- Confucianism - family style of Chinese businesses - need to belong to family
Individualism	Actself	14	U.S.-India	- influence of large family and clan
Masculinity	Unhappy	2	U.S.-Hong Kong	- competitiveness in Hong Kong market place
Power Distance	Timecard	3	U.S.-India U.S.-P.R.C.	- Communism, equal status of all workers

Leadership Dimensions

Methodology

Based on a review of current literature on transformational leadership theories, the author chose 45 variables for inclusion in the survey questionnaire setforth in Appendix J. These 45 variables were consciously assigned to one of five leadership dimensions adopted from Yukl.(1994) Results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test indicated significant

differences for 19 of the 45 leadership variables for the mean rank scores among the

five student groups. The author turned to the Mann-Whitney U test (Table 5.5) to

compare the mean rank score of each of the 19 variables for the U.S. students with the

corresponding mean rank score for each of the four Asian student groups for a total of

four comparisons per variable, or 76 total two-way comparisons.

As Table 5.4 shows, of the 76 comparisons, 41 (54 percent) suggested that the

U.S. students' mean rank scores differed from those of various Asian student groups.

Table 5.4: Percent of Times 19 Leadership Variables Across Four Leadership Dimensions* Resulted in 41 Significant Differences Between the U.S. Students and Students from Each of One or More of the Four Asian Student Groups

Dimension	Number of Sig. Variables	Number of times Significant Differences occurred between U.S.:				Percent of Times Sig. Difference Occurred
		Hong Kong	India	PRC	Taiwan	
Physical Attributes	7	3	0	6	4	13 of 24 = 54%
Personality Traits	4	3	2	2	4	11 of 16 = 69%
Transformational Leadership Skills	5	1	2	5	1	9 of 20 = 45%
Interpersonal Skills	3	2	3	2	1	8 of 12 = 67%
TOTAL	**19**	**9**	**7**	**15**	**10**	
AVERAGE						**41 of 76 = 54%**

* The fifth dimension, Administrative Skills, was dropped, because no variable tested as significant

---

The following paragraphs address the 19 variables individually within one of the four

retained dimensions. Table 5.5 summarizes the mean rank scores.

Table 5.5: Mean Rank Order Scores for 19 Leadership Variables that were used in the Two-Way Comparisons (Mann-Whitney U Test) Between U.S. Students' Scores versus Corresponding Scores of Each of Four Asian Student Groups (Appendix P)

Dimension/		Mean Rank Order Scores			
Variable	USA	Hong Kong	India	PRC	Taiwan
1. Physical Attributes (PA)					
X2 is trim and fit	4.80₁	**3.89***	4.44	**3.36***	**3.77***
X3 is athletic and has stamina	4.78	**3.89***	4.60	**3.64***	**3.85***
X4 is healthy	4.64	4.29	4.65	**3.72***	**3.82***
X5 is attractive	4.78	**4.39***	4.70	**3.81***	**4.46***
X8 is male	4.90	4.82	4.70	**4.40***	**4.92**
X9 is energetic	3.68	3.57	4.07	3.19	3.87
X7 is well-groomed	4.28	3.86	4.00	**3.77***	4.54
2. Personality Traits (PT)					
X16 is honest	1.90	**2.50***	**2.84***	**2.53***	**2.59***
X11 has integrity	1.90	**2.68***	2.33	2.32	**2.85***
X13 has courage	2.00	**2.64***	2.26	**2.64***	**2.38***
X18 has a good sense of humor	4.00	3.43	**3.40***	3.49	**3.10***
3. Transformational Leadership Skills (TLS)					
X27 is constantly learning and changing	1.38	**2.25***	1.84	**3.49***	**2.54**
X23 aligns personal and organizational goals	1.76	2.07	1.88	**3.53***	1.90
X22 believes in reason only	3.52	3.00	3.19	**2.64***	3.67
X24 creates and solves problems	2.08	2.14	**2.88***	**2.77***	1.79
X20 is entrepreneurial	3.22	3.11	**2.67***	**2.32***	3.10

4. Interpersonal Skills (IS)

X29 walks around and talks to people	2.22	**3.18***	**3.02***	**3.70***	**3.00***
X31 communicates effectively	1.20	**1.75***	**1.93***	**1.85***	1.51
X36 keeps promises	2.84	2.79	**3.40***	2.51	2.7

* Dark scores indicate significant differences at .the 05 level.
Ranking was from 1 = most important, 2 = second most important, 3 = third most important, 4 = forth most important, and 5 = fifth most important.

ı For example, score of U.S. group (4.80) differed significantly from Hong Kong (3.89), PRC (3.36), and Taiwan (3.77)

Discussion of the Physical Attributes Dimension

The mean rank order scores of the U.S. group differed significantly one or more times from the other four groups for six of the seven variables. The U.S. scores were consistently in the 4.28 to 4.90 range, or "forth most important" variable. Most of the other groups (except India) were in the mid to upper 3.0 range, or the "third most important variable. The scores from all groups for the variables show a lack of importance all students seem to attach to this factor (Table 5.5).

A total of 24 comparisons (six variables times four comparisons each) yielded 13 significant differences (54 percent) between the U.S. and the students from the four other groups. For the comparison of mean rank scores between the U.S. and Indian students, no significant differences in scores appeared for any of the variables in this dimension. The significant differences resulted from comparisons of the U.S. students' scores with

those of the Chinese student groups. The students from the PRC had significantly

different scores for six variables, the Taiwanese students had different scores for four,

and the Hong Kong students had three variables for which the scores differed

significantly from those of the U.S. students. (Table 5.4)

These results indicated that the Chinese students place a relative higher emphasis

than the other students on the physical appearance of a manager. The scores from the

variables in this dimension--fitness (3.36), athleticism (3.64), healthy (3.72) and

attractiveness (3.81)--were significantly different from those oft the U.S. students--fitness

(4.80), athleticism (4.78), healthy (4.64) and attractiveness (4.78). The reported scores

indicate the importance placed on appearance in the PRC. In particular, these findings

reflect the known negative attitudes in the Chinese cultures toward obese people where

young obese people (a new occurrence in the Chinese culture resulting from a pampering

an only child) are now sent to special camps to lose weight.

Many U.S. students appeared to resent the inclusion of the question about gender.

But, the scores for the gender variable were significantly different between the U.S.

(4.90) and the PRC (4.40) students. This result indicates that gender remains an issue for

the PRC students contemplating leadership, and indeed, PRC political leaders remain

mostly male.

Discussion of the Personality Traits Dimension

The four mean rank order scores of the U.S. group differed significantly in two of

four times from the other four groups. As Table 5.4 shows, the mean rank scores for the

U.S. group ranged between 1.90 and 4.00, where the variable "has humor" accounted for

the higher score (4.00), indicating it as only as forth important. The other three variables, "honesty", "integrity", and "courage" received scores ranging from 1.90 to 2.85 from all five groups, suggesting the importance of most variables throughout all groups.

The four variables permitted a total of 16 comparisons between the scores for the U.S. students with respective scores for each of the four Asian groups. Of the 16 comparisons eleven (69 percent) tested for significant differences: four variables among the Taiwanese students, three among the Hong Kong students, and two each for the Indian and PRC students.

For the variable "is honest," the U.S. scores (1.90) were significantly different from those of all the other groups. This trait in a leader had the fourth highest score of importance for U.S. students while those of the other students in the other groups did not place the same emphasis on this trait, with Indian students (2.84) seeing the least importance in this trait. This result seems to suggest that these students find not telling the truth or misrepresenting actions acceptable, in contrast to one of the major guiding moral principles in U.S. society. Consider, for example, Schiller International University in Switzerland had to institute a mandatory four-day orientation session for incoming students, focused to a large degree on academic honesty, cheating and plagiarism.

Closely related to this variable, the U.S. students placed an emphasis on the variable "has integrity," which implies honesty. The U.S. students' score (1.90) differed significantly from those of the Hong Kong (2.68) and Taiwan (2.85) students.

The trait "has courage," received significantly higher scores from U.S. students (2.00) than from the three Chinese student groups: 2.64 for Hong Kong students, 2.64 for

the PRC students and 2.38 for Taiwanese students. The implied notion that a leader courageously leads the group into possible new and changing areas is a familiar trait in a leader of the American business culture, while the leader of a business organization in the Chinese culture is expected to further harmony within the group and to fend off changes that could unsettle that group (Fukuyama, 1995).

Discussion of the Transformational Leadership Skills Dimension

Five variables were retained for the transformational leadership skill dimension, which include the skills identified as important in the new transformational leadership approach. The variables revealed a wide range of mean rank scores (from 1.38 to 3.67) for the variables in this dimension, but most clustered around the value two indicating second most important rank. Ignoring the scores for the PRC students (ranging from 2.32 to 3.53), overall the students tended to identify these skills as important. (Table 5.5 shows these responses)

The five variables allowed for a total of 20 comparisons between the scores for the U.S. students and the scores for each of the four Asian groups. Of the 20 comparisons, nine (45 percent) tested for significant differences in the scores: for all five variables among the PRC students, for two with the Indian students, and for one each with the Hong Kong and Taiwanese students.

The variable "is constantly learning and changing" showed the expected significant differences between the scores of the U.S. students (1.38) and those from the

three Chinese student groups: 2.25 for Hong Kong students, 3.49 for the PRC students and 2.54 for the Taiwanese students. The U.S. students showed the second highest mean rank value (1.38) for this variable, reflecting the progressive nature of the American business philosophy. All three Chinese groups had significantly lower scores. This difference and the least emphasis expressed by the PRC students reflect strong Confucian influence, which tends to resist change in Chinese cultures. (Ralston, 1992) Western influences in Hong Kong and Taiwan seem to have moderated the Confucian beliefs and traditions. Scores for Indian students were not significantly different from those for U.S. students.

The significant differences in scores between the U.S. and PRC students for the three variables: "aligns personal and organizational goals" (1.76 versus 3.53), "believes in reason only" (3.52 versus 2.64), and "creates and solves problems" (2.08 versus 2.77)-- might stem from a lack of familiarity among Chinese students with these somewhat newer U.S. leadership concepts.

