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Individual Ambidexterity, Motivating Language, and Employee Outcomes: a Cross-Country Analysis

Cau Ngoc Nguyen

INDIVIDUAL AMBIDEXTERITY, MOTIVATING LANGUAGE, AND EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES: A CROSS-COUNTRY ANALYSIS

A Dissertation

by

CAU NGOC NGUYEN

Submitted to Texas A&M International University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

December 2018

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Approved as to style and content by:

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ABSTRACT

Individual Ambidexterity, Motivating Language, and Employee Outcomes: a Cross-country Analysis (December 2018)

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Organizational ambidexterity has been recognized as a critical antecedent of firm success. Recently, scholars have started to contend that ambidexterity is not only essential at the firm, but also at the individual level. Thus, individuals must engage in exploitative and explorative behaviors to be successful. However, theoretical and empirical focus of individual ambidexterity remains limited and fragmented. This dissertation seeks to gain a better understanding of individual ambidexterity by integrating insights from motivating language theory and the literature on contextual ambidexterity to develop a hypothetical model linking motivating language, individual ambidexterity, and several employee outcomes including absenteeism, turnover intention, job satisfaction, and job performance. Direct relationships are hypothesized for both motivating language and individual ambidexterity and the selected employee outcomes, as well as job satisfaction's relationships with absenteeism, turnover intention, and job performance.

Data to test the hypothetical model is collected from 614 employees across three national settings: India, the U.S., and Vietnam. Results indicate a positive relationship between motivating language and individual ambidexterity for the three samples. Subsequent analyses also suggest a negative relationship between individual ambidexterity and both absenteeism and

turnover intention for the three countries. However, the relationship between individual ambidexterity and turnover intention is not significant for the Vietnamese sample. In addition, a positive relationship is found between individual ambidexterity and both job satisfaction and performance across the samples. The results for all three samples also indicate a negative relationship between motivating language and both absenteeism and turnover intention, as well as a positive relationship between motivating language and both job satisfaction and performance. Further tests reveal that job satisfaction's negative impact on absenteeism, turnover intention, and positive impact on job performance are consistent across the samples. Finally, model comparisons suggest that the results for India and Vietnam are generally consistent, whereas significant differences are found for various relationships in the model for the U.S. versus India and the U.S. versus Vietnam. The implications for research and practice, as well as suggestions for future research are also discussed.

DEDICATION

To my loving wife and best friend, Quyen.

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I can honestly say without any doubt or hesitation that the Ph.D. program at the A.R. Sanchez, Jr. School of Business has been one of the most challenging and rewarding experiences in my life. I would not have been able to complete this dissertation and Ph.D. program without the support from the faculty, my family, colleagues, and friends.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Organizational ambidexterity (OA) research has witnessed a proliferation of interest spanning across more than four decades (Duncan, 1976). OA is defined as the firm's ability to simultaneously pursue exploitative and explorative activities (Tushman & O'Reilly III, 1996). Exploitation increases efficiency and productivity through refinement and improvement of existing products, services, organizational procedures and routines, whereas exploration relates to search, experimentation, and risk-taking (March, 1991).

Recently, OA scholars argue that ambidexterity can manifest itself at all levels of the firm, and therefore, it is a construct that can be investigated at other conceptual levels, ranging from the macro-level of the firm down to the individual level of the employee (Bledow, Frese, Anderson, Erez, & Farr, 2009; Bonesso, Gerli, & Scapolan, 2014; London & School, 2013). At the individual level, ambidexterity refers to the extent to which an individual pursues exploitative and explorative behaviors in the workplace (Bledow et al., 2009; Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016; Mom, Van Den Bosch, & Volberda, 2009). Individual ambidexterity (IA) is not only a possible level at which firms can reconcile exploitation and exploration, but it is also a level that is crucial for gaining synergies between exploitation and exploration at the organizational level (Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016). According to Kauppila & Tempelaar (2016), for ambidexterity to be present at any level of the firm, it "requires the agency and discretion of ambidextrous individuals – be they all employees or a small group of managers- to allocate resources and

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This dissertation follows the style of *Journal of Management.*

manage the cross-fertilization between explorative and exploitative activities" (Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016, p. 1020).

The significance of IA has also been discussed beyond the ambidexterity literature (Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016). The literature on work design and motivation have documented that present job roles require employees to engage in increasingly diverse tasks (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007) and take initiative in developing and pursuing their job goals (Frese & Fay, 2001). These scholars argue for work roles involving characteristics of ambidexterity to increase interest and motivation for employees (Adler, Goldoftas, & Levine, 1999). As Parker (2014) posits, ambidexterity can be a form of job enrichment for individuals in mundane positions because the combination of tasks involving exploitation and exploration brings more value to the work. In similar fashion, Birkinshaw and Gupta (2013) argued that even in the most ordinary job position, employees face some version of the ambidexterity dilemma, such as the amount of time one should spend exploiting existing skills for the firm's benefit versus the amount of time one should spend trying to develop a new skill and/or help the firm in innovative ways. Furthermore, from the organizational creativity research, Miron-Spektor and associates found that workers who integrated exploitation and exploration were more creative than those that only explore because the combination of the conflicting demands prevented workers from relying on conventional thinking (Miron-Spektor, Gino, & Argote, 2011).

Despite IA's widely-recognized relevance, studies devoted to analyzing ambidexterity at the individual level are scarce. Case in point, a recent meta-analysis by Junni and associates (2013) found only about 4% of all empirical research on ambidexterity was analyzed at this level. Most studies on ambidexterity have taken a macro-level perspective, thus providing the literature with in-depth knowledge of the antecedents and outcomes of ambidexterity at the

organizational level (Keller & Weibler, 2015; Raisch & Birkinshaw, 2008). However, this increased emphasis on the macro-level has left the ambidexterity literature with a limited conceptual and empirically validated understanding about ambidexterity at the individual-level (Mom et al., 2009; Raisch & Birkinshaw, 2008), resulting in the explicit need for a more focused analysis of IA (Caniëls, Neghina, & Schaetsaert, 2017; Junni, Sarala, Taras, & Tarba, 2013; Prieto & Pilar Pérez Santana, 2012). In light of these research needs, this dissertation seeks to contribute to the understanding of IA by investigating its individual-level antecedents and outcomes.

The extant IA studies while few in number, have uncovered two major patterns. First, the literature consistently indicates that employees' motivation plays a crucial role in their engagement of ambidextrous behaviors (Jasmand, Blazevic, & de Ruyter, 2012; Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016). These studies stressed the importance of leadership in fostering employees' IA (Keller & Weibler, 2015; Li, Lin, & Tien, 2015; Torres, Drago, & Aqueveque, 2015). Despite these notions, the extant studies have failed to generate consistent knowledge as to *what* strategies managers can implement to motivate their employee to behave in ambidextrous manners. Previous analyses have indicated that leadership styles such as paradoxical leadership (Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016) and transformational leadership (Keller & Weibler, 2015; Li et al., 2015) can help motivate employees to behave more ambidextrously. However, this narrow focus on leadership traits fails to investigate strategies that leaders can implement to develop their employees' ambidextrous behaviors. This is surprising given that management scholars increasingly highlight the significance of implementing leadership strategies to influence employee behaviors (Bass, 1990; Grojean, Resick, Dickson, & Smith, 2004; Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016; J. Mayfield, Mayfield, & Sharbrough, 2015; M. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2016).

Equally important, scholars have long emphasized the importance of strategic leader communication in impacting and motivating specific employee behaviors (e.g., J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018). In consideration of this research gap, this study draws from motivating language theory (MLT) (Sullivan, 1988), which proposes that strategic leader speech can directly have a positive influence on employee outcomes associated with motivation, to hypothesize that the leader's use motivating language (ML) is key to cultivating employee's IA.

Second, previous studies have denoted that IA can have positive impacts not only on organizational outcomes, including OA (Mom et al., 2009), firm profits (DeCarlo & Lam, 2016; Torres et al., 2015), and firm survival (Torres et al., 2015), but also outcomes at the individual level, including customer satisfaction performance (Jasmand et al., 2012), innovation performance (Rosing & Zacher, 2017), sales performance (Jasmand et al., 2012), and task performance (Good & Michel, 2013). However, from a thorough review of the literature, how IA impacts employees' attitudes remains unexplored. Employee work-related attitudes is paramount to organizational success (Elias, 2009). When employees possess a strong, positive attitude, they are likely to behave in focused, persistent, and effortful ways that support organizational goals; however, when employees possess a strong, negative attitude, they can resist and oppose to sabotage the firm's initiatives (Elias, 2009). Therefore, this study not only studies the impact IA has on the individual's job performance but also the effect that it has on several indicators of employee attitudes, including absenteeism, job satisfaction, and turnover intention.

The current study proposes and empirically tests a conceptual model to illustrate the relationships between both individual ambidexterity and motivating language, and the selected employee outcomes, as well as the relationship between motivating language and individual ambidexterity. In doing so, this dissertation's theory and analyses offer several contributions to

the both the ambidexterity and MLT literature. First, with regards to the ambidexterity literature, this paper responds the numerous calls for a more focused research at the individual level (Caniëls et al., 2017; Gupta, Smith, & Shalley, 2006; Junni et al., 2013; Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016; Mom, Van Den Bosch, & Volberda, 2007; Mom et al., 2009; Prieto & Pilar Pérez Santana, 2012; Raisch & Birkinshaw, 2008) by studying IA from the employee's perspective and its relationship with other individual-level variables. Second, this dissertation contributes to the contextual ambidexterity and motivating language literatures by linking theorizing and testing whether the use of ML can create a context that fosters employee ambidextrous behaviors. Third, this study adds to the literature on the IA-performance relationship by analyzing the impact of IA on a versatile job performance measure developed Mayfield & Mayfield (2006), which has been shown to have high correlations with multiple job performance variables. Fourth, this research contributes to the ambidexterity literature by investigating the relationship between IA and several selected outcomes relating to employee attitudes (absenteeism, job satisfaction, and turnover intention), a link that has yet to be explored in past analyses. Finally, this dissertation adds to both the ambidexterity and motivating language literatures by examining and comparing datasets from three separate countries: India, the U.S., and Vietnam.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

This chapter presents a review of the relevant literature on OA, contextual ambidexterity, individual ambidexterity, motivating language. This chapter also presents a brief overview of the research relevance of four employee outcomes: absenteeism, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and job performance. Therefore, this chapter is developed with the purpose of building a theoretical justification for the inclusion of the variables applied in this dissertation.

The History of Organizational Ambidexterity

Organizational ambidexterity (OA) is a topic that has piqued the interest of scholars for decades, leading to hundreds of empirical investigations (e.g., Nosella, Cantarello, & Filippini, 2012; O'Reilly III & Tushman, 2013), theoretical studies (e.g., Simsek, Heavey, Veiga, & Souder, 2009), top journals such as the *Academy of Management Journal* (August 2006*)* and *Organization Science* (July-August 2009) dedicating special issues to the topic, comprehensive review articles (e.g., Lavie, Stettner, & Tushman, 2010; O'Reilly III & Tushman, 2013; Raisch & Birkinshaw, 2008; Turner, Maylor, & Swart, 2013), and a multitude of symposia at professional seminars (O'Reilly III & Tushman, 2013). Though Duncan (1976) was the first to introduce the term OA to the literature, it is March's (1991) seminal article and framework that has been widely credited as the catalyst for the plethora of the current research relating to this concept. According to his framework, March proposed that exploitation and exploration are two main fundamentally distinct learning activities to which organizations can divide their efforts and resources. Exploitation pertains to activities such as "refinement, efficiency, selection, and implementation," whereas exploration is associated with notions such as "search, variation,

experimentation, and discovery" (p. 102). Exploitation and exploration may therefore entail firms to have fundamentally distinct business structures, strategies, and contexts. Several scholars assert that there is a trade-off between organizing the firm to exploit existing competencies and exploring new ones (Ancona, Goodman, Lawrence, & Tushman, 2001; Levinthal & March, 1993).

Earlier works had often maintained that business practices to simultaneously address efficient exploitation and effective exploration may be impossible to accomplish (e.g., Hannan & Freeman, 1977; Miller & Friesen, 1986). Thus, much of contemporary management theory presented organizational phenomena in terms of discrete, conflicting categories, forcing businesses to focus on either exploitation or exploration (Burns & Stalker, 1961; Denison, Hooijberg, & Quinn, 1995; Ghemawat & Ricart i Costa, 1993). In his 1991 paper, March conversely argues that organizations must position themselves to simultaneously exploit and explore. A one-sided exploitation focus may improve short-term performance; however, it can also result in a competency trap because organizations may not be able to adequately respond to environmental changes (Ahuja & Lampert, 2001). Alternatively, a focus on exploration may help organizations to renew its knowledge base but it can also trap firms into a never-ending cycle of experimentation costs and unrewarding change (Volberda & Lewin, 2003). Thus, "long-term success and survival is dependent upon the firm's ability to engage in enough exploitation to ensure the organization's current viability and to engage in enough exploration to ensure future viability" (Levinthal & March, 1993, p. 105).

March's (1991) assertion that ambidextrous organizations are successful organizations set the foundation that contributed to a general shift to paradoxical thinking, rather than trade-off thinking (Eisenhardt, 2000; Gavetti & Levinthal, 2000; Raisch & Birkinshaw, 2008). This would

lead to an outpouring of studies that recognize the importance of balancing the seemingly contradictory tensions (Adler et al., 1999; Brown & Duguid, 2001; Katila & Ahuja, 2002). Specifically, the contradictions between exploitation and exploration, as well as the need to reconcile the two, have been discussed in various literature streams, including technological innovation, organizational adaptation, strategic management, organizational design, and organizational learning.

Technological Innovation. One of the major research themes in technological innovation research is the distinction between incremental and radical innovation (Abernathy & Clark, 1985; Dewar & Dutton, 1986; Tushman & Anderson, 1986). Incremental innovation represents as minor adaptions of existing products, whereas radical innovation refers to fundamental changes leading to completely new products. Building on this, Tushman and Smith (2002) labels incremental innovations as exploitative because these types are designed to meet the existing consumers' needs and radical innovations as explorative because these innovations are designed to meet the needs of emergent consumers.

Many scholars that have adopted the exploitative and exploratory innovation categories for their investigations stress the importance of pursuing both for organizational success. For example, Ancona, Goodman, Lawrence, and Tushman (2001) suggest that a firm's dynamic capabilities are rooted in their exploitative and explorative innovations. Similarly, Colbert (2004) posits that the interaction between exploitation and exploration represents a complex capability that provides the firm an additional source of competitive advantage beyond those provided by each innovation process individually.

Organizational Adaptation. Several scholars argue that organizational long-term success requires the firm to balance continuity and change (e.g., Brown & Duguid, 2001; Leana & Barry,

2000; Miller & Friesen, 1986; Probst & Raisch, 2005; Tushman & Romanelli, 1985). For instance, Tushman & Romanelli (1985) developed a model of firm evolution that is reflected by long spans of convergence punctuated by short spans of discontinuous change. They asserted that the most successful organizations are those that not only emphasize exploitation and alignment during periods of evolutionary change but also those that pursue radical transformation and exploration in periods of revolutionary change. In the same vein, Meyer and Stensaker (2006) relate a firm's capacity for change lies in its ability to balance the need to implement changes and the need to maintain day-to-day activities.

Strategic Management. The internal ecology model of strategy (Burgelman, 1991, 2002) makes a distinction between variation-reducing, induced strategic process and variation-increasing, autonomous strategic processes. While the induced processes are concerned with activities that are within the scope of the firm's current strategy and builds on its existing knowledge, the autonomous processes are related to activities that emerge outside of the current strategy's scope and involve the creation of new competencies. This explicitly related induced strategic processes to exploitation and autonomous processes to exploration (Burgelman, 2002). Although trade-offs may exist between the two types because both processes compete for scarce resources, it is suggested that the combination of the two strategic processes may be the most beneficial (Burgelman, 1991).

Several scholars have provided assertions that are consistent with those of the internal ecology model of strategy, albeit using different terminology without reference to one another. Ghemawat and Ricart i Costa (1993) discussed static efficiency versus dynamic efficiency. Whereas the former is concerned about refining existing products, processes, and capabilities, the latter is concerned with the development of new ones. They articulated the trade-offs

between the two strategies and demonstrate that firms have the tendency to favor one over the other. Hamel and Prahalad (1993) stated that the key to creating a competitive advantage is to balance the tension between leverage and stretch- the need to exploit existing capabilities and the search for new ones. Similarly, Sanchez, Heene, and Thomas (1996) asserted that successful organizations have the capability to balance a mix of competence-leveraging and competence-building activities. They conceptualized competence-leveraging activities as those that apply existing competences, while competence-building activities are those that are related to the development of new capabilities.

Organizational Design. Organization theorists have long discussed the challenges of using organizational features to balance efficiency and flexibility. Thompson (1967) articulated that the trade-offs between efficiency and flexibility is a "central paradox of administration". Similarly, Burns and Stalker (1961) distinguished between mechanistic and organic when describing different organizational structures. According to them, firms with mechanistic structures support efficiency because they rely on standardization, centralization, and hierarchy, whereas firms with organic structures support flexibility due to their high levels of decentralization and autonomy. Duncan (1976) suggested that firms require both types of structures for success: organic to create innovations and mechanistic for the implementation and deployment of those innovations. While several scholars argue that the reconciliation between both structures are difficult to do within a single firm (Andriopoulos & Lewis, 2009; e.g., Ford & Ford, 1994; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1986), others claim that organizations may resolve the paradox by combining organic and mechanistic features (e.g., Adler et al., 1999; Sheremata, 2000). From this viewpoint, ambidexterity can be defined as the organization's ability to operate "complex

organizational designs that provide for short-term efficiency and long-term innovation" (Raisch & Birkinshaw, 2008, p. 380).

Organizational Learning. In the organizational learning stream, some researchers defined exploitation as the mere reuse of knowledge and exploration as consisting of all instances of learning (Rosenkopf & Nerkar, 2001; Vassolo, Anand, & Folta, 2004; Vermeulen & Barkema, 2001), while other researchers have conceptualized exploitation and exploration by focusing on the type or degree of learning rather than the absence or presence of learning (Benner & Tushman, 2003; Gupta et al., 2006; He & Wong, 2004). Baum, Xiao, and Usher (2000), for instance, suggested that exploitation refers to learning gained via local search, experiential refinement, and selection and reuse of existing routines. Exploration refers to "learning gained through processes of concerted variation, planned experimentation, and play" (Baum et al., 2000, p. 768).

These categories are consistent with other classifications of organizational learning such as single loop versus double-loop learning (Senge, 1990), product innovation versus production-oriented learning (McKee, 1992), and local search versus long jump (Levinthal, 1997). Despite the differences between the two types of learning, scholars have long maintained that a well-balanced combination of the two types is crucial for long-term organizational success(Gupta et al., 2006; Levinthal & March, 1993; March, 1991; Posen & Levinthal, 2012).

Major Research Approaches of Organizational Ambidexterity

The literature on organizational ambidexterity across the various disciplines centers around two key issues: 1) the relationship between organizational ambidexterity and firm performance, and 2) how a firm can achieve ambidexterity (i.e. antecedents of OA). The following paragraphs highlight several selected literatures on these key issues.

Organizational Ambidexterity and Performance. One of the most crucial questions addressed in the empirical research is whether ambidexterity is associated with performance, as the original theory posits. Here, the pervasiveness of evidence shows a consistent pattern: Ambidexterity has been shown to have positive associations with objective measures of performance, including sales growth (Auh & Menguc, 2005; Caspin-Wagner, Ellis, & Tishler, 2012; Geerts, Blindenbach-Driessen, & Gemmel, 2010; Han & Celly, 2008; He & Wong, 2004; Lee, Jeho, & Lee, 2003; Lin, Yang, & Demirkan, 2007) and profitability (Lin et al., 2007; Mudambi & Swift, 2011), perceptual performance (Bierly & Daly, 2007; Burton, O'Reilly III, & Bidwell, 2012; Cao, Gedajlovic, & Zhang, 2009; Gibson & Birkinshaw, 2004; Lubatkin, Simsek, Ling, & Veiga, 2006; Markides & Charitou, 2004; Masini, Zollo, & van Wassenhove, 2004; Schulze, Heinemann, & Abedin, 2008), innovation (Adler et al., 1999; Burgers, Jansen, & Van Den Bosch, 2009; Rothaermel & Alexandre, 2009; Tushman, Smith, & Wood, 2010; Yang & Athuahene-Gima, 2007), market valuation (Goosen, Bazazzian, & Phelps, 2012; Uotila, Maula, Keil, & Zahra, 2009; H. Wang & Li, 2008), and organizational survival (Cottrell & Nault, 2004; Hensmans & Johnson, 2007; Hill & Birkinshaw, 2014; Kauppila, 2010; Laplume & Parshotam, 2012; Mitchell & Singh, 1993; Piao, 2010; Tempelaar & Van De Vrande, 2012; Yu & Khessina, 2012). These studies have documented the effects of ambidexterity at the organizational, business unit, team, and individual levels. Although there are some studies that have shown that organizational ambidexterity may have no association (Venkatraman, Lee, & Iyer, 2006) or even a negative association with performance (Athuahene-Gima, 2005), the empirical evidence suggests that under conditions of market and technological uncertainty, it generally has a positive impact on organizational performance (Junni et al., 2013; O'Reilly III & Tushman, 2013).