Surprising and disconcerting are the scores from U.S. students for "is entrepreneurial" (3.22). Scores for the students from India (2.67) and PRC (2.32) are significantly different from those of the U.S. students. These two groups place much more importance than the U.S. students on this characteristic.

Discussion of the Interpersonal Skills Dimension

The three variables in the interpersonal skill dimension addressed the skills seen as important in relationships between people. Table 5.5 shows, the mean rank scores

ranged from 1.20 to 3.70 and revealed the greater emphasis for these variables among the U.S. students.

The author retained three variables for this dimension, which permitted for a total of twelve comparisons between the scores for the U.S. students and those for each of the four Asian groups. Of the twelve comparisons, eight (67 percent) tested for significant differences in scores. The U.S. students' scores were significantly different from those of the Indian students for all three variables, from those of the Hong Kong and the PRC students for two variables, and from those of the Taiwanese students for one variable.

Three of the seven significant differences between the scores for U.S. and Indian students were found for this dimension. This result seems to indicate that for Indian students a leader need not be in touch with his or her subordinates. The leader may be aloof--above and beyond--the subordinates and relate decisions only indirectly through intermediaries. The effective leader for the Indian student does not seem to have personal contacts with subordinates, does not have to be honest, does not have to have integrity, and does not need to keep promises--the seemingly picture of a removed and absolute leader.

The U.S. students' scores for "walks around and talks with people" (2.22) seemed to indicate a preference for direct contact with leaders. These high scores for a personal contact leadership style differed significantly from scores from all other four Asian groups: 3.18 for Hong Kong students, 3.02 for Indian students, 3.70 for the PRC students, and 3.00 for the Taiwanese students, where leaders do not seem to require personal contact in order to be seen as effective. U.S. student score for "communicates effectively" (1.20) singles this variable out as overall the most important aspect of effective

leadership. The scores reported for all four other groups for this characteristic: 1.75 for

Hong Kong students, 1.93 for Indian students, and 1.51 for the Taiwanese students, also

support the need for strong communication skills in a leader but significant differences

appeared between the scores for the U.S. students and those for: Hong Kong, India and

PRC.

Scores for the variable "keeps promises" across all groups (from 2.51 to 3.40)

suggested moderate importance of this characteristic. The scores for the U.S. students

(2.84) were only significantly different from those of the Indian students (3.40).

Summary for Leadership Dimensions and Implications for Educators

A total of 76 two-way comparisons resulted in 41 (54 percent) with significant

differences and 35 (46 percent) without significant differences.

The result that 35 (46 percent) of the comparisons for leadership attributes did not

test for significant differences represents an important finding in this study. The

previous, influential results from Hofstede (1995), made it seem unlikely that the author

would find so many similarities among the groups –namely, almost half of all two-way

comparisons. For example, for the dimension "transformational leadership skills" the

study reported more two-way comparisons showing similarities than differences (11

versus 9) between the U.S. students and the four groups of Asian students.

These findings seem to suggest, as well that the differences between the cultures

are diminishing or slowly disappearing for some dimensions, as discussed earlier for the

cultural factors. Yet, for the core values determining human behavior and here represented by the dimensions "personality traits" and "interpersonal skills," significant differences between the U.S. and the Asian students remained.

For the dimension "physical attributes," as Table 5.4 shows, the highest number for significant differences occurred between the U.S. and the PRC followed by those with Taiwan and then Hong Kong. Scores for students from the three Chinese student groups seem to have them placing some importance on the appearance and fitness of a leader, an aspect almost totally irrelevant among the U.S. students. (Surprisingly dress codes prevail throughout U.S. hospitality businesses) No significant differences appeared between the scores for the U.S. and those for the Indian students.

The most significant differences were detected came for the dimension "personality traits." As Table 5.4 shows, eleven of 16 two-way comparisons showed significant differences. The highest number of comparisons with significant differences emerged between the students from the U.S. and those from Taiwan and Hong Kong. One should note here the significant differences between the scores for the U.S. students and those for the four Asian student groups for core U.S. values like "honesty" and "integrity." A lack of understanding of these important behavioral patterns can certainly lead a U.S. manager abroad into major problems with the locals in these four Asian markets. These problems could in turn, cause disappointment and disillusionment with an international assignment.

Overall, the dimension "transformational leadership skills" produced more similarities than differences among the students groups, documenting an overall acceptance of these leadership skills. (Table 5.4 shows these results.) Significant

differences appeared between the U.S. students and the students from the PRC for all comparisons, not surprisingly indicating a lack of exposure in the PRC to these relatively new concepts. The U.S. students' strong score for is "constantly learning and changing" (1.38) differed significantly from the scores for all three Chinese groups: 2.25 for Hong Kong students, 3.49 for the PRC students and 2.54 for the Taiwanese students. U.S. students embrace the concept of change and innovative progress, while the Chinese students seem to prefer to maintain the status quo.

The "interpersonal skills" dimension tested for more significant differences than similarities (eight versus four) between the U.S. and the four Asian groups. (Table 5.4 shows this result.) The U.S. students placed a strong emphasis on personal contact with a leader and on clear and direct communications. The scores for the U.S. students were significantly different from those of the Indian students for all three variables, from those of the Hong Kong and PRC students for two variables, and from those of the Taiwanese students for one variable.

Significant differences between the U.S. students and the four Asian cultures were occurred in the "personality trait" and "interpersonal skill" dimensions. Traits and skills in these two dimensions appear to be associated with basic values within a culture learned through years of socialization. Since these values should be the slowest to change, U.S. students would do well to understand these differences and account for them when working in or with people from these four Asian cultures.

Table 5.6: Summary of Reasons for Differences Between the U.S. Students and the Students from Four Asian Countries for Leadership Dimensions

Dimensions	Variable	Survey Question	Sig. Difference	Potential Underlying Cause(s) of Differences
Physical Attribute	is trim and fit	17	U.S.- three Chinese	
	is athletic and has stamina	18	groups	- appearance important in Chinese culture
	is healthy	19		
	is attractive	20		
	is male	23		
	is well-groomed	22		
Personality Traits	is honest	23	U.S. – all groups	- honesty is key difference
	has integrity	17	U.S. – Hong Kong	- very important to U.S.
	has courage	19	U.S. – Taiwan	but not others
	has good sense of humor	24		
Transformational Leadership Skills	changing	24	U.S. – PRC	- not many differences
	aligning of goals	20		- lack of exposure to TLS in PRC
	reason only	19		
	solves & creates problems	21		- interest to maintain status quo
	is entrepreneurial	17		
Interpersonal Skills	walks about	17	U.S. – India	- personal contact important only to U.S.
	communicates	19		
	keeps promises	24		- Indian students see no importance

Conclusions and Recommendations

Beyond the immediate conclusions arising from the three objectives, this study

more generally appears to indicate that (1) new statistical methods should be applied

when the Hofstede model is used, and (2) post-modernist theories could be helpful in future studies dealing with national culture issues. This future research should monitor technological advances and general globalization developments and measure whether cultural values become even more blended under these conditions, improving U.S.-trained managerial effectiveness in Beijing, Hong Kong, New Delhi, Taipei, or New York.

The following conclusions relate to study Objectives 1 and 2, while the recommendations relate to Objective 3. In terms of cultural factors and values, the U.S. students responding to the study questionnaire differed significantly from their fellow students from the four Asian countries in the following four ways:

(1)   Social Equality. The four Asian student groups do not draw distinctions between authority in the workplace and in the private environment. They seem to accept that a supervisor's authority extends into the private life of an employee.

(2)   Individualism. Indian students are less individualistic than U.S. students. Responsibilities and obligations to the immediate and extended family are of importance to the Indian students.

(3)   Masculinity. The U.S. students have moved toward more feminine values in general, evincing, more caring and group harmony attitudes. The students from Hong Kong and also the other two Chinese cultures (the PRC and Taiwan) are much more outspoken.

(4)   Power Distance. In contrast to U.S. students, students from India and the PRC expect equal treatment for all employees at work not withstanding their positions.

In terms of the leadership dimension, U.S. students differed significantly from students in the four Asian groups in the following four ways:

(1)   Physical Attributes. Chinese students see the importance in outward appearance of leadership. Particularly in the PRC, a leader has to be fit, healthy, attractive and even male.

(2)   Personality Traits. Major differences appear in basic values like "honesty" and "integrity." These values show significant differences between the U.S. and the other students and are hardest to change, as they reflect many years of socialization.

(3)   Transformational Leadership Skills. More occurred similarities than differences. Most of the difference centered on the PRC's lack of exposure to these skills.

(4)   Interpersonal Skills. Major differences appeared in how people deal with each other based on cultural values and behaviors that appear certain to change only slowly change.

From an educational perspective, the results for Objectives 1 and 2 suggest principles and instructional materials that should be included in the curriculum of a four-year bachelor's program in hospitality management. The following recommendations

identify strategies for including these findings in particular classes and other aspects

of the hospitality management education. Emphasis should be placed on including those

factors and dimensions that are based on core cultural values and are relatively stable.

Fewer differences in impressions of leadership skills arose and they seem to lessen with

exposure, understanding and globalization. The eight significant differences between

U.S. students and students from the four Asian cultures reported in Objectives 1 and 2

should be integrated into a hospitality management curriculum in one or more of the

following six ways:

(1)   Integrate these topics in appropriate courses where the

        subjects are most relevant.

(2)   Develop a discrete international management course using

        the eight topics reported earlier as a starting point for a

        course syllabus.

(3)   Encourage students to take electives in other departments--

        language courses, social or political science classes,

        comparative religion or philosophy classes--that increase

        their cultural experiences and understanding.

(4)   Encourage students to participate in exchange programs;

        nothing teaches cultural differences as well as living in

        another country, even though exchange programs can be

        expensive.

(5)   Offer colloquia featuring international guest speakers,

        business people and scholars, and make sure to invite

faculty members and graduate students from other

departments on campus.

(6)   Encourage the school, college or university to maintain an

international faculty, invite resident foreign lecturers, and

urge its own faculty to participate in exchange programs

with partner schools abroad.