There are a couple of remarkable facets to this body of research that needs to be noted.

First, the results linking ambidexterity to performance are robust, despite using different measurements of ambidexterity, a range of outcome variables, different levels of analysis, and samples from differing industries (Junni et al., 2013) . Second, although some of the earlier works used case studies or anecdotal evidence (e.g., Markides & Charitou, 2004; Tushman & O'Reilly III, 1996), several recent investigations have used large samples with longitudinal data to provide evidence of that ambidexterity can have impacts on performance over time. For example, Geerts and associates (2010) analyzed data from more than 500 firms over a four-year time span and found that ambidexterity increases firm growth. Goosen and colleagues' (2012) investigation also used an impressive sample of more than 500 companies over a 10-year period to show that firms with greater technological abilities benefitted from ambidexterity.

How to Achieve Ambidexterity. The second issue that scholars have tried to address is how firms can achieve ambidexterity. In his original work, Duncan (1976) asserted that organizations needed to shift their structures over time to align the structure with the firm's strategy to accommodate the conflicting alignments required innovation and efficiency. That is, in his perspective, firms achieve ambidexterity in sequential fashion by alternating structures over time. Tushman & O'Reilly (1996) argued that *sequential ambidexterity* might be ineffective; rather, firms need to explore and exploit in a *simultaneous* fashion. They suggested that firms can accomplish this by establishing autonomous exploration and exploitation subunits that were structurally separated, each with its unique alignment of structures, processes, human resources, and cultures, but with targeted integration to ensure the use of resources and capabilities.

Gibson and Birkinshaw (2004) later proposed that firms achieve ambidexterity by designing and implementing features of an organization to allow individuals to decide how to

divide their time between exploitative and exploratory activities. From this perspective, *contextual ambidexterity* is achieved by "building a set of processes or systems that enable and encourage individuals to make their own judgements about how to divide their time between the conflicting demands for alignment and adaptability" (Gibson & Birkinshaw, 2004, p. 201). While both sequential and simultaneous ambidexterity primarily address the exploitation/exploration tensions through structural means, contextual ambidexterity focuses on the behavioral capacity to simultaneously demonstrate ambidexterity (Gibson & Birkinshaw, 2004). This dissertation focuses on contextual ambidexterity because it has the most immediate effects for individual ambidexterity (Gibson & Birkinshaw, 2004; O'Reilly III & Tushman, 2013; Rosing & Zacher, 2017).

Contextual Ambidexterity: Toward an Individual Approach

Gibson and Birkinshaw (2004) maintained that ambidexterity refers to the firm's ability to simultaneously achieve alignment and adaptability within a single business unit, but they also further suggested that this is achieved not through structural, task, or temporal separation, but rather by building a business unit framework, in essence a context or environment, that inspires individuals to independently make their own judgements as to how best divide their time and focus between the conflicting demands for alignment and adaptability. In addition, contextual ambidexterity is a concept that encompasses all functions in a unit, instead of a 'dual structure' (Duncan, 1976) in which the two demands are kept separate.

The accountability for achieving contextual ambidexterity is shared by each member within the organization. To create a high performing business unit, the top management team is advised to establish an organizational context which facilitates both alignment and adaptability through appropriate performance management and social support (Gibson & Birkinshaw, 2004).

When contextual ambidexterity is achieved, “every individual of the organization can deliver value to existing customers in his or her own functional area” while “at the same time every individual in on the lookout for changes in the task environment, and acts accordingly” (Gibson & Birkinshaw, 2004, p. 211). Gibson & Birkinshaw (2004) argue that this is a more sustainable model than structural separation because it “facilitates the adaptation of an entire business unit, not just the separate units or functions responsible for new business development” (Gibson & Birkinshaw, 2004, p. 211).

Gibson and Birkinshaw (2004) further elaborated that although contextual ambidexterity is an organizational characteristic, it “manifests itself in the specific actions of individuals throughout the organization” (Gibson & Birkinshaw, 2004, p. 211). They presented the example of an individual employee who must, on a day-to-day basis, decide as to how he/she should spend their time- should he/she continue to focus on an existing client account to meet quota, or should he/she nurture a new client who has a slightly different need? In organizations that are either aligned or adaptive, individuals are given clear instructions and receive incentives only for those activities that support either alignment or adaptation, but rarely both. However, in a contextually ambidextrous organization, the context is dynamic enough to allow individuals to use their own judgements as to how to divide their time between alignment-oriented and adaptation-oriented activities, as both are encouraged.

The premise of contextual ambidexterity is consistent with several academics’ assertions in the past. For example, Adler and colleagues (1999) referred to two specific mechanisms for resolving the inherent conflicts between efficiency and flexibility that rely on individual employees to make their own choices: 1) meta-routines for systematizing the creative process and 2) job enrichment schemes that enable employees to become more flexible and innovative in

their routine tasks. Likewise, Hedlund and Ridderstrale (1997) discussed the role of 'renaissance company men' in international firms, individuals who are simultaneously responsible for exploitation- and creation-oriented activities. In both cases, these research papers suggest the need for a behavioral orientation toward dual-structures, rather than a higher-level separation of the two. More importantly, they also imply that successful firms are those who build systems and/or processes that facilitate these behaviors within individual. Thus, accounting for the employee ambidexterity is of high practical and theoretical importance (Faisal Ahammad, Mook Lee, Malul, & Shoham, 2015; Kang & Snell, 2009; Rosing & Zacher, 2017).

Conceptualizations of Individual Ambidexterity

Despite the literature's recognition that ambidexterity is essential at the individual level (e.g., Birkinshaw & Gibson, 2004; Rosing & Zacher, 2017), individual ambidexterity has received scarce attention in the literature both theoretically and empirically (Caniëls et al., 2017). Only recently have initial efforts to theorize and measure individual ambidexterity emerged. An examination of the literature shows that scholars have conceptualized and defined IA from two major perspectives.

The first and most often used conceptualization of IA is from a behavioral perspective. This perspective stresses the *behavioral orientation* or the *extent* to which individuals pursue exploitation and exploration activities. For example, Mom and colleagues (2009) defined as IA as the individual's "behavioral orientation toward combining exploration and exploitation related activities within a certain period…" (Mom et al., 2009, p. 812). They suggested that exploitative behaviors are those relating to implementing, refining and improving and explorative behaviors as those that search, discover, and experiment for new opportunities.

Mom and colleagues' (2009) definition is consistent with several other researchers

(Bonesso et al., 2014; Caniëls et al., 2017; Rosing & Zacher, 2017; Torres et al., 2015). For instance, Caniëls and colleagues defined IA as "…the behavior orientation of employees towards combining exploitation and exploration related activities within a certain period of time." (Caniëls et al., 2017, p. 1099). Similarly, Rogan and Mors (2014) suggested that IA encompasses the extent to which individual's pursue exploitative and explorative behaviors. These studies describe exploitation as behaviors as those that rely on past experiences to incrementally improve. In contrast, exploration are behaviors that relate to experimentation and searching for alternative ways to accomplish a task.

The second conceptualization of IA is from a cognitive perspective. From this perspective, IA refers to the *ability* of individuals to pursue ambidexterity. For instance, Good and Michel defined IA as the individual's "…cognitive ability to flexibly adapt within a dynamic context by appropriately shifting between exploration and exploitation" (Good & Michel, 2013, p. 437). In a similar vein, Kauppila and Tempelaar (2016) conceptualized IA as the individual's capacity to engage in and alternate between contradicting tasks. Rather than focusing on the ambidextrous behaviors, these scholars emphasize the individual's abilities to engage in such behaviors.

In this dissertation, IA is conceptualized from the *behavioral perspective*. Accordingly, IA is defined as the *extent* to which an individual pursues explorative or exploitative behaviors (Mom et al., 2009). Consistent with this perspective, exploitation involves behaviors which requires some degree of refinement or improvement to a skill or knowledge in order to complete a task, whereas exploration involves gaining a new skill or knowledge to find alternative or new ways to completing a task. Given that IA is composed of distinct dimensions of exploitation and

exploration, it can be enhanced through any factors that increases either behaviors, given that it is not at the expense of decreasing one or the other (Mom et al., 2009).

Extant Empirical Individual Ambidexterity Research

The extant empirical investigations on IA have been primarily focused on two issues: 1) identifying antecedents of IA and 2) testing IA's impact on employee performance. The following two sections will summarize findings from previous literature. A review of the extant IA research is presented in Table 2.1.

The Antecedents of Individual Ambidexterity

The first stream of IA literature suggests that there are two main factors that influence ambidexterity at the individual level- employee motivational states and leadership.

Table 2.1

Extant Individual Ambidexterity Research

Study	Definition of IA	IA Operationalization	Main Findings
Mom et al. (2009)	"… [the] ***behavioral*** orientation toward combining exploration and exploitation related activities within a certain period…" (pg. 812)	Ambidexterity = exploitation X exploration	A manager's decision-making authority is positively related to ambidexterity. No significant relationship between formalization of tasks and ambidexterity. Participation in cross-functional interfaces is related positively to ambidexterity. Connectedness to other organizational members is positively related to ambidexterity.

Table 2.1 Continued

Study	Definition of IA	IA Operationalization	Main Findings
Jasmand et al. (2012)	The individual's "… engagement in both customer service provision and cross-/upselling during service encounters" (pg.22).	Ambidexterity = Customer service provision X cross-/upselling	Employees' ambidextrous ***behaviors*** increases customer satisfaction and sales performance. Employees' ambidexterity is impacted by his/her motivational orientations.
Good & Michel (2013)	The individual's "cognitive ability to flexibly adapt within a dynamic context by appropriately shifting between exploration and exploitation" (pg. 437).	Formative construct-divergent thinking, focused attention, and cognitive flexibility.	Individual ambidexterity explained a unique variance beyond general intelligence on task adaptive performance
Bonesso et al. (2014)	Adopted Mom et al. (2009)		Qualitative study to identify four different situations at the individual level based on the consistency/inconsistency between an individual's role perceptions and their actual behaviors: enacted personal ambidexterity, dominant learning orientation, perceived personal ambidexterity and full personal ambidexterity.
Rogan & Mors (2014)	Adopted Mom et al. (2009)	5-point Likert scale with items referring to "1" being exploiting, "3" ambidextrous, and "5" exploring behaviors	External network density decreases ambidexterity. Informality with ties in external network and Internal contact heterogeneity (partial support) increases ambidexterity. Informality ties with internal network increases ambidexterity (partial support)

Table 2.1 Continued

Study	Definition of IA	IA Operationalization	Main Findings
Keller & Weibler (2015)	The individual's capacity to engage in and alternate between contradicting tasks.	Ambidexterity = Absolute difference between a manager's frequency of exploration and exploitation activities	Results indicated a positive relationship between superiors' transformational leadership and individual ambidexterity. A manager's ambidexterity is positively related to his/her cognitive strain. A manager's conscientiousness positively moderated the relationship between ambidexterity and cognitive strain, while a manager's level of openness to experience moderated it negatively.
Li et al. (2015)	The individual's "efforts to engage in exploration- and exploitation-related activities within a certain period" (pg. 929).	Adopted from Mom et al. (2009)	CEO transformational leadership positively impacted the CEO-top manager interface (top team behavior integration, decentralization of responsibilities, long-term compensation, and individual manager risk propensity), and in turn facilitated the top manager's IA.
Sok & O'Cass (2015)	The individual's dual engagement in creativity and attention-to-detail.	Combined = exploitation X exploration Balanced = exploitation - exploration	Combined ambidexterity positively moderated the relationship between new product innovation and financial performance Balanced ambidexterity (had no significant impacts on the relationship between new product innovation and financial performance
Torres et al. (2015)	Adopted Mom et al. (2009)	Adopted Mom et al. (2009)	Top-down knowledge inflows is positively related to IA IA is positively associated with short-term and long-term performance

Table 2.1 Continued

Study	Definition of IA	IA Operationalization	Main Findings
DeCarlo & Lam (2016)	Adopted Mom et al. (2009)	hunting orientation X farming orientation	Hunting or Farming (customer acquisition vs. customer retention) orientations, alone were not significantly related to profit margins. The interaction between the two orientations (i.e. ambidextrous salespeople) had a positive impact on profit margins
Kauppila & Tempelaar (2016)	"… the extent to which employees pursue both explorative and exploitative activities in their work roles" (pg. 1022).	Adopted Mom et al. (2009)	Psychological factors and leadership predicted employees' IA behaviors. Self-efficacy, through learning orientation, positively predicted IA. Paradoxical leadership positively moderates learning orientation-individual ambidexterity.
Rosing & Zacher (2016)	Adopted Mom et al. (2009)	Adopted Mom et al. (2009)	On days and weeks when individuals who were: 1) engaging in high levels of exploitation/exploration and 2) more balanced in exploitation and exploration behaviors (i.e. more ambidextrous), they exhibited higher innovation performance
Caniëls et al. (2017)	Adopted Mom et al. (2009)	Adopted Mom et al. (2009)	Perceived culture of empowerment is positively related to intrinsic motivation, which in turn facilitates employee ambidexterity. Extrinsic motivation moderated employee ambidextrous behavior Perceived knowledge-sharing culture had no effect on ambidexterity

Mom and colleagues (2009), for instance, argued that ambidexterity requires the individuals to have not only the ability, but also the motivation to understand and pursue conflicting goals, opportunities, and needs. Case in point, they posited and found that decision-making authority is

positively related to ambidexterity. According to these scholars, decision-making authority can increase one's self control and ownership "to make their own choices as to how they divide their time between alignment- and adaptability-oriented activities, and it increases their aspiration to attain both efficiency and flexibility related goals"(Mom et al., 2009, p. 814).

Relatedly, Jasmand and colleagues (2012) found that employee motivational states can impact ambidexterity at the employee level. They specifically studied two types of motivational orientations- *locomotion* and *assessment*. A *locomotion orientation* refers to a "preference for movement away from a current state (in either an experiential or a psychological sense) when pursuing goals" (Jasmand et al., 2012, p. 23). Locomotion-oriented individuals prefer to get started on an assignment and exert energy to move quickly on to the next one. They enjoy being in motion, rather than critically assessing to determine whether the course of action is in the right direction. An *assessment orientation* constitutes "a preference for critical comparison of alternative states, means, and goals to judge their relative worth" (Jasmand et al., 2012, p. 24). In contrast with locomotors, assessment-oriented individuals prefer to wait and evaluate all possible options meticulously before deciding to act. They found that an employee's locomotion orientation fosters ambidexterity and that it interacts positively with an assessment orientation.

In addition, Caniëls and associates (2017) found that employee empowerment can intrinsically motivate employees to behave more ambidextrously. They argued that when employees are empowered, they experience autonomy in choosing their working methods, which can increase their creative potential to explore new directions (i.e. facilitate exploration). Moreover, "empowered employees aim to actively create, shape, and alter their work environment" (Caniëls et al., 2017, p. 1101). These employees want to develop their skills and are enthusiastic to modify and improve their work approaches to increase their own efficiency.

The IA literature has also highlighted the important role that leaders play in fostering employee ambidexterity. For example, Li and associates (2015) collected data from 388 senior managers across 80 manufacturing firms in Taiwan to find that CEO transformational leadership fosters ambidexterity in their top managers, through the increase of four CEO-top manager interfaces: 1) top team behavior integration, 2) decentralization of responsibilities, 3) long-term, and 4) individual risk propensity. *Behavioral integration* refers to the "degree to which top team members engage in information exchange and collective interaction" (Li et al., 2015, p. 932). *Decentralization of responsibilities* is the "degree of responsibility that a firm's CEO delegates to its top managers regarding task and operational activities" (Li et al., 2015, p. 932). *Long-term compensation* reflects a compensation system that links top management rewards to the firm's long-term performance and goals. *Risk propensity* indicates the top manager's preference for risky growth opportunities. This is consistent with Keller and Weibler's (2015) investigation of 179 employees, which also found that the superior's transformational leadership is positively related to the employees' ambidextrous behaviors.

Kauppila and Tempelaar's (2016) studied the social-cognitive underpinnings of ambidextrous employees and how leaders can impact these employees. They found that employee's general self-efficacy positively predicts individual ambidexterity through learning orientation. *Learning-oriented* individuals are concerned with improving their competence and task mastery (Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016). In addition, they demonstrated that employees exhibit higher ambidexterity when their group managers demonstrate *paradoxical leadership*, a leadership style that combines high performance expectations with strong managerial support. Furthermore, their results found paradoxical leadership moderated the relationship between

learning orientation and individual ambidexterity such that workers' ambidexterity is highest when paradoxical leadership and employee learning orientation are simultaneously at high levels.

Individual Ambidexterity and Performance

The second stream of IA research examines IA's impact on performance. For example, Good and Michel took the cognitive view to define IA as "the individual-level cognitive ability to flexibly adapt within a dynamic context by appropriately shifting between exploration and exploitation" (Good & Michel, 2013, p. 437). They conducted a lab study with 181 participants to determine that IA explained 10% in additional variance beyond general intelligence on task performance.

Rosing and Zacher (2017) took a behavioral perspective on IA to define IA as the combination of the individual's explorative and exploitative behaviors. They borrowed from Mom and colleagues (2007, 2009) definition of exploration as behaviors that search for, discover, create, and experiment with new opportunities and exploitative behaviors that select, implement, improve and refine existing certainties. Rosing and Zacher (2017) found that employees that engaged in high exploration and exploitation behaviors reported higher innovative performance on a weekly basis.

In addition, there are some studies that have linked individual ambidexterity to firm performance. For instance, Sok and O'Cass (2015) found that ambidextrous managers, those who simultaneously engage in creativity and attention-to-detail, positively moderated the relationship between the firm's new product innovation and financial performance.

Relatedly, DeCarlo and Lam (2016) found that ambidextrous salespeople generated higher profits for the company. According to them, salespeople had two main customer orientations- hunting and farming. Customer orientation refers to "the degree to which

salespeople practice the marketing concept by trying to help their customers make purchase decisions that will satisfy their customer needs" (DeCarlo & Lam, 2016, p. 416). Salespeople who are hunter-oriented tend to exert energy on customer acquisition, whereas those who are farmer-oriented will expend their efforts on customer retention. Their results suggested that salespeople who engaged in both hunting and farming generated more firm profits than those who engaged in one or the other.

Moreover, Torres and associates found that managers with higher levels of ambidexterity (exploitation and exploration behaviors) tended to have better short-term and long-term performance. In their experiment, the results indicated that managers with higher ambidexterity made decisions that led to superior short-term financial results by exploiting current resources and master new strategies to avoid a potential business bankruptcy (long-term performance).

Research Setting

In this dissertation, I contend that leaders can devise strategies to increase an employee's ambidexterity and motivate an employee to engage in exploitative and explorative behaviors. Specifically, I draw insights from motivating language theory to propose that the leader's use of motivating language can foster such behaviors. The following section presents an overview of the motivating language research.

Motivating Language Theory

Originally referred to as motivational language by its founder Dr. Jeremiah Sullivan (1988), motivating language (ML) is a linguistics framework that describes the speech communication used by managers to motivate employees effectively (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018; J. Mayfield et al., 2015; Sullivan, 1988). Sullivan (1988) asserted that although leaders' speech can influence employee motivational states, most managers do not take advantage of this

to use the full range of language strategically. This, in turn, could limit the motivational potential of their spoken words. His assertions, rooted in theories of motivation, leadership, organizational behavior, and communication (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018; M. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2016), led to Motivational Language Theory (MLT) which states that encompassing three types of leader talk: direction-giving, meaning-making, and empathetic language is an effective way to motivate employees.

Most often used by organizations, direction-giving is the key to getting things done effectively and efficiently. This form of speech brings transparency to the work by articulating all the crucial information that is necessary to perform one's job. Direction-giving language elucidates one's goals, such as the time, quality, and process requirements for the work, as well as the rewards that are associated when the goals are met. In addition, direction-giving language includes task feedback. When task feedback is given constructively, it has the potential to enhance the employee's learning, self-efficacy, and performance. An example of direction-giving language happens when a supervisor details an assignment to an employee including how it helps the firm to reach its goals, what a completed assignment includes, how the results will be measured, firm policies that should be adhered to for assignment fulfillment, preferable and acceptable deadlines for assignment delivery, and reward contingencies (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018). Finally, at assignment completion, the manager would offer coaching and constructive feedback as to how the work was performed.

The second dimension of ML, meaning-making language, aligns an employee's personal goals with a higher purpose through work (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018). This form of speech communicates to the employee that his/her skillsets are distinctly appreciated and helps to guide that person's talents towards organizational contribution. In doing so, the manager not only

communicates a picture of the organization's value, vision, and cultural norms, but also relays to their workers that their work contributes the bigger picture. Meaning-making language is often informal and conveyed through stories or metaphors. An example of this type of language usage could be a manager speaking of how even the President of the company attends training sessions held by the firm. This message to the employee would imply that learning and skill development is valued by the organization, and relay information to the employee that the firm strives to be a 'learning organization' and that participation at these training events are paramount to the firm success.