Table 5.7 lists those classes most commonly found in four-year hospitality management

programs and indicates those classes where the eight topics could be best included.

Meanwhile, future research and teaching should focus on preparing

students to deal with these differences that define behavior and are the hardest for

American students to accept. Technical skills can, after all, be learned, but personality

traits and interpersonal skills result from years of socialization and are at the core of

national value systems. The key to educating students to meet these differences might

not less in more core management courses than in courses that open students' eyes to

why people believe in so many different approaches and behave in so many different

ways. Exchange semesters and classes in other departments can certainly help.

Table 5.7: Assignment of Findings from Eight Significant Differences Between U.S. students and Students from Four Asian Groups For Cultural Factors and Leadership Dimensions To Courses Typically Taught in U.S. Four-year Hospitality Management Programs

Classes Typically Included in Four-Year Hospitality Management Curricula at U.S. Colleges and Universities.	Intro to Management	Human Resource	Organizational Behavior	Hospitality Law	Guest Speaker Colloquium	Semester-Summer Abroad
Cultural Factors						
Social Equality	X	X	X	X	X	X
Individualism	X	X	X	X		X
Masculinity	X	X	X		X	X
Power Distance	X	X	X	X		X
Leadership Dimensions						
Physical Attributes	X	X	X		X	X
Personality Traits	X	X	X		X	X
Transformational Leadership Skills	X	X	X		X	X
Interpersonal Skills	X	X	X		X	X

If educators can relate the information about the four Asian countries discussed here to their students, this additional awareness of cultural differences can help U.S.-trained hospitality majors challenge Australian, British, Dutch, New Zealand and Swiss hospitality students for international assignments and their accompanying rewards.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Adler, G. (1995). The case of the floundering expatriate. *Harvard Business Review*, July-August, 24-40.

American Management Association. (1995). The new international manager. *American Management Association*, Editorial.

Appadurai, A. (1990). Disjuncture and difference in the global cultural economy. *Public Culture*, 2 (2), 1-24.

Babbie, E. (1992). *The practice of social research*. Wadsworth, Belmont, Cal.

Bartlett, A., & Farrar, A. (1995). *Annotated bibliography of human resource articles in hospitality management magazines*. The Pennsylvania State University, Unpublished Working Paper.

Bass, B.M., & Avolio, B.J. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Sage, Thousand Oaks, Cal.

Belasco, J.A., & Stayer, R.C. (1993). *Flight of the buffalo*. Warner Books, N.Y.

Bennis, W. (1959). Leadership theory and administrative behavior: The problem of authority. *Administrative Quarterly*, 4, 259-260.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders. The strategies for taking charge*. Harper & Row.

Berger, F., Ferguson, D.H., & Woods, R.H. (1989). Profiles of innovation: Companies and Leaders. *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, 30 (2), 98-105.

Black, J.S., & Mendenhall, M. (1990). Cross-cultural training effectiveness: A review and a theoretical framework for future research. *Academy of Management Review*, 15 (1), 113-136.

Breiter, D., & Clements, C.J. (1996). Hospitality management curricula for the 21st. century. *Hospitality & Tourism Educator*, 8 (1), 57-60.

Cetron, M., DeMicco, F.J. (1995). *Restaurant Renaissance: Present and future trends in foodservice management*. The School of Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Management, The Pennsylvania State University, Working Paper Series 95-25.

Cichy, R.F., Aoki, T., Patton, M.E., & Sciarini, M.P. (1992). Five Foundations of leadership in Japan's lodging industry. *FIU Hospitality Review*, 10 (2), 65-77.

Cichy, R.F., Schmidgall, R.S. (1996). Leadership qualities of financial executives in the U.S. lodging industry. *The Cornell H.R.A.Quarterly*, 37 (2), 56-62.

Cichy, R.F., Sciarini, M.P., & Patton,M.E. (1992). Food-service leadership: Could Attila run a restaurant. The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly, 10 (1), 47-55.

Conger, J.A. (1992). *Learning to lead. The art of transforming managers into leaders.* Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Fransisco.

Conrad, G., Woods, R., & Ninemeier, J. (1994). Training in the U.S. lodging industry: Perception and reality. *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly.* ?(4), 16-21.

Covey, S.R. (1991). *Principle-centered leadership.* Simon & Schuster, N.Y.

Cullen, P. (1981). Global gamesmanship: How the expatriate manager copes with cultural differences. *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, 22 (3), 18-24.

Deming, W.E. (1982). *Out of the crisis.* Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Center for Advanced Engineering Study, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

DeMicco, F.J., & Williams, J.A. (1996). A current perspective on institutional/contract foodservice management: The once lost and found 'I' in HR&IM. *Hospitality & Tourism Educator*, 8 (1), 15-18.

Drucker, P.F. (1986). *The frontiers of management.* Truman Tallez Books, N.Y.

Drucker, P.F. (1981). *Toward the next economics.* Harper & Row, N.Y.

Fink, A. (1995). *How to analyze survey data.* Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, California.

Fukuyama, F. (1995). *Konfuzius und marktwirtschaft. Der konflikt der kulturen.* Kindler, Munich.

Furnham, A., & Springfield, P. (1993). Personality and occupational behavior: Myers-Briggs Type Indicator correlates of managerial practices in two cultures. *Human Relations*, 46 (7), 827-849.

Gamio, M.O., & Sneed, J. (1992). Cross-cultural training practices and needs in the hotel industry. *Hospitality Research Journal*, 15 (3), 13-26.

Gerstner, C.R., & Day, D.V. (1994). Cross-cultural comparison of leadership prototypes. *Leadership Quarterly*, 5 (2), 121-134.

Giroux, H.A. (1994). Consuming social change: The united colors of Benetton. In: *Disturbing Pleasures: Learning popular culture.* Routledge, New York, 3-24.

Hailey, J. (1996). The expatriate myth: Cross-cultural perceptions of expatriate managers. *The International Executive,* 38 (2), 255-271.

Hair, J.F., Anderson, R.E., Tatham, R.L., and Black, W.C. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis.* Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, N.J.

Hofstede, G. (1995). Motivation, leadership, and organization: Do American theories apply abroad? in *The Organizational Behavior Reader.* Kolb, D.A., Osland, J.S., & Rubin, I.M. Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 375-394.

Hofstede, G. (1993). Cultural constrains in management theories. *Academy of Management Executive,* 7 (1), 81-94.

Kotter, J.P. (1990). *A force for change: How leadership differs from management.* Free Press, New York.

Kouzes, J.M., & Posner, B.Z. (1995). *The leadership challenge.* Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco.

Kuhnert, K.W. (1994). Transforming leadership. Developing people through delegation. In: Bass, B.M., & Avolio, B.J. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership.* Sage, Thousand Oaks, Cal., 10-25.

Li, J.C.R. (1961). *Introduction to statistical inference.* Edwards Brothers, Inc., Ann Arbor.

Likert, R. (1961). *New patterns of management.* McGraw-Hill, New York.

Likert, R. (1967). *The human organization: Its management and value.* McGraw-Hill, New York.

Litwin, M.S. (1995). *How to measure survey reliability and validity.* Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, California.

Lord, R.G., DeVader, C.L., & Alliger, G.M. (1986). A meta-analysis of the relation between personality traits and leadership perception: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal for Applied Psychology,* 71 (3), 402-410.

Mann, F.C. (1965). Toward an understanding of the leadership role in formal organizations. In R. Dubin, G.C. Homans, F. C. Mann, & D.C. Miller (Eds.), *Leadership and productivity.* Chandler, San Fransisco.

Malley, M. (1996). RevPAC replaces RevPAR in recent survey. *National Restaurant News*, 211 (12), 4.

Massey, D. (1991). A global sense of place. *Marxism Today*, 6, 232-240.

Mitchell, D. (1995). There's no such thing as culture. *Transactions, Institute of British Geographers*, 20, 102-116.

Mueller-Maerki, F.F. (1995). Expatriates need not apply. *Wall Street Journal*, Oct. 16, 1995.

Muller, C., & Inman, C. (1996). Characteristics and behavior of top chain-restaurant CEOs. *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, 37 (3), 64-69.

Muller, C.C., & Campbell, D.F. (1995). The attributes and attitudes of multiunit managers in a national quick-service restaurant firm. The Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education. *Hospitality Research Journal*, 19 (2), 3-18.

Nebel III, E.C., & Stearns, G.K. (1977). Leadership in the hospitality industry. *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, 18 (3), 69-76.

Norusis, M.J. (1990). *The SPSS guide to data analysis. For release 4*. SPSS Inc., Chicago.

Ott, L. (1988). *An Introduction to Statistical Methods and Data Analysis*. Third Edition. PWS-Kent, Boston.

Peters, T.J. (1980). Excellence at the top: A leadership style that works. *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, 21 (3), 13-23.

Peters, T. (1987). *Thriving on chaos. Handbook for a management revolution*. Harper & Row, N.Y.

Peterson, R.B., Napier, N., & Won Shul Shim. (1996). Expatriate Management - The differential role of national multinational corporation ownership. *The International Executive*, 38 (4), p.543-562.

Powell, B. (1995). Keep your profits. Here's why the once mighty Japanese and Germans don't want to be like us. *Newsweek*, Nov. 6, 1995, 98.

Punnett, B.J., Singh, J.B., & Williams, G. (1994). The relative influence of economic development and anglo heritage on expressed values: Empirical evidence from a Caribbean country. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 18 (1), 99-115.

Ralston, D.A., Gustafson, D.J., Elsass, P.M., Cheung, F., & Terpstra, R.H. (1992). Eastern values: A comparison on managers in the United States, Hong Kong, and the People's Republic of China. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77 (5), 664-671.

Roberts, W. (1987). *Leadership Secrets of Attila the hun*. Warner Brothers, N.Y., N.Y.

Shames, G. (1986). Training for the multicultural workplace. *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, 25-31.

Shaw, J.B. (1990). A cognitive categorization model for the study of intercultural management. Academy of Management Review, 15 ( ), 626-645.