Empathetic language, the last dimension of ML, conveys support and compassion for an employee to relay genuine care for an employee's well-being (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018). It represents the manager's ability to gain an employee's perspective and emotionally connect with the individual. Through empathetic language, a manager can bond with a worker in various circumstances. Some examples include congratulating an employee when he/she performs a challenging task, or in a negative situation, such as giving reassurance to the employee when setbacks or delays occur on a task project. The scope of empathetic language is not limited to job events. It can include words of support, compassion, or shared happiness for personal life events. For example, words of heartfelt concern for an individual's family tragedy. Another type pf empathetic message would be to congratulate an employee on their child's acceptance into college. A visual depiction of the three dimensions discussed in ML is presented in Figure 2.1.

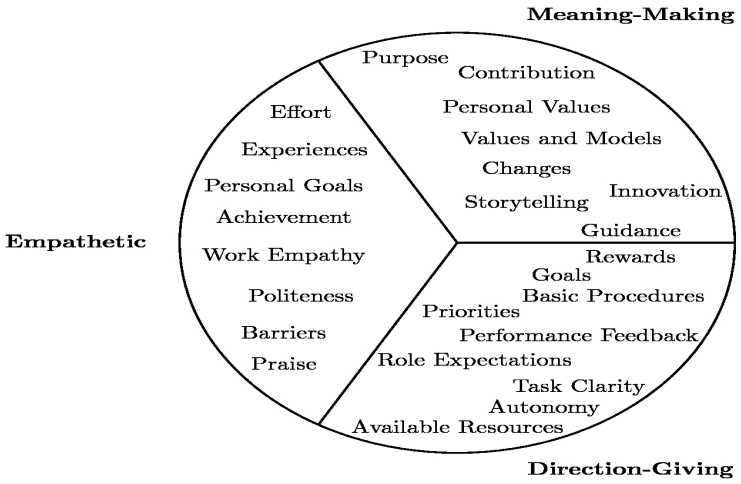
MLT Assumptions

For optimal effect, MLT relies on four basic underlying assumptions. First, the leader must match their words with their actions- they must 'walk the talk'. The leader's credibility comes from the actions that reflect their spoken messages. In cases of incongruity, employees

tend to interpret leader speech within a behavioral context and rely on actions in lieu of words (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018). Therefore, any discrepancy between the leader's talk and his/her actions, the talk will be considered 'cheap talk', and employees will instead emulate the leader's behavior rather than following the spoken directions (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018). The leader's capability to 'walk the talk' requires the embodiment of both speech and actions, because together, they represent the leader's intentions (Holmes, 2013; Holmes & Parker, 2017). This assertion is empirically supported in a recent study of educational leadership (Holmes & Parker, 2017). Specifically, Holmes and Parker (2017) found results indicating that behavioral integrity and credibility are required for ML to occur.

Figure 2.1

Motivating Language Model



Second, motivating language covers most of leader-to-follower work-related verbal communication. While other motivational speech models focus solely on direction-giving language and assumes that one's only need is to understand the current information and informed

of new directions, motivation language acknowledges that the leader's role is more complex. According to motivating language theory, a leader must not only reduce any uncertainties by providing information, but he/she must also make meaning out of the workplace and make better connections with his/her followers by showing empathy.

Third, even though the scope of ML is limited to leader talk, followers must accurately interpret the intended ML messages. In other words, the follower must correctly understand what message the leader is trying to convey. The responsibility rests on both parties to ensure that the messages are clearly interpreted to make progress and reach organizational goals. The leader's responsibility is to inquire whether the message is conveyed, but at the same time, the followers must make sure that the information is well understood. Most communication issues arise from inaccuracies and misunderstanding between the two parties; however, these can be eliminated if the leader receives feedback from the followers (Robbins, Cenzo, & Coulter, 2015). Lastly, the three dimensions of ML must be integrated to achieve optimal results. Holmes (2012) emphasized that the three dimensions (direction-giving, meaning-making, and empathetic language) should be used in coordination and strategically integrated to create synergy.

MLT Empirical Evidence

J. Mayfield and associates (1995) made great strides into advancing MLT by developing a scale to quantitatively capture the three dimensions of motivating language. This scale allowed scholars to empirically test motivating language. Studies in this area have documented that the leader's use of ML can significantly increase an employee's job satisfaction (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2006, 2010; J. R. Mayfield, Mayfield, & Kopf, 1998; Sharbrough, Simmons, & Cantrill, 2006), team performance (Wang, Fan, Hsieh, & Menefee, 2009), employee performance (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2006, 2010; J. R. Mayfield et al., 1998), innovation (M. Mayfield &

Mayfield, 2004), intent to stay (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2007), absenteeism (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009), and communication satisfaction (Majovski, 2016; Sharbrough et al., 2006). Additionally, there have been some studies that have adapted the motivating language scale for samples outside of the U.S. to address cultural differences in motivation. Luca and Gray (2004), for instance, tested the scale and validated it using an Australian sample. In another study, Krause (2013) collected data from workers in Singapore and her findings indicate that the manager's use of motivating language is positively and significantly linked to the employees' organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intentions to stay. Similarly, Kuo (2009) found that motivating language can have an impact on Chinese workers' communication satisfaction and creative performance.

Despite some existing investigations of motivating language outside of the U.S., several scholars have recognized the limitations of generalizing the theory. For example, Mayfield and Mayfield (2009) stated "more credible and extended generalizability needs to be further explored through future studies… in a globally flat world where communication interdependence is crucial; a cross-national motivating language investigation should be conducted at a future date." (p. 475). Similarly, Wang and associates (2009) suggested that future investigations should try to identify how group leadership may vary across differing cultures since findings may differ with respondents from differing countries. For these reasons, the current study collects data from workers in India and Vietnam to compare the findings with those working in the U.S.

Selected Employee Outcomes

The following four sections briefly highlight the relevance of the selected employee outcomes observed in this study. The first three sections discuss the relevance of employee

outcomes that relate to three employee work attitudes: absenteeism, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. The fourth section will outline the importance of analyzing job performance.

Absenteeism

Employee absenteeism exists in nearly every organization operating in countries across the globe (Gosselin, Lemyre, & Corneil, 2013). Absenteeism is an issue that can have negative implications for the firm, as well as the individual employee. For the firm, absenteeism may reduce productivity, workforce morale, and increase operating costs; and for the employee, absenteeism may lead to employment termination, temporary reduction in pay, or disciplinary action (Keller, 2008; Nguyen, Groth, & Johnson, 2016; Peretz, Levi, & Fried, 2015).

There have been several, but similar, definitions of absenteeism provided by the literature. For example, Rogers and Herting (1993) defined absenteeism as a choice made by an individual to be absent from work due to reasons other than illness. Likewise, Martocchio and Jimeno (2003) stated that absenteeism is simply "constitutes a single day of missed work" (p. 230). The general agreement in the literature of the definition of absenteeism seems to be that of Harrison and Price (2003) (Gosselin et al., 2013). Harrison and Price (2003) posits that absenteeism occurs when there is "a lack of physical presence at a behavior setting when and where one is expected to be" (Harrison & Price, 2003, p. 204). This dissertation adapts the definition of Rogers and Herting (1993) to define absenteeism as the employee's attitude toward missing work for reasons other than illness .

Several explanatory theories and adaptations have been proposed to define the scope of absenteeism behavior in the workplace with the most recent research uncovering significant progress in the understanding of this issue (Gosselin et al., 2013). Among the numerous variables explored with absenteeism, there are five that have drawn the most focus by researchers

(Gosselin et al., 2013; Harrison & Price, 2003). "The key absenteeism determinants have been identified as the socio-demographical indicators, personality, workplace behavior, social context, and the decision process itself" (Gosselin et al., 2013, p. 77). However, despite the numerous models that have successfully portrayed absenteeism behavior, many scholars admit that these model's predictive capacity is limited (Gosselin et al., 2013; Harrison & Price, 2003). Therefore, absenteeism is a multifaceted phenomenon which still requires substantial investigation (Halbesleben, Whitman, & Crawford, 2014; Schaumberg & Flynn, 2017). For this reason, this dissertation includes absenteeism into the research.

Turnover Intention

For almost a century, employee turnover has been a fundamental issue in the management and applied psychology literature (Hom, Lee, Shaw, & Hausknecht, 2016). One of the reasons for this is the acknowledgement, by both managers and scholars alike, of the significant financial costs that are associated with this phenomenon (Mamun & Hasan, 2017). For example, Maia Josebachvili, VP of People & Strategy at Greenhouse, conducted a case study and maintained that the retention of a salesperson for an additional year (three years vs. two years), coupled with better onboarding and management practices, yields a difference of $1.3 million in net value to the company over a three-year period (Altman, 2017). In addition, Josh Bersin, a top executive at Deloitte, offers a slightly more conservative estimation. He posited that the cost of a single employee turnover can range from tens of thousands of dollars to 150-200% of that employee's annual salary (Altman, 2017). Moreover, in a recent meta-analysis, Park and Shaw (2013) analyzed 255 manuscripts with a sample of more than 300,000 organizations and units and found that firms with higher turnover rates were typically associated with lower organizational performance. Specifically, their tests revealed that a one standard deviation

increase in turnover rates from 12% to 22% decreases workforce productivity by 40% and financial performance by 26%, respectively. These figures illustrate why employee turnover is a significant issue for firms. Therefore, it is important to include *turnover intention*, a common variable that captures the employee's conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the firm (Tett & Meyer, 1993) in this dissertation.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been defined in several different ways in the literature. For example, Locke (1976) viewed job satisfaction as the pleasurable emotional state resulting from personal appraisal for one's work. Spector (1997) defines job satisfaction as simply "how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs" (p.2). Moreover, Judge, Locke, & Durham, (1997) argued that job satisfaction essentially captures how happy a person is with his/her work. In this dissertation, job satisfaction relates to the employee's positive attitude towards his/her job (Spector, 1997).

According to Spector (1997), job satisfaction is the single most examined variable in organizational behavior research. Job satisfaction is an indicator of one's physical mental/psychological health (Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2005). Job satisfaction can also predict performance, turnover intentions, and attendance (Robbins et al., 2015). Furthermore, employee job satisfaction can serve as a tool to assess the organizations adequacies or inadequacies. Where there is job dissatisfaction, an organization can look for troubled areas that need attention (Spector, 1997). For these reasons, job satisfaction is included in this dissertation's analysis.

Job Performance

Job performance, another widely examined topic in the management literature, refers to a set of activities or an operation that an individual uses to achieve specific organizational goals

(Amiri, Mohammad, & Kazemi, 2010). Because of its popularity, job performance has been adapted and defined in numerous ways. However, Rotundo and Sackett (2002) observed that most definitions examined job performance in terms of actions and behaviors rather than the impact of such actions. Therefore, they argued that it is imperative for researchers to consider the structure underlying the criterion.

Rotundo and Sackett (2002) comprehensively examined over 30 years of literature on job performance and proposed that there are three broad components of job performance: task performance, citizenship performance, and counterproductive performance. First, task performance includes "behaviors that contribute to the production of a good or the provision of a service" (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, pg. 67). Second, citizenship performance relates to behaviors that contribute to organizational goals "by contributing to its social and psychological environment" (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, pg. 69). The last, counterproductive performance refers to the voluntary behaviors that hurts the firm's well-being (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002).

Taken together, the literature indicates that higher job performance can have positive consequences for both the individual employee, as well as the organization. For the employee, excelling at work can result in higher job satisfaction and self-efficacy, along with tangible and intangible benefits such as recognition, promotions, and better career opportunities (Sonnentag, Binnewies, & Mojza, 2008). For the organization, data have indicated that high-performing employees can enhance firm effectiveness (Hartog & Verburg, 2004) and firm financial performance (Farndale, Scullion, & Sparrow, 2010; Kwon & Rupp, 2013). Therefore, job performance is an important variable that needs to be examined in this dissertation.

Culture

There exists several influential cultural typologies and measurements literature, including

Hall (1959, 1969), Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1973) , Hofstede (1980a) , and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997). Of these, Hofstede's (1980a, 1980b, 2001) five-dimensional metric of culture has been overwhelmingly dominant (Yoo, Donthu, & Lenartowics, 2011). Culture is defined by Hofstede as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (Hofstede, 2001, p. 14). According to him, *power distance* is "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede, 1980b, p. 45). *Uncertainty avoidance* is "the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations" (Hofstede, 1980b, p. 45). Individualism "pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family" (Hofstede, 1980b, p. 45). *Masculinity* represents "the dominant male sex role pattern in the vast majority of both traditional and modern societies" (Hofstede, 1980b, p. 45). *Long-term orientation* refers to long-term versus short-term orientation with regards to the future. Cultures with a more long-term orientation are more pragmatic; they encourage thrift and perseverance in preparing for the future. In contrast, cultures with a more short-term orientation have values that are characterized by respect for tradition and view societal change with suspicion (Hofstede, 2001).

Hofstede's five dimensions of culture are used in this dissertation as a cultural manipulation check in order to assess whether the sample collected from India, the U.S., and Vietnam consist of different populations and whether each of those samples is representative of its country.

CHAPTER III

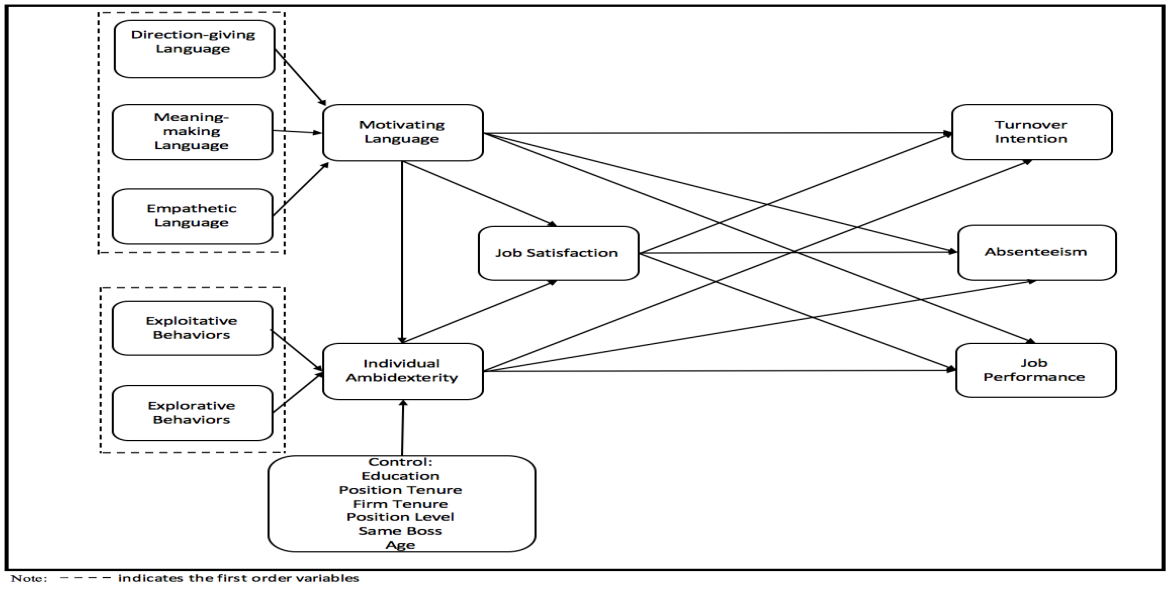
HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Overview

Figure 3.1 depicts the conceptual model to be tested in this dissertation for three countries: India, the United States, and Vietnam. This model draws on insights from the ambidexterity research and MLT. The proceeding sections will discuss the hypotheses for this model.

Figure 3.1

Conceptual Model



Motivating Language and Individual Ambidexterity

Motivation has been identified in various studies as being a key psychological determinant of worker behavior (Caniëls et al., 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, Pelletier, & Villeneuve, 2009). Equally important, strategic communication can be influential in driving employee motivation and performance (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018;

Sullivan, 1988). MLT provides insights about how leader's conscious application of speech can influence employee behavior (e.g., M. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2004). Thus, this dissertation draws from MLT to propose that managerial use of motivating language and its three dimensions of speech can foster employees' individual ambidexterity is several ways.

First, the manager's use of direction-giving language can help develop individual exploitative behaviors. Direction-giving language promotes routine tasks by articulating how to effectively and efficiently do things the right way and bringing informational transparency to the work (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018). When managers use direction-giving language, they can reduce role ambiguity, clarify expectations and contingencies, and explain the procedures that can be taken to accomplish the task. With such clear information, the employee can focus his or her existing knowledge in order to perform the work. Direction-giving language also includes coaching and constructive task feedback which can promote learning and knowledge refinement (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018). With use direction-giving language, managers can give negative feedback in constructive ways to target specific behaviors and offer attainable steps for improvements (Robbins & Hunsaker, 2012). Competent managerial use of ML can expedite constructive feedback to their employees and focus on relaying information about the available resources that the firm offers, such as mentors or training, for the employee to hone their existing knowledge for better job performance in the future (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018).

Second, MLT suggests that empathetic language can encourage employees to take risks which can promote explorative behaviors. With use of empathetic language, the manager can send messages of civility, empathy, and compassion for any work scenarios (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018). These messages can show the employee that they are supported in both positive and negative work situations. In positive situations, such as when an individual successfully

overcomes a difficult challenge, managers can provide accolades. For negative scenarios, such as setbacks in projects or tasks, managerial use of ML can provide reassurance and support. These perceptions of such support can build trust between the employees and the managers, which can foster risk-taking and experimentation (Neves & Eisenberger, 2014).

Third, meaning-making language encourages employees to develop unique skills and approaches to problem-solving (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018), which can foster their explorative behaviors. Meaning-making language is a tool that aligns the employee's personal goals with organizational goals. Mean-making language spurs 'garden variety creativity', or new and innovative ways to perform often routine jobs (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018). Managers utilizing meaning-making language can visibly credit their employee for specific creative initiatives that contributes to advancing organizational goals (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018). Previous studies have supported these assertions, consistently linking ML to higher innovation and creativity performance (M. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2004, 2017; Wang et al., 2009). M. Mayfield and Mayfield (2004), for instance, found that, for every 10% increase in ML use, there is a 2.7% increase in employee innovation. When employees are more creative and innovative, they are more likely to think 'outside of the box' to experiment and find unconventional means to carry out their tasks or find alternative solutions to solve problems (Good & Michel, 2013; Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016; Keller & Weibler, 2015; Mom et al., 2007).

ML can be a useful strategy that managers can utilize to motivate and cultivate their employees' behaviors. With the proper use of direction-giving language, empathetic language, and meaning-making language, the manager can foster their employees' ambidexterity in the workplace. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is made:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant and positive relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and the employees' individual ambidexterity.

Individual Ambidexterity and Selected Employee Outcomes

The dissertation posits that IA can have favorable outcomes for the employees, including lower turnover intentions, lower absenteeism, higher job satisfaction and higher job performance. The following paragraphs will discuss and make arguments for each assertion.

First, an employee with higher levels of IA is less likely to exhibit absent behaviors. Ambidexterity requires the individual to alternate and/or combine exploitative and explorative behaviors (Mom, Fourné, & Jansen, 2015). This diversity in the work can lead to higher job enrichment (Griffin et al., 2007). With higher levels of job enrichment, even the most mundane job tasks can carry more meaning and be more interesting (Parker, 2014) which can lead to lower employee absenteeism. Thus, this study argues:

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant and negative relationship between the employees' individual ambidexterity and absenteeism.

Second, an individual's ambidexterity can reduce the likelihood of his/her turnover intention for two main reasons. The first reason is that a more ambidextrous individual is typically more flexible (Good & Michel, 2013). The higher level of flexibility means that the employee can adjust to the rapid changes in workplace (Feldman & Pentland, 2003). When a significant change occurs in the organization, the ambidextrous individual is more likely to find a way to adjust instead of giving up and wanting to leave the organization. In addition, an

employee with higher IA tends to feel that they have higher job autonomy (Jasmand et al., 2012; Rogan & Mors, 2014; Sok & O'Cass, 2015). With higher perceptions of job autonomy, the employee feels more in control and freedom in his/her work leading to higher commitment and lower turnover intentions (Dysvik & Kuvass, 2013). Therefore, this dissertation posits:

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant and negative relationship between the employees' individual ambidexterity and turnover intention.

Finally, ambidexterity can act as motivational factors to increase job satisfaction and job performance. First, regarding job satisfaction, ambidextrous individuals can attend to distinct challenging tasks (Griffin et al., 2007) and find different ways to perform the job. These diverse and challenging tasks can provide the employee the opportunity for enactive mastery, which can lead to higher self-efficacy beliefs (Parker, 1998). With higher perceptions of self-efficacy, employees feel that they can take charge of their work environment, giving them a better appreciation of the impact of their work, which can lead to feelings of higher satisfaction with their work (Parker, 2014). Second, with regards to job performance, employees exhibiting IA behaviors in the workplace are more likely to learn and develop for higher performance in the workplace. When the employee exhibits higher IA in the work environment, he/she feels higher job control and higher job complexity (Parker, 2014). With higher job control, it means that it is possible that the employee can choose adequate strategies to deal with his/her work situation, resulting in feedback and learning. Similarly, job complexity can promote learning because, "although work on a challenging task must initially be regulated at the highest intellectual level, with practice the actions become more automatized and can be regulated at lower, less conscious

levels" (Parker, 2014, p. 672). Over time, these skills become routinized, freeing up resources for learning and more skill development. Hence, this research makes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant and positive relationship between the employees' individual ambidexterity and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5: There is a significant and positive relationship between the employees' individual ambidexterity and job performance.