Shay, J., & Tracey, J.B. (1997). Expatriate Managers. Reasons for failure and implications for training. *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, (1), 30-35.

Sherman, S. (1995). How tomorrow's best leaders are learning their stuff. *Fortune*, November 27.

Stogdill, R.M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology*, 25,35-71.

Tracey, J.B., & Hinkin, T.R. (1994). Transformational leaders in the hospitality industry. *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, 18-24.

Trompenaars, F. (1994). *Riding the waves of culture*. Irwin, Chicago.

Tung, R.L. (1982). Selection and training procedures of U.S., European, and Japanese multinationals. California Management Review, 25 (1), 57-71.

Twyman, A.S. (1995). Cultural differences helped sink deal. *Philadelphia Daily News*, Oct. 1, 1995.

Walker, R.G. (1986). Wellsprings of managerial leadership. *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, 27 (2), 14-16.

Worsfold, P. (1989). Leadership and managerial effectiveness in the hospitality industry. *International Journal for Hospitality Management*, 8 (2), 145-154.

Yukl, G. (1994). *Leadership in organizations* (3rd.ed.). Prentice-Hall International, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.

Appendix A

Stephen Covey's 35 Physical Attributes and Personality Traits

1. Continually learns,
2. Likes to serve,
3. Radiates positive energy,
4. Believes in other people,
5. Leads a balanced live (self-discipline and self-denial),
6. Sees life as adventure,
7. Is synergistic,
8. Exercises for self-renewal,
9. Is proactive,
10. Begins with the end in mind,
11. Puts first things first,
12. Thinks win-win, and
13. Seeks first to understand, and then to be understood,
14. Possesses an abundance mentality,
15. Accepts people,
16. Believes in compassionate confrontation,
17. Is consciencious,
18. Shows consistency,
19. Improves continuously,
20. Balances courage with consideration,
21. Has creativity,
22. Is gentle,
23. Is honest,
24. Has imagination,
25. Has integrity,
26. Shows kindness,
27. Is willing to listen,
28. Has maturity,
29. Is open,
30. Is patient,
31. Is persuasive,
32. Possesses self-awareness and self-knowledge,
33. Practices self-renewal,
34. Is teachable, and
35. Has willpower (pp. 33-47).

Appendix B

Stephen Covey's 30 Behaviors of Effective Leaders.

1. Refrain from saying the unkind and negative thing,
2. Exercise patience with others,
3. Distinguish between the person and the behavior or performance,
4. Perform anonymous service,
5. Choose the proactive response,
6. Keep the promises you make to others,
7. Focus on your circle of influence,
8. Live the law of love,
9. Assume the best in others,
10. Seek to understand first,
11. Reward open, honest expressions or questions,
12. Give an understanding response,
13. If offended, take the initiative,
14. Admit your mistakes, apologize, ask for forgiveness,
15. Let arguments fly out of the window,
16. Go one on one,
17. Renew your commitment to things you have in common,
18. Be influenced by them first,
19. Accept the person and the situation,
20. Prepare your heart and mind before you prepare to speak,
21. Avoid fight or flight,talk through differences,
22. Recognize and take time to teach,
23. Agree on the limits, rules, expectations, and consequences,
24. Don't give up, don't give in,
25. Be there at the crossroads,
26. Speak the language of logic and emotion,
27. Delegate effectively,
28. Involve people in meaningful projects,
29. Train them in the law of the harvest, and
30. Let natural consequences teach responsible behavior (pp. 119-128).

Appendix C

Belasco and Stayer's 37 behaviors of effective leaders.

1. Act rather than talk (p. 124),
2. Act as coaches to develop capabilities and competence (p. 21),
3. Align direction and system (p. 202),
4. Appeal to reason and emotion (p. 177),
5. Ask more questions not giving answers (p. 74),
6. Begin with an end in mind (p. 140),
7. Communicate with employees, remark on great performance (p. 258),
8. Confront problems and turn them into opportunities (p. 288),
9. Create crises to challenge organization (p. 136),
10. Create value-adding strategies (p. 165),
11. Delegate (p. 302),
12. Develop with employees effective, relevant measurements (p. 217),
13. Do not dominate meetings, set agendas alone, cut people off, or finish sentences (p. 82),
14. Embrace change and innovation (p. 80),
15. Empower employees (p. 252),
16. Be the first to change the paradigm suggesting that managers own responsibility (p. 58),
17. Focus employees on the customer (p. 105),
18. Have a vision and actively live it (pp. 22, 95),
19. Inspire others with a commitment to vision (p. 92),
20. Involve employees in a content analysis to identify future customers (p. 129),
21. Know employees' weaknesses and organize around these weaknesses (p. 303),
22. Learn fast and support and encourage others to do so (p. 21),
23. Be proactive and believe in good preparation (p. 116),
24. Provide frequent feedback (p. 226),
25. Raise expectations (p. 74),
26. Remove organizational system obstacles for followers (pp. 22, 243),
27. Set high goals (p. 146),
28. Share all relevant information with employees including budget, income, return on assets, and so forth (p. 218),
29. Simplify the organization constantly (p. 279),
30. Take risks (p. 291),
31. Think strategically (p. 140),
32. Think win-win (p. 61),
33. Transfer ownership to those who execute the work (p. 21),
34. Use incentive pay to facilitate ownership transfer (p. 70),
35. Use and support mistakes as learning tools and opportunities (p. 313),
36. Use fear, anger, stubbornness, and divorce as teaching tools (pp. 322-348), and
37. Use both monetary and non-monetary rewards (p. 206).

Appendix D

Bennis and Nanus's 39 Behaviors and Traits of Effective Leaders.

1. Accepts people and situations as they are (p. 66),
2. Asks a lot of questions (p. 96),
3. Challenges the way things are done (p. 52),
4. Is committed (p. 205),
5. Communicates vision (p. 107),
6. Is competent (p. 205),
7. Shows dedication (p. 45),
8. Can delegate (p. 205),
9. Embraces errors (p. 189),
10. Empowers (p. 80),
11. Has lots of enthusiasm (p. 65),
12. Shows extreme personal sacrifice (p. 45),
13. Is future oriented (p. 205)
14. Does not worry about failing, failure being a springboard to learning (p. 69)
15. Is innovative (p. 52),
16. Has imagination (p. 65),
17. Selects, organizes, structures, and interprets information (p. 101),
18. Listens and pays attention (p. 73),
19. Lives her or his vision (p. 108),
20. Has unlimited capacity to learn and improve skills (p. 59),
21. Is mature (p. 65),
22. Nurtures ideas and human development (p. 189),
23. Is open to advice and criticism (p. 205),
24. Seeks and encourages others' participation (p. 205),
25. Is persistent (p. 45),
26. Plays a lot, combines work and play (p. 79),
27. Has positive self-regard (p. 62),
28. Is pragmatic (p. 205),
29. Pulls and does not push employees (p. 80),
30. Is relentless, stays the course (p. 45),
31. Is reliable (p. 45),
32. Is a role model (p. 204),
33. Seeks and provides feedback (p. 59),
34. Demonstrates self-knowledge (p. 189),
35. Sets goals (p. 59),
36. Has spontaneity (p. 65),
37. Uses perspective (p. 66),
38. Trusts others (p. 66), and
39. Has a vision (p. 66).

Appendix E

Walker's 17 Behaviors of Effective Leaders

1. Is cheerful,
2. Defends own ideas,
3. Develops and motivates people,
4. Is a doer,
5. Has drive,
6. Fights bureaucracy and encourages experimentation,
7. Has a strong mission and shares values,
8. Innovates as a way of life,
9. Has intelligence,
10. Possesses knowledge,
11. Learns,
12. Is optimistic,
13. Is a risk-taker,
14. Shows self-awareness,
15. Has self-control,
16. Has great sense of "spiritual" values, and
17. Shows sensitivity and takes a positive perspective (pp. 15-16).

Appendix F

Berger, Ferguson and Wood's 16 Behaviors of Effective Leaders

1. Has confidence,
2. Has creativity,
3. Is enthusiastic and highly motivated,
4. Expands her or his knowledge and expertise,
5. Focuses on people and their development,
6. Gathers information,
7. Generates ideas,
8. Has high energy,
9. Possesses a sense of humor for comic relief,
10. Is a juggler of many tasks,
11. Listens,
12. Is sensitive to team needs,
13. Surrounds herself or himself with the best possible people,
14. Takes risks and makes mistakes,
15. Supports teamwork, and
16. Has a willingness to experiment (pp. 98-105).

Appendix G

Cichy et al's. 14 Behaviors and 17 Attributes of Effective Leaders

14 Behaviors (arranged from highest to lowest ranking in Cichy's research)

1. Provides a compelling message,
2. Has a strong personal value or belief system,
3. Recognizes that the ability to adjust is a necessity,
4. Makes her or his desired outcomes tangible,
5. Encourages and rewards risk taking,
6. Listens as well as, if not better than he or she speaks,
7. Provides appropriate information, resources, and support to empower employees,
8. Is inquisitive, asks good questions,
9. Emphasizes good quality over good quantity,
10. Knows personal strengths and nurtures them,
11. Places a high value on learning,
12. Maintains precise desired outcomes,
13. Seldom changes her or his mind, and
14. Has strong family values (p. 52).

17 Attributes (ranked from highest to lowest):

1. Credibility,
2. Responsibility,
3. Dependability,
4. Accountability,
5. Self-confidence,
6. Emotional stamina,
7. Decisiveness,
8. Courage,
9. Desire,
10. Competitiveness,
11. Loyalty,
12. Tenacity,
13. Stewardship,
14. Empathy,
15. Timing,
16. Anticipation, and
17. Physical stamina (p. 52).

Appendix H

Tracy and Hikin's 16 Attributes and Traits of Effective Leaders.

1. Has clear mission and vision,
2. Commands attention through action,
3. Is competent,
4. Is consistent,
5. Has determination,
6. Listens,
7. Is open and approachable,
8. Is persistent,
9. Places organization's interest over personal needs,
10. Is proactive,
11. Provides role clarity,
12. Sets high standards,
13. Has strong convictions,
14. Has strong and high ideals, beliefs and values,
15. Treats each person as an individual with different needs, abilities, and
16. Uses reason and evidence (pp. 22-23).