Motivating Language and Selected Employee Outcomes

MLT foundations lie on empirical evidence that have linked it to this dissertation's selected employee outcomes. Although these relationships have been well-established in the literature, examining these relationships can provide: 1) more evidence to the U.S. studies, 2) robustness to the literature with empirical evidence from Indian and Vietnamese participants, and 3) provide a validity check for this dissertation's model. The existing evidence between ML and the four selected outcomes are briefly discussed in the following paragraphs.

There have been relatively few studies studying the ML-absenteeism relationship (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018). From an extensive review of the literature, J Mayfield and Mayfield found only two papers testing this relationship. The studies testing this relationship in the U.S.(Krause, 2013; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009) have found significant negative relationships, however, there were no meaningful relationships found on the Singaporean sample (Krause, 2013). For the U.S results, the effect sizes between the two variables places its strength at the 50th percentile in organizational behavior and human resource management. J. Mayfield

and Mayfield (2018) found that an employee receiving high ML from his/her manager has a 62% percent chance of exhibiting less absent behaviors relative to an employee receiving low ML communications. Moreover, they found that when a manager uses high ML with his/her employee, the employee will have high absenteeism only 39% of the time compared to 61% of the time with low ML use.

Turnover intention has typically been studied with two complementary variables. Intent-to-stay measures the likelihood that an individual remains with the organization, whereas intent-to-turnover measures the likelihood that one leaves. J. Mayfield and Mayfield (2018) uncovered three studies linking ML to turnover intention. They found that the median relationship among the studies showed a strength that puts it in the 60th percentile of organizational behavior and human resource investigations. They also found that an employee receiving high ML communications from their manager has a 65% chance of having stronger intent-to-stay compared to an employee receiving lower ML communications.

The relationship between ML and job satisfaction has been extensively studied. From a thorough review of the literature, J Mayfield and Mayfield (2018) uncovered twelve studies examining this relationship. They found that all studies showed a positive and fairly strong relationship between the two variables, ranging from 0.35 to 0.65. Combined, J. Mayfield and Mayfield (2018) found results indicating that an individual receiving high ML communications is 70% more likely to be satisfied with his/her job relative to an individual receiving low ML communications.

ML and its relationship with job performance has been largely stable across different contexts and measures (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018). J. Mayfield and Mayfield (2018) combined the existing empirical investigations to uncover some interesting insights. First, they

found that the probability superior score is 60%. This is interpreted to show that a randomly selected individual receiving high-ML communications is 60% more likely to have higher job performance than a randomly selected individual receiving low-ML communications. Second, they found that the relationship between ML and job performance is higher than 40% of other tested relationships in the organizational behavior and human resource literatures. Finally, their results showed that 59% of people receiving high ML communications have high performance ratings compared to the 41% of people receiving low ML communications.

Taken together, this dissertation makes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6: There is a significant and negative relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and employees' absenteeism.

Hypothesis 7: There is a significant and negative relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and employees' turnover intention.

Hypothesis 8: There is a significant and positive relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and employees' job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 9: There is a significant and positive relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and employees' job performance.

Linking Job Satisfaction to Absenteeism, Turnover, and Performance

Overall job satisfaction measures have been argued as "the most informative data a

manager or researcher can have for predicting employee behavior" (Roznowski & Hulin, 1992, p. 26). For example, studies show that employee job satisfaction is negatively related to absenteeism (Scott & Taylor, 1985). "A frequent explanation for this inverse relationship is a hedonistic calculus: employees will withdraw, or be absent, from a work situation that is painful and dissatisfying (Scott & Taylor, 1985, p. 599). In support of this assertation, a meta-analysis (Scott & Taylor, 1985) found a negative medium effect correlation (Cohen, 1988) between employee satisfaction and absent behaviors. In addition, the investigations have found that employees' job satisfaction is inversely related to turnover intentions (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 2003; Mobley, 1977). Employees who derive pleasure from their work are more likely to be more committed to their organizations (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 2003; Schwepker Jr, 2001). These employees presumably want to maintain membership in the firm and exert energy on the firm's behalf (Schwepker Jr, 2001). Therefore, they are less likely to want to leave their organization. Hence:

Hypothesis 10: There is a negative and significant relationship between employees' job satisfaction and absenteeism.

Hypothesis 11: There is a negative and significant relationship between employees' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Although there is strong evidence for the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001), a debate still remains about the causal direction of the relationship. The argument that job satisfaction is an antecedent of job

performance is attributed to the human relations movement (Judge et al., 2001). As G. Strauss (1968) commented, "Early human relationists viewed the morale-productivity relationship quite simply: higher morale would lead to improved productivity" (Strauss, 1968, p. 264). "The premise that attitudes lead to behavior is a prominent theme in the literature, and most attitude researchers assume that attitudes carry with them behavioral implications" (Judge et al., 2001, p. 378). Eagly and Chaiken (1993) concluded, "In general, people who evaluate an attitude object favorably tend to engage in behaviors that foster or support it, and people who evaluate an attitude object unfavorably tend to engage in behaviors that hinder or oppose it (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 12). Following this rationality, positive attitudes toward the job (i.e. job satisfaction) should be associated positive behaviors on the job (i.e. job performance). Thus,

Hypothesis 12: There is a positive and significant relationship between employees' job satisfaction and job performance.

National Differences

This study hypothesizes that the results may be different for the U.S. versus both India and Vietnam for several reasons. First, Western educational systems, such as the U.S., urge their students to debate with their instructors and think critically, whereas Eastern educational systems (i.e. India and Vietnam) teach students to submit to the authority of their teachers (Chuwei, 2017). This can impact the extent to which an individual pursues exploitation and exploration behaviors. Second, cultural differences may impact ambidexterity differently. For example, people from individualistic cultures tend to value job complexity and job autonomy more so than people from collectivistic cultures (Man & Lam, 2003). As such, employees from individualistic

cultures (i.e. the U.S.) may be more motivated with work that involves higher task variety (i.e. engaging in both exploration and exploitation) compared to countries from collectivistic cultures. Finally, economic differences between a developed country such as the U.S., and a developing country such as India or Vietnam might impact the employees' work attitudes and behaviors. Therefore,

Hypothesis 13: There are significant differences for the results between the U.S. and India.

Hypothesis 14: There are significant differences for the results between the U.S. and Vietnam.

Hypothesis 15: There are no significant differences for the results between India and Vietnam.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Overview

The hypotheses presented in the previous chapter are depicted by the research model in Figure 4.1. A summary of the hypotheses is presented in Table 4.1.

Figure 4.1

Research Model and Hypotheses

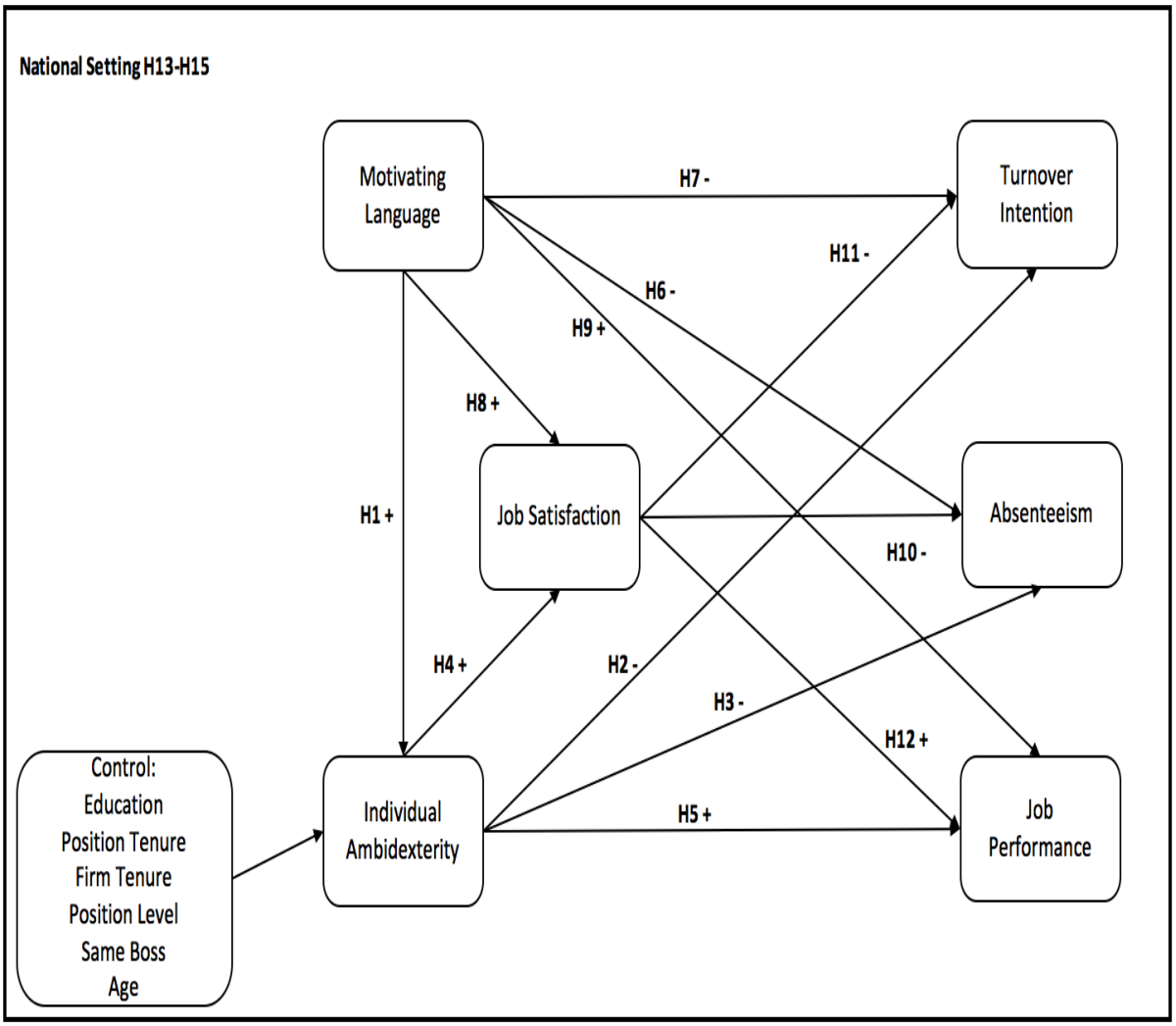


Table 4.1

Summary of Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1	There is a significant and positive relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and the employees' individual ambidexterity.
Hypothesis 2	There is a significant and negative relationship between the employees' individual ambidexterity and absenteeism.
Hypothesis 3	There is a significant and negative relationship between the employees' individual ambidexterity and turnover intention.
Hypothesis 4	There is a significant and positive relationship between the employees' individual ambidexterity and job satisfaction.
Hypothesis 5	There is a significant and positive relationship between the employees' individual ambidexterity and job performance.
Hypothesis 6	There is a significant and negative relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and employees' absenteeism.
Hypothesis 7	There is a significant and negative relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and employees' turnover intention.
Hypothesis 8	There is a significant and positive relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and employees' job satisfaction.
Hypothesis 9	There is a significant and positive relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and employees' job performance.
Hypothesis 10	There is a significant and negative relationship between employees' job satisfaction and absenteeism.