Appendix I

Hotel Schools in Switzerland

a. Schools of the "Verein Schweizerischer Hotel- und Restaurantfachschulen"

Name of School	Language of Instruction	Number of Students
- Centre International de Glion	French & English	292
- Ecole Hoteliere de Geneve 'ES'	French	117
- Ecole Hoteliere de Lausanne	French & English	653
- Höhere Gatsronomie und Hotelfachschule, Thun	German	117
- Hosta Hotel and Tourism School, Leysin	English	156
- Hotelfachschule Bervoirpark, Zürich	German	144
- Hotel Institute Montreux (HIM)	English	180
- Hotel Management School LesRoches, Bluche	English	444
- Hotel und Touristikschule, Chur (Swiss School of Hotel and Tourism Management)	German & English	282
- Institute Hotelier 'Cesar Ritz', LaBouveret	English	216
- Schweizerische Hotelfachschule Montana, Luzern	German	187

Source: Verein Schweizerischer Hotel- und Restaurantfachschulen (1998). *Jahresbericht 1998.* VSHR, Luzern.

b. Other Schools

Name of School	Language of Instruction	Number Of Students
- Alpina School of Hotel Management, Ilanz	English	
- Domino Carlton Tivoli (DCT), Luzern	English	120
- Hospitality College Lützelau (HCL), Weggis	English	100
- Hotel & Tourism Institute (HTI), Vevey	English	70
- International College of Hospitality Administration (ICHA), Brig	English	
- International Hotel and Tourism Training Institute (IHTTI), Neuchatel	English	120
- International Hotel Management Institute (IMI), Lucerne	English	250
- International Tourism Institute (ITI), Stansstadt	English	
- Schiller International University, Engelberg	English	90
- Scuola superiore albergheria e del turismo (SSAT), Bellinzona	Italian	
- Swiss Hotel Management School (SHMS), Caux	English	300

Appendix J

The Survey

This questionnaire is used for Michael Vieregge's Ph.D. dissertation entitled *Comparison of the perception of transformational leadership attributes, skills and traits between hospitality students from the United States and four Asian countries.* The responses will be used to determine if there are (a.) cultural differences among students from different cultures and (b.) differences in preferences for leadership attributes, traits and skills.

The study does not use individual names and uses only summary data.

Participation in this study is voluntary and confidential.

The questionnaire has three parts. In the first part, questions and statements, numbered 1 to 15, address cultural characteristics. For each question the level of agreement is indicated. The second part consists of nine clusters of attributes to be ranked, and part three asks for some demographic information about.

Part I:

Please answer each of the following statements or questions in terms of how you personally agree or disagree, by marking the appropriate answer which best expresses this feeling

1. Your boss asks you to paint his or her house on the weekend. (No compensation is offered). The boss has the right to expect you to paint the house.
   - ( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
   - ( ) I Somewhat Agree
   - ( ) I neither agree nor disagree
   - ( ) I Somewhat Disagree
   - ( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

2. If you were disgruntled at work, you would express it openly right there at work.
   ( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
   ( ) I Somewhat Agree
   ( ) I neither agree nor disagree
   ( ) I Somewhat Disagree
   ( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

3. Your company institutes a time-card system for all workers except for employees at the management level. There is nothing wrong with that.
   ( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
   ( ) I Somewhat Agree
   ( ) I neither agree nor disagree
   ( ) I Somewhat Disagree
   ( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

4. If we all always took care of our fellow human beings, the quality of life would improve for everyone. This is true, even if it hinders individual freedom and individual development.
   ( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
   ( ) I Somewhat Agree
   ( ) I neither agree nor disagree
   ( ) I Somewhat Disagree
   ( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

5. Heritage and tradition are so important to you that you would not move away from or would always return to where your family is.
   ( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
   ( ) I Somewhat Agree
   ( ) I neither agree nor disagree
   ( ) I Somewhat Disagree
   ( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

6. You are a food critic for an influential paper. Your friend has just invested a considerable amount of money in a new restaurant. You eat at the restaurant and do not think that the food is good. Your friend has a right to expect a favorable review from you.
   ( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
   ( ) I Somewhat Agree
   ( ) I neither agree nor disagree
   ( ) I Somewhat Disagree
   ( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

7. Your boss's young and inexperienced college-age child is chosen to supervise a new major hotel development. As a senior employee, you would be upset with this decision.
( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
( ) I Somewhat Agree
( ) I neither agree nor disagree
( ) I Somewhat Disagree
( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

8. You have two job offers. One is for a small, casual resort property and one is for a fast-paced, large convention hotel. You would definitely accept the one at the small, casual property.
( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
( ) I Somewhat Agree
( ) I neither agree nor disagree
( ) I Somewhat Disagree
( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

9. You are riding in a car driven by your best friend. He hits a pedestrian. You know he was driving too fast. There are no witnesses. If you testify that he drove slowly, you can save him from going to prison. As his best friend, you will protect him.
( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
( ) I Somewhat Agree
( ) I neither agree nor disagree
( ) I Somewhat Disagree
( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

10. You are willing to sacrifice things now for things you want to have in the fut·ıre.
( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
( ) I Somewhat Agree
( ) I neither agree nor disagree
( ) I Somewhat Disagree
( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

11. If a hotel room is not properly cleaned, the whole housekeeping crew, supervisors and workers included, is responsible.
( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
( ) I Somewhat Agree
( ) I neither agree nor disagree
( ) I Somewhat Disagree
( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

12. As a senior officer in a bank, you have valuable information about some currency exchange rates. Your friend has a lot of this currency and could lose a lot of money if not informed. You would share this information with your friend.
( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
( ) I Somewhat Agree
( ) I neither agree nor disagree
( ) I Somewhat Disagree
( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

13. A company is responsible for housing all its employees.
( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
( ) I Somewhat Agree
( ) I neither agree nor disagree
( ) I Somewhat Disagree
( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

14. The most important thing in life is to think and act the way you are, even if this means that you cannot get all things you want.
( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
( ) I Somewhat Agree
( ) I neither agree nor disagree
( ) I Somewhat Disagree
( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

15. You work hard and spend all the money you earn right away
( ) I STRONGLY AGREE
( ) I Somewhat Agree
( ) I neither agree nor disagree
( ) I Somewhat Disagree
( ) I STRONGLY DISAGREE

Part II:

Please rank attributes and skills in each set: 1,2,3,4,5. 1 = the most important attribute or skill and 5 = the least important attribute or skill you would like to see in a successful business manager or leader.

16. Please rank the following 5 attributes or skills according to their importance to you with 1,2,3,4, and 5 (1 = most important and 5 = least important).

A successful and effective business leader:
Is older in age _____
Has self-control _____
Creates a vision and aligns others with it _____
Seeks everybody's input for group-based decisions _____
Challenges the way things are done _____

17. Please rank the following 5 attributes or skills according to their importance to you with 1,2,3,4, and 5 (1 = most important and 5 = least important).

A successful and effective business leader:
Empowers the employees and delegates work _____
Walks around and talks to people one-on-one _____
Is entrepreneurial _____
Has integrity and a strong belief system _____
Is trim and fit _____

18. Please rank the following 5 attributes or skills according to their importance to you with 1,2,3,4, and 5 (1 = most important and 5 = least important).

A successful and effective business leader:
Is athletic and has stamina _____
Is unselfish and loyal to the group _____
Is charismatic _____
Is trustworthy; trusts and believes others _____
Shares information, knowledge and ownership _____

19. Please rank the following 5 attributes or skills according to their importance to you with 1,2,3,4, and 5 (1 = most important and 5 = least important).

A successful and effective business leader:
Ignores or destroys bureaucratic obstacles _____
Is able to communicate effectively _____
Believes in reason only _____
Has courage and takes risks _____
Is healthy looking _____

20. Please rank the following 5 attributes or skills according to their importance to you with 1,2,3,4, and 5 (1 = most important and 5 = least important).

    A successful and effective business leader:
    Is attractive   _____
    Is mature   _____
    Is able to align individual with organizational goals_____
    Is open to influence from others   _____
    Plans for long-term well being and profitability   _____

21. Please rank the following 5 attributes or skills according to their importance to you with 1,2,3,4, and 5 (1 = most important and 5 = least important).

    A successful and effective business leader:
    Forms effective teams   _____
    Believes and participates in mentoring programs   _____
    Is able to create and solve conflicts   _____
    Is creative   _____
    Is well-dressed   _____

22. Please rank the following 5 attributes or skills according to their importance to you with 1,2,3,4, and 5 (1 = most important and 5 = least important).

    A successful and effective business leader:
    Is well groomed   _____
    Is a warm and approachable person   _____
    Appreciates diversity   _____
    Supports mistakes and failure making   _____
    Supports and believes in long-term training   _____

23. Please rank the following 5 attributes or skills according to their importance to you with 1,2,3,4, and 5 (1 = most important and 5 = least important).

    A successful and effective business leader:
    Agrees to long-term employment guarantees   _____
    Believes in situations where everybody wins (win-win)   _____
    Is an excellent listener   _____
    Is honest   _____
    Is male   _____

24. Please rank the following 5 attributes or skills according to their importance to you with 1,2,3,4,and 5 (1 = most important and 5 = least important).

A successful and effective business leader:

Is very energetic	_____
Has a good sense of humor	_____
Is constantly learning, changing and innovating	_____
Keeps promises	_____
Creates and delegates meaningful tasks	_____

Part III:

It is important that you provide the following information about yourself to complete the questionnaire. This information will remain confidential!

30. Gender   31. Age: _____
    ( ) Male   ____
    ( ) Female   ____

32. Major of Studies: _____

33. Semester Standing: _____

34. Years of working experience in the hospitality industry: _____

35. Country you identify with: _____

36. What is your primary racial-ethnic identity:

    ( ) Black, non-Hispanic
    ( ) White, non-Hispanic
    ( ) Asian - Pacific Islander
    ( ) Hispanic
    ( ) Other (please specify):_____

PLEASE, double check that all questions are answered.

Thank you very much for your participation!

Michael Vieregge
Dorfstr. 40
6390 Engelberg, Switzerland

Appendix K

Cronbach Alpha Scores for the Five Cultural Dimensions
of the Questionnaire

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

				N of
Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	Variables
SCALE	41.6214	38.8706	6.2346	15

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =   206.0   N of Items = 15

Alpha =   .4300

Appendix K

Cronbach Alpha Scores for Cultural Dimension
Power Distance

```
R E L I A B I L I T Y    A N A L Y S I S    -    S C A L E    (A L P H A)

                                            N of
Statistics for      Mean   Variance   Std Dev  Variables
    SCALE          9.3816   5.5090    2.3471         3


Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =    207.0                  N of Items =  3

Alpha =     .1746
```

Appendix K

Cronbach Alpha Score for the Cultural Dimension
Uncertainty Avoidance

```
R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

                                                N of
Statistics for       Mean    Variance    Std Dev Variables
     SCALE          7.9854    5.7998      2.4083         3


Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =     206.0                  N of Items =  3

Alpha =     .2983
```

Appendix K

Cronbach Alpha Score for the Cultural Dimension
Masculinity-Femininity

```
R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

                                                N of
Statistics for      Mean   Variance   Std Dev  Variables
    SCALE          9.1787   4.4873     2.1183       3


Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =    207.0                N of Items =  3

Alpha =    -.0264
```

Appendix K

Cronbach Alpha Score for Cultural Dimension
Individualism-Collectivism

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =   207.0   N of Items = 3

Alpha =   .1342

Appendix K

Cronbach Alpha Score for Cultural Dimension
Long-term Orientation

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =   207.0   N of Items = 3

Alpha =   .0601

.

Appendix L

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.569
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	202.197
	df	105
	Sig.	.000

Appendix M

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
PAINT	.648	3.252E-02	8.102E-02	5.514E-02
UNHAPPY	.132	-1.521E-02	-3.470E-03	2.343E-02
TIMECARD	.182	8.072E-02	-7.995E-02	5.087E-03
TAKECARE	.252	-.196	-.205	.516
STAYHOME	8.764E-02	6.229E-02	.610	5.587E-03
FOODCRIT	.202	-.164	.401	.434
BOSSON	-.395	8.966E-02	.196	-1.105E-02
SMALLHOT	.157	.261	-.305	.493
SAVEFRIE	9.706E-02	6.890E-02	.646	6.898E-03
FUTURE	3.358E-02	.657	-.348	2.520E-02
HOTROOM	2.045E-02	.596	.147	-2.403E-02
EXCHANGE	-.269	.141	.202	.699
HOUSING	.637	-.202	.304	4.274E-02
ACTSELF	-2.881E-02	.657	.152	.180
SPENDING	.600	.403	-7.696E-02	-.180

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	5	6
PAINT	.134	.153
UNHAPPY	.760	.148
TIMECARD	2.172E-03	.767
TAKECARE	-.409	.312
STAYHOME	-.416	.122
FOODCRIT	.363	-2.087E-02
BOSSON	.239	.611
SMALLHOT	4.774E-02	-2.616E-02
SAVEFRIE	.159	-4.522E-02
FUTURE	.160	5.119E-03
HOTROOM	-.183	.233
EXCHANGE	1.584E-02	-4.060E-02
HOUSING	-.118	-.183
ACTSELF	-1.175E-02	-3.142E-02
SPENDING	.154	3.310E-02

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 17 iterations.

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Paint" Between U.S.
and Hong Kong Students

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
PAIN Equal varia assumed	10.102	.002	3.680	76	.000	.85	.23	.39	1.30
Equal varia not assume			3.346	42.448	.002	.85	.25	.34	1.36

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PAINT	5	50	4.56	.84	.12
	1	28	3.71	1.18	.22

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Paint" Between U.S. And Indian Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PAINT	5	50	4.56	.84	.12
	2	43	4.16	1.13	.17

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
						Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Difference	Difference	Lower	Upper
PAIN Equal varia assumed	8.333	.005	1.940	91	.055	.40	.20	47E-03	.80
Equal varia not assume			1.897	76.294	.062	.40	.21	97E-02	.81

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Paint" Between U.S.
And PRC Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PAINT	5	50	4.56	.84	.12
	3	47	3.79	1.20	.17

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
						Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Difference	Difference	Lower	Upper
PAIN Equal variar assumed	7.746	.006	3.704	95	.000	.77	.21	.36	1.19
Equal variar not assume			3.664	81.791	.000	.77	.21	.35	1.19

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Paint" Between U.S.
And Taiwan Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PAINT	5	50	4.56	.84	.12
	4	39	3.85	1.11	.18

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
PAIN Equal varian assumed	7.394	.008	3.454	87	.001	.71	.21	.30	1.12
Equal varian not assume			3.337	68.564	.001	.71	.21	.29	1.14

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Actself" Between U.S.
And Hong Kong Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ACTSELF	5	50	1.78	1.02	.14
	1	28	2.14	1.08	.20

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
						Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Difference	Difference	Lower	Upper
ACTSE Equal varia assumed	.162	.688	-1.480	76	.143	-.36	.25	-.85	.13
Equal varia not assume			-1.455	53.240	.152	-.36	.25	-.86	.14

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Actself" Between U.S. And Indian Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ACTSELF	5	50	1.78	1.02	.14
	2	43	2.49	1.20	.18

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
						Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Difference	Difference	Lower	Upper
ACTSE Equal varia assumed	4.365	.039	-3.079	91	.003	-.71	.23	-1.17	-.25
Equal varia not assume			-3.040	82.682	.003	-.71	.23	-1.17	-.24

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Actself" Between U.S.
And PRC Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ACTSELF	5	50	1.78	1.02	.14
	3	47	2.30	1.21	.18

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
ACTSE	Equal varian assumed	3.620	.060	-2.283	95	.025	-.52	.23	-.97	76E-02
	Equal varian not assumed			-2.271	89.909	.026	-.52	.23	-.97	48E-02

156

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Actself" Between U.S. And Taiwan Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ACTSELF	5	50	1.78	1.02	.14
	4	39	1.95	1.12	.18

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
						Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Difference	Difference	Lower	Upper
ACTSE Equal variance assumed	.144	.706	-.742	87	.460	-.17	.23	-.62	.28
Equal variance not assumed			-.733	77.522	.466	-.17	.23	-.63	.29

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Unhappy" Between U.S. And Hong Kong Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
UNHAPPY	5	50	3.20	1.20	.17
	1	28	2.46	.84	.16

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
UNHAP	Equal variance assumed	11.699	.001	2.881	76	.005	.74	.26	.23	1.24
	Equal variance not assumed			3.176	72.037	.002	.74	.23	.27	1.20

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Varaiable "Unhappy" Between U.S.
And Indian Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
UNHAPPY	5	50	3.20	1.20	.17
	2	43	3.21	1.37	.21

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
UNHAP Equal variar assumed	1.174	.282	-.035	91	.972	.30E-03	.27	-.54	.52
Equal variar not assumer			-.035	84.018	.972	.30E-03	.27	-.54	.53

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Unhappy" Between U.S.
And PRC Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
UNHAPPY	5	50	3.20	1.20	.17
	3	47	3.02	1.01	.15

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
UNHAP	Equal varian assumed	4.863	.030	.793	95	.430	.18	.23	-.27	.63
	Equal varian not assume			.797	93.974	.428	.18	.22	-.27	.62

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Unhappy" Between U.S. And Taiwan Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
UNHAPPY	5	50	3.20	1.20	.17
	4	39	3.10	1.07	.17

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
						Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Difference	Difference	Lower	Upper
UNHAP Equal varian assumed	4.442	.038	.399	87	.691	.74E-02	.24	-.39	.58
Equal varian not assume			.405	85.278	.687	.74E-02	.24	-.38	.58

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Timecard" Between U.S. And Hong Kong Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
TIMECARD	5	50	2.38	1.21	.17
	1	28	2.46	1.37	.26

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
							Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Difference	Difference	Lower	Upper
TIMECA	Equal varian assumed	.650	.423	-.281	76	.779	.43E-02	.30	-.68	.51
	Equal varian not assume			-.271	50.330	.787	.43E-02	.31	-.71	.54

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Timecard" Between U.S.
And Indian Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
TIMECARD	5	50	2.38	1.21	.17
	2	43	3.30	1.55	.24

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
TIMECA Equal varian assumed	11.200	.001	-3.218	91	.002	-.92	.29	-1.49	-.35
Equal varian not assume			-3.159	78.942	.002	-.92	.29	-1.50	-.34

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Timecard" Between U.S.
And PRC Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
TIMECARD	5	50	2.38	1.21	.17
	3	47	3.17	1.54	.22

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
TIMECA	Equal variar assumed	7.702	.007	-2.822	95	.006	-.79	.28	-1.35	-.23
	Equal variar not assume			-2.802	87.389	.006	-.79	.28	-1.35	-.23

Appendix N

T-Test for Surrogate Variable "Timecard" Between U.S. And Taiwan Students

Group Statistics

	COUNTRY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
TIMECARD	5	50	2.38	1.21	.17
	4	39	3.03	1.35	.22

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
TIMECA	Equal varian assumed	2.502	.117	-2.376	87	.020	-.65	.27	-1.19	-.11
	Equal varian not assume			-2.344	77.182	.022	-.65	.28	-1.19	73E-02

Appendix O

Kruskal- Wallis H Test with All 45 Leadership Attributes, Skills, And Traits for N = 207

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
OLDER	207	4.58	.99	1	5
TRIM	207	4.08	1.28	1	5
STAMINA	207	4.19	1.21	1	5
HEALTHY	207	4.23	1.07	1	5
ATRACTI	207	4.43	1.01	1	5
WELLDRES	207	4.47	1.07	1	5
GROOMED	207	4.10	1.21	1	5
MALE	207	4.74	.76	1	5
ENERGE	207	3.67	1.35	1	5
SELFCONT	207	2.56	1.15	1	5
INTEGRIT	207	2.37	1.31	1	5
UNSELF	207	2.66	1.20	1	5
COURAGE	207	2.36	.99	1	5
MATURE	207	3.34	1.12	1	5
CREATIVE	207	2.84	1.22	1	5
APPROACH	207	2.51	1.34	1	5
HONEST	207	2.45	1.18	1	5
HUMOR	207	3.51	1.33	1	5
VISON	207	2.29	1.18	1	5
ENTREPRE	207	2.86	1.27	1	5
CHARISMA	207	3.17	1.28	1	5
REASON	207	3.21	1.15	1	5
ÁLIGN	207	2.26	1.25	1	5
CONFLICT	207	2.36	1.32	1	5
DIVERS	207	2.61	1.19	1	5
WINWIN	207	2.45	1.16	1	5
CHANGE	207	2.29	1.47	1	5
INPUT	207	2.42	1.14	1	5
WALKABOU	207	3.00	1.32	1	5
TRUST	207	2.24	1.26	1	5
COMMUNI	207	1.63	1.00	1	5
OPENINFL	207	2.89	1.28	1	5
MENTORIN	207	2.74	1.15	1	5
MISTAKE	207	3.00	1.38	1	5
LISTEN	207	2.16	1.13	1	5
PROMISE	207	2.86	1.25	1	5
CHALLENG	207	3.10	1.16	1	5
EMPOWER	207	2.42	1.31	1	5
SHARES	207	2.62	1.27	1	5
DESTROY	207	3.42	1.22	1	5
LONGPROF	207	2.31	1.22	1	5
TEAMS	207	2.58	1.23	1	5
LONGTRAI	207	2.57	1.38	1	5
LONGEMPL	207	3.00	1.13	1	5
TASKS	207	2.66	1.20	1	5
COUNTRY	207	3.19	1.37	1	5

Appendix O

Kruskal-Wallis H Test with All 45 Leadership Attributes, Skills and Traits for N = 207[a,b]

	OLDER	TRIM	STAMINA	HEALTHY	ATRACTI
Chi-Square	6.707	52.077	41.189	35.368	31.305
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.152	.000	.000	.000	.000

Kruskal-Wallis H Test with All 45 Leadership Attributes, Skills and Traits for N = 207[a,b]

	WELLDRES	GROOMED	MALE	ENERGE	SELFCONT
Chi-Square	2.456	11.183	13.735	12.293	3.813
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.652	.025	.008	.015	.432

Kruskal-Wallis H Test with All 45 Leadership Attributes, Skills and Traits for N = 207[a,b]

	INTEGRIT	UNSELF	COURAGE	MATURE	CREATIVE
Chi-Square	13.667	6.790	12.540	6.003	5.225
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.008	.147	.014	.199	.265

Kruskal-Wallis H Test with All 45 Leadership Attributes, Skills and Traits for N = 207[a,b]

	APPROACH	HONEST	HUMOR	VISON	ENTREPRE
Chi-Square	1.432	17.719	11.495	5.684	16.299
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.839	.001	.022	.224	.003

Appendix O

Kruskal-Wallis H Test with All 45 Leadership Attributes, Skills and Traits for N = 207[a,b]

	CHARISMA	REASON	ALIGN	CONFLICT	DIVERS
Chi-Square	5.655	23.094	52.693	21.072	2.862
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.226	.000	.000	.000	.581

Kruskal-Wallis H Test with All 45 Leadership Attributes, Skills and Traits for N = 207[a,b]

	WINWIN	CHANGE	INPUT	WALKABOU	TRUST
Chi-Square	6.243	62.828	9.206	30.695	8.293
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.182	.000	.056	.000	.081

Kruskal-Wallis H Test with All 45 Leadership Attributes, Skills and Traits for N = 207[a,b]

	COMMUNI	OPENINFL	MENTORIN	MISTAKE	LISTEN
Chi-Square	20.928	8.485	8.826	6.820	5.166
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.075	.066	.146	.271

Kruskal-Wallis H Test with All 45 Leadership Attributes, Skills and Traits for N = 207[a,b]

	PROMISE	CHALLENG	EMPOWER	SHARES	DESTROY
Chi-Square	12.228	2.187	2.666	2.406	7.279
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.016	.701	.615	.661	.122

Appendix O

Kruskal-Wallis H Test with All 45 Leadership Attributes, Skills and Traits for N = 207[a,b]

	LONGPROF	TEAMS	LONGTRAI	LONGEMPL	TASKS
Chi-Square	1.516	3.992	7.496	8.282	5.908
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.824	.407	.112	.082	.206

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: COUNTRY

Appendix P

Summary for 19 Variables in Mann-Whitney U Tests

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
TRIM	207	4.08	1.28	1	5
STAMINA	207	4.19	1.21	1	5
HEALTHY	207	4.23	1.07	1	5
ATRACTI	207	4.43	1.01	1	5
MALE	207	4.74	.76	1	5
ENERGE	207	3.67	1.35	1	5
GROOMED	207	4.10	1.21	1	5
COURAGE	207	2.36	.99	1	5
HONEST	207	2.45	1.18	1	5
INTEGRIT	207	2.37	1.31	1	5
HUMOR	207	3.51	1.33	1	5
CHANGE	207	2.29	1.47	1	5
ÁLIGN	207	2.26	1.25	1	5
REASON	207	3.21	1.15	1	5
ENTREPRE	207	2.86	1.27	1	5
CONFLICT	207	2.36	1.32	1	5
WALKABOU	207	3.00	1.32	1	5
COMMUNI	207	1.63	1.00	1	5
PROMISE	207	2.86	1.25	1	5
COUNTRY	207	3.19	1.37	1	5

Appendix P

Mann-Whitney U Two-Way Test Between the U.S. and Hong Kong Students for 19 Variables

Ranks

	COUNTRY	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
TRIM	1	28	28.95	810.50
	5	50	45.41	2270.50
	Total	78		
STAMINA	1	28	27.07	758.00
	5	50	46.46	2323.00
	Total	78		
HEALTHY	1	28	35.11	983.00
	5	50	41.96	2098.00
	Total	78		
ATRACTI	1	28	33.54	939.00
	5	50	42.84	2142.00
	Total	78		
MALE	1	28	38.30	1072.50
	5	50	40.17	2008.50
	Total	78		
ENERGE	1	28	39.18	1097.00
	5	50	39.68	1984.00
	Total	78		
GROOMED	1	28	35.93	1006.00
	5	50	41.50	2075.00
	Total	78		
COURAGE	1	28	48.82	1367.00
	5	50	34.28	1714.00
	Total	78		
HONEST	1	28	46.80	1310.50
	5	50	35.41	1770.50
	Total	78		
INTEGRIT	1	28	48.30	1352.50
	5	50	34.57	1728.50
	Total	78		
HUMOR	1	28	34.41	963.50
	5	50	42.35	2117.50
	Total	78		
CHANGE	1	28	50.73	1420.50
	5	50	33.21	1660.50
	Total	78		
ALIGN	1	28	43.48	1217.50
	5	50	37.27	1863.50
	Total	78		

Appendix P

Ranks

	COUNTRY	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
REASON	1	28	34.52	966.50
	5	50	42.29	2114.50
	Total	78		
ENTREPRE	1	28	38.93	1090.00
	5	50	39.82	1991.00
	Total	78		
CONFLICT	1	28	41.13	1151.50
	5	50	38.59	1929.50
	Total	78		
WALKABOU	1	28	50.34	1409.50
	5	50	33.43	1671.50
	Total	78		
COMMUNI	1	28	46.27	1295.50
	5	50	35.71	1785.50
	Total	78		
PROMISE	1	28	38.73	1084.50
	5	50	39.93	1996.50
	Total	78		

Test Statistics[a]

	TRIM	STAMINA	HEALTHY	ATRACTI	MALE
Mann-Whitney U	404.500	352.000	577.000	533.000	666.500
Wilcoxon W	810.500	758.000	983.000	939.000	1072.500
Z	-3.951	-4.577	-1.595	-2.469	-.755
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.111	.014	.450

Test Statistics[a]

	ENERGE	GROOMED	COURAGE	HONEST	INTEGRIT
Mann-Whitney U	691.000	600.000	439.000	495.500	453.500
Wilcoxon W	1097.000	1006.000	1714.000	1770.500	1728.500
Z	-.098	-1.182	-3.090	-2.233	-2.700
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.922	.237	.002	.026	.007

Appendix P

Test Statistics[a]

	HUMOR	CHANGE	ALIGN	REASON	ENTREPRE
Mann-Whitney U	557.500	385.500	588.500	560.500	684.000
Wilcoxon W	963.500	1660.500	1863.500	966.500	1090.000
Z	-1.553	-3.837	-1.244	-1.525	-.175
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.120	.000	.214	.127	.861

Test Statistics[a]

	CONFLICT	WALKABOU	COMMUNI	PROMISE
Mann-Whitney U	654.500	396.500	510.500	678.500
Wilcoxon W	1929.500	1671.500	1785.500	1084.500
Z	-.499	-3.325	-2.679	-.232
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.618	.001	.007	.817

a. Grouping Variable: COUNTRY

Appendix P

Mann-Whitney U Two-Way Between the U.S. and Indian Students for 19 Variables

Ranks

	COUNTRY	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
TRIM	2	43	43.95	1890.00
	5	50	49.62	2481.00
	Total	93		
STAMINA	2	43	43.81	1884.00
	5	50	49.74	2487.00
	Total	93		
HEALTHY	2	43	47.31	2034.50
	5	50	46.73	2336.50
	Total	93		
ATRACTI	2	43	45.94	1975.50
	5	50	47.91	2395.50
	Total	93		
MALE	2	43	44.41	1909.50
	5	50	49.23	2461.50
	Total	93		
ENERGE	2	43	52.44	2255.00
	5	50	42.32	2116.00
	Total	93		
GROOMED	2	43	43.79	1883.00
	5	50	49.76	2488.00
	Total	93		
COURAGE	2	43	49.74	2139.00
	5	50	44.64	2232.00
	Total	93		
HONEST	2	43	59.27	2548.50
	5	50	36.45	1822.50
	Total	93		
INTEGRIT	2	43	51.99	2235.50
	5	50	42.71	2135.50
	Total	93		
HUMOR	2	43	39.79	1711.00
	5	50	53.20	2660.00
	Total	93		
CHANGE	2	43	51.59	2218.50
	5	50	43.05	2152.50
	Total	93		
ALIGN	2	43	49.17	2114.50
	5	50	45.13	2256.50
	Total	93		

Appendix P

Ranks

	COUNTRY	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
REASON	2	43	42.76	1838.50
	5	50	50.65	2532.50
	Total	93		
ENTREPRE	2	43	40.33	1734.00
	5	50	52.74	2637.00
	Total	93		
CONFLICT	2	43	55.27	2376.50
	5	50	39.89	1994.50
	Total	93		
WALKABOU	2	43	57.74	2483.00
	5	50	37.76	1888.00
	Total	93		
COMMUNI	2	43	57.06	2453.50
	5	50	38.35	1917.50
	Total	93		
PROMISE	2	43	53.49	2300.00
	5	50	41.42	2071.00
	Total	93		

Test Statistics[a]

	TRIM	STAMINA	HEALTHY	ATRACTI	MALE
Mann-Whitney U	944.000	938.000	1061.500	1029.500	963.500
Wilcoxon W	1890.000	1884.000	2336.500	1975.500	1909.500
Z	-1.536	-1.650	-.140	-.582	-1.599
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.125	.099	.889	.561	.110

Test Statistics[a]

	ENERGE	GROOMED	COURAGE	HONEST	INTEGRIT
Mann-Whitney U	841.000	937.000	957.000	547.500	860.500
Wilcoxon W	2116.000	1883.000	2232.000	1822.500	2135.500
Z	-1.893	-1.191	-.993	-4.210	-1.751
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.058	.234	.321	.000	.080

Appendix P

Test Statistics[a]

	HUMOR	CHANGE	ÁLIGN	REASON	ENTREPRE
Mann-Whitney U	765.000	877.500	981.500	892.500	788.000
Wilcoxon W	1711.000	2152.500	2256.500	1838.500	1734.000
Z	-2.488	-1.928	-.774	-1.493	-2.311
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	.054	.439	.135	.021

Test Statistics[a]

	CONFLICT	WALKABOU	COMMUNI	PROMISE
Mann-Whitney U	719.500	613.000	642.500	796.000
Wilcoxon W	1994.500	1888.000	1917.500	2071.000
Z	-2.832	-3.708	-4.034	-2.220
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.000	.000	.026

a. Grouping Variable: COUNTRY

Appendix P

Mann-Whitney U Two-Way Test Between the U.S. and Indian Students
for 19 Variables

Ranks

	COUNTRY	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
TRIM	3	47	31.44	1477.50
	5	50	65.51	3275.50
	Total	97		
STAMINA	3	47	35.12	1650.50
	5	50	62.05	3102.50
	Total	97		
HEALTHY	3	47	37.45	1760.00
	5	50	59.86	2993.00
	Total	97		
ATRACTI	3	47	36.97	1737.50
	5	50	60.31	3015.50
	Total	97		
MALE	3	47	43.48	2043.50
	5	50	54.19	2709.50
	Total	97		
ENERGE	3	47	44.22	2078.50
	5	50	53.49	2674.50
	Total	97		
GROOMED	3	47	42.83	2013.00
	5	50	54.80	2740.00
	Total	97		
COURAGE	3	47	57.60	2707.00
	5	50	40.92	2046.00
	Total	97		
HONEST	3	47	56.82	2670.50
	5	50	41.65	2082.50
	Total	97		
INTEGRIT	3	47	53.44	2511.50
	5	50	44.83	2241.50
	Total	97		
HUMOR	3	47	43.62	2050.00
	5	50	54.06	2703.00
	Total	97		
CHANGE	3	47	68.64	3226.00
	5	50	30.54	1527.00
	Total	97		
ALIGN	3	47	66.46	3123.50
	5	50	32.59	1629.50
	Total	97		

Appendix P

Ranks

	COUNTRY	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
REASON	3	47	36.84	1731.50
	5	50	60.43	3021.50
	Total	97		
ENTREPRE	3	47	38.51	1810.00
	5	50	58.86	2943.00
	Total	97		
CONFLICT	3	47	56.35	2648.50
	5	50	42.09	2104.50
	Total	97		
WALKABOU	3	47	62.85	2954.00
	5	50	35.98	1799.00
	Total	97		
COMMUNI	3	47	58.71	2759.50
	5	50	39.87	1993.50
	Total	97		
PROMISE	3	47	45.27	2127.50
	5	50	52.51	2625.50
	Total	97		

Test Statistics[a]

	TRIM	STAMINA	HEALTHY	ATRACTI	MALE
Mann-Whitney U	349.500	522.500	632.000	609.500	915.500
Wilcoxon W	1477.500	1650.500	1760.000	1737.500	2043.500
Z	-6.556	-5.454	-4.328	-4.808	-2.900
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.004

Test Statistics[a]

	ENERGE	GROOMED	COURAGE	HONEST	INTEGRIT
Mann-Whitney U	950.500	885.000	771.000	807.500	966.500
Wilcoxon W	2078.500	2013.000	2046.000	2082.500	2241.500
Z	-1.671	-2.268	-3.227	-2.768	-1.595
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.095	.023	.001	.006	.111

Appendix P

Test Statistics[a]

	HUMOR	CHANGE	ALIGN	REASON	ENTREPRE
Mann-Whitney U	922.000	252.000	354.500	603.500	682.000
Wilcoxon W	2050.000	1527.000	1629.500	1731.500	1810.000
Z	-1.901	-7.041	-6.086	-4.284	-3.656
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.057	.000	.000	.000	.000

Test Statistics[a]

	CONFLICT	WALKABOU	COMMUNI	PROMISE
Mann-Whitney U	829.500	524.000	718.500	999.500
Wilcoxon W	2104.500	1799.000	1993.500	2127.500
Z	-2.579	-4.840	-3.975	-1.302
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.000	.000	.193

a. Grouping Variable: COUNTRY

Appendix P

Mann-Whitney U Two-Way Test Between the U.S. and Taiwanese Students
for 19 Variables

Ranks

	COUNTRY	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
TRIM	4	39	32.92	1284.00
	5	50	54.42	2721.00
	Total	89		
STAMINA	4	39	34.63	1350.50
	5	50	53.09	2654.50
	Total	89		
HEALTHY	4	39	33.69	1314.00
	5	50	53.82	2691.00
	Total	89		
ATRACTI	4	39	39.69	1548.00
	5	50	49.14	2457.00
	Total	89		
MALE	4	39	45.22	1763.50
	5	50	44.83	2241.50
	Total	89		
ENERGE	4	39	48.82	1904.00
	5	50	42.02	2101.00
	Total	89		
GROOMED	4	39	47.23	1842.00
	5	50	43.26	2163.00
	Total	89		
COURAGE	4	39	50.33	1963.00
	5	50	40.84	2042.00
	Total	89		
HONEST	4	39	52.59	2051.00
	5	50	39.08	1954.00
	Total	89		
INTEGRIT	4	39	54.81	2137.50
	5	50	37.35	1867.50
	Total	89		
HUMOR	4	39	35.17	1371.50
	5	50	52.67	2633.50
	Total	89		
CHANGE	4	39	57.86	2256.50
	5	50	34.97	1748.50
	Total	89		
ALIGN	4	39	47.13	1838.00
	5	50	43.34	2167.00
	Total	89		

Appendix P

Ranks

	COUNTRY	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
REASON	4	39	48.49	1891.00
	5	50	42.28	2114.00
	Total	89		
ENTREPRE	4	39	43.53	1697.50
	5	50	46.15	2307.50
	Total	89		
CONFLICT	4	39	42.26	1648.00
	5	50	47.14	2357.00
	Total	89		
WALKABOU	4	39	53.47	2085.50
	5	50	38.39	1919.50
	Total	89		
COMMUNI	4	39	48.78	1902.50
	5	50	42.05	2102.50
	Total	89		
PROMISE	4	39	43.88	1711.50
	5	50	45.87	2293.50
	Total	89		

Test Statistics[a]

	TRIM	STAMINA	HEALTHY	ATRACTI	MALE
Mann-Whitney U	504.000	570.500	534.000	768.000	966.500
Wilcoxon W	1284.000	1350.500	1314.000	1548.000	2241.500
Z	-4.689	-4.226	-4.080	-2.393	-.176
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.017	.860

Test Statistics[a]

	ENERGE	GROOMED	COURAGE	HONEST	INTEGRIT
Mann-Whitney U	826.000	888.000	767.000	679.000	592.500
Wilcoxon W	2101.000	2163.000	2042.000	1954.000	1867.500
Z	-1.289	-.858	-2.010	-2.554	-3.304
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.198	.391	.044	.011	.001

Appendix P

Test Statistics[a]

	HUMOR	CHANGE	ALIGN	REASON	ENTREPRE
Mann-Whitney U	591.500	473.500	892.000	839.000	917.500
Wilcoxon W	1371.500	1748.500	2167.000	2114.000	1697.500
Z	-3.288	-4.659	-.738	-1.173	-.494
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.460	.241	.621

Test Statistics[a]

	CONFLICT	WALKABOU	COMMUNI	PROMISE
Mann-Whitney U	868.000	644.500	827.500	931.500
Wilcoxon W	1648.000	1919.500	2102.500	1711.500
Z	-.950	-2.847	-1.741	-.373
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.342	.004	.082	.709

a. Grouping Variable: COUNTRY

VITA

Michael Vieregge was born in Schwerte, Germany, on March 15, 1957. He passed the „Zwischenprüfung" (B.A. standing) at Philipps Universität Marburg, Germany, in 1979. He graduated with a M.A. degree in Germanic Languages in 1982 from The University of Texas, Austin. He attended the Lyndon B. Johnson School of Public Affairs at The University of Texas, Austin, graduating with a M.P.A degree in 1990.