Table 4.1 Continued

Hypothesis 11	There is a significant and negative relationship between employees' job satisfaction and turnover intention.
Hypothesis 12	There is a significant and positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and job performance.
Hypothesis 13	There are significant differences for the results between the U.S. and India.
Hypothesis 14	There are significant differences for the results between the U.S. and Vietnam.
Hypothesis 15	There are no significant differences for the results between India and Vietnam.

In order to test the hypotheses, this investigation follows a traditional survey-based approach to collect data. A survey instrument comprising of questions adopted from existing and validated scales to measure each of the variables is administered to individuals. The data is then analyzed using a partial least squares structural equation model (PLS-SEM). The following sections highlight this dissertation's research methods, including the measurements of the variables, the data collection process, the survey translation from English to Vietnamese, the cultural manipulation check, and a discussion on the PLS-SEM technique.

Measurements

All of the independent and dependent variables in this dissertation are operationalized as reflective latent variables to minimize measurement error from perceptual statements and to reduce collinearity (Gefen, Straub, & Boudreau, 2000; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). All latent

variables were modeled as reflective except for motivating language and individual ambidexterity. In addition, motivating language and individual ambidexterity second-order latent reflective variables. The following sections will briefly discuss the measurements, scales, and some items that comprises each of the latent variables.

Individual Ambidexterity

This study adopts the scales that Mom and colleagues (2009) developed to measure the individual exploitation and exploration behaviors. A total of 14 items (seven each) was used to ascertain the extent to which an individual engaged in work-related activities that is characterized as exploitative or explorative (e.g., Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016; Li et al., 2015; Mom et al., 2009; Torres et al., 2015). A seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = to a very small extent, 2 = to a small extent, 3 = to a slightly below average extent, 4 = to an average extent, 5 = to a slightly above average extent, 6 = to a large extent, to 7 = to a very large extent was used for the individual ambidexterity indicator scale. A sample of exploitative behaviors include “Activities which you carry out as if it were routine”, “Activities of which it is clear to you how to conduct them”, and “Activities primarily focused on achieving short-term goals”. Some of the statements used to measure explorative behaviors include “Searching for new possibilities with respect to my work”, “Evaluating diverse options with respect to my work”, and “Activities requiring you to learn new skills or knowledge”. Individual ambidexterity was operationalized as a second-order latent variable comprising of exploitative and explorative behaviors (Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016; Li et al., 2015; Mom et al., 2009; Torres et al., 2015). The scale for IA can be found in Appendix A (in English) and Appendix B (in Vietnamese).

Motivating Language

Motivating language was measured using Mayfield and colleagues’ (1995) motivating

language scale. The scale, outlined in Appendix A (English version) and Appendix B (Vietnamese version), is comprised of subscales that include how often the individual's supervisor uses direction-giving language, meaning-making language, and empathetic language. The indicators were measured on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = very seldom to 5 = always.

Selected Employee Outcomes

Turnover intention is measured with a five-item scale developed by Bozeman and Perrewe (2001). This scale, found in Appendix A (in English) and Appendix B (in Vietnamese), uses a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. *Absenteeism* is measured using an existing *attitude toward absenteeism* scale (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009). This scale uses a ten-item scale developed by J. Mayfield & Mayfield (2009). *Job satisfaction* is operationalized with a five-item scale developed by Hackman and Oldman (1974). Absenteeism and Job satisfaction are also measured on a five-point Likert scale, ranging 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. *Job performance* is measured with a nine-item scale developed by Mayfield & Mayfield (2006). This scale was an adaptation of Mott's team performance measurement (Mott, 1972), and it has been shown to have high correlations with multiple performance measures. This scale uses a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = Below average to 7 = Excellent, to ascertain an individual's performance relative to his or her co-worker's performance. These scales can be found in Appendix A (in English) and Appendix B (in Vietnamese)

Control Variables

This study controlled for employee age because several scholars have found that age is negatively related to ambidexterity (Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016; Mom et al., 2009). This paper

also included control variables for tenure (years) with the firm and years under the same manager because experience may influence ambidexterity as increased levels of experience are associated with the employee's increased ability to interpret and deal with more ambiguous cues (Mom et al., 2009). In addition, because performing the same job for an extended time may be associated with lower levels of creativity (March, 1991), this dissertation controlled for position tenure in years. Several researchers have also shown that increasing levels of education can positively impact an individual's cognitive ability to process information and learning which can relate to his or her ambidexterity (Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016; T. Keller & Weibler, 2015; Mom et al., 2007). Thus, education effects were controlled using a five-point measure (high school, associate's degree, bachelor's degree, master's degree, and doctorate's). Furthermore, workers who are higher in the firm's hierarchy may experience greater pressure and higher autonomy to exhibit ambidexterity (Mom et al., 2009), which is why a measure of hierarchical level (associate/worker, team supervisor, middle manager, top management) was also included. These items can be found in English in Appendix A and Vietnamese in Appendix B.

Data Collection

Participants for this dissertation were drawn from the Mechanical Turk web site. This website provides a mechanism for posting job assignments. The postings can be completed by individuals across the world for a specified amount of compensation. This potential respondent pool is a useful method of recruiting participants for experiments or psychological surveys (Nguyen, Mayfield, & Mayfield, 2015). Huff and Tingley (2014) investigated the demographic characteristics of U.S. Mechanical Turk workers and found that these respondents' characteristics were consistent with the work characteristics of the general U.S. working population. In addition, several researchers (e.g., Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011) have

verified that the Mechanical Turk responses are generalizable to the population. Moreover, Peer and colleagues found that the worker reputation feedback mechanism instituted on the Mechanical Turk website provided a strong motivation for respondents to conscientious and accurate answers in research settings (Peer, Vosgerau, & Acquisti, 2014).

Respondents were recruited by posting a solicitation for workers in three countries: India, the United States, and Vietnam. Respondents were provided a monetary incentive of US$0.50 for survey completion about their workplace environment. The average completion times were 18 minutes for Indian respondents, 16 minutes for respondents from the U.S.A, and 19 minutes for Vietnamese respondents. The recruitment and completion process took place over seven days, from 20 June 2018 to 27 June 2018. The solicitation was for 200 respondents from each country. However, 201 people completed the survey for the Indian sample, 206 for the U.S.A sample, and 207 for the Vietnamese sample, respectively. Table 4.2 summarizes the characteristics of the respondents by each country.

Indian Sample

Respondents from India consisted of 45% females and 55% males. Most of the respondents had some education beyond high school (5.5% with an associate's degree, 58% with a bachelor's degree, 36% with a master's degree). Median respondent age for this sample was 26, with lower and upper quartile ages being 25 and 28 respectively.

Indian respondents had a median of ten years of overall full-time work experience, with a median of three years of work experience for their current employer, and a median of two years of work experience in their current position and with their current manager. For their current work situation, 88% self-classified as full-time workers, 9.5% self-classified as part-time workers, and 2.5% self-classified as temporary/contract workers. Most respondents (54%)

reported that they were working in medium (100 to 1,000 employees), with 35% working in small (less than 100 employees), and 11% working in large (more than 1,000 employees) organizations. Many of these respondents self-classified as having skilled labor (57%), with 37% choosing highly skilled/professional jobs, and 6% choosing unskilled labor as their job classification.

Indian respondents came from various industry sectors, with manufacturing/production representing the largest single sector at 33%. Sales and services were the next largest sectors at 31%, followed by education with 25%. No other sector represented more than 10% of respondents. Within all these sectors 40% of respondents classified themselves as managers, 32% as team supervisors, 26% as associates/workers, and no other category had more than 10% of the respondents.

Table 4.2

Characteristics of Respondents

	India	U.S.	Vietnam
Total Participants	201	206	207
Males	55%	62%	72%
Females	45%	38%	29%
Median Age	26	32	29
Associate's Degree	5.5%	15%	5%
Bachelor's Degree	58%	45%	64%
Master's Degree	36%	22%	30%
Median Full-time Experience	10 years	11.5 years	11 years
Median Position Tenure	2 years	3 years	3 years

Table 4.2 Continued

	India	U.S.	Vietnam
Median Firm Tenure	3 years	4 years	4 years
Median Same Boss	2 years	3 years	3 years
Full-time	88%	84%	86%
Part-time	9.5%	16%	12%
Temporary/Contract	2.5%	10%	2%
Small Organization	35%	25%	32%
Med. Organization	54%	51%	53%
Large Organization	11%	24%	15%
Associates/Workers	26%	43%	26%
Team Supervisors	32%	21%	31%
Middle Managers	40%	31%	41%

U.S. Sample

In the U.S. sample, 38% of the respondents were females while 62% were males. The majority of U.S. respondents had education beyond a high school degree (15% with an associate's degree, 45% with a bachelor's degree, 22% with a master's degree, 15% with a high school degree and 3% with a doctorate's degree). The median age for the U.S. sample was 32, with the lower and upper quartile ages being 27 and 37 respectively. The majority (69%) of respondents classified themselves as White (non-Hispanic), with 11% classifying as Asian/Asian-American, and no other racial category represented more than 10% of the respondents.

U.S. respondents reported a median of 11.5 years of overall full-time work experience, with a median four years of work experience with their current employer and a median of three years of work experience in their current position with their current supervisor. For their present work status, 84% reported to be working full-time, 16% reported working part-time, and 10% self-reported as temporary/contract workers. Most of these respondents (51%) work for medium (100 to 1,000 employees) organizations, with 25% reporting that they work for small (less than 100 employees), and 24% reporting that they work for large (more than 1,000 employees). The greatest number of U.S. respondents self-reported as having highly skilled/professional jobs (55%), with 36% selecting skilled labor, and 9% selecting unskilled labor as their job classification.

U.S. respondents came from several industry sectors, with sales and services representing the largest sector at 34%. Manufacturing/production was the next largest sector at 28%, followed by education at 16% and healthcare at 12%. No other sector amounted for more than 10% of the subjects. Within these sectors, 43% self-classified as associates/workers, 31% as middle-managers, 21% as supervisors, and no other category consisted of more than 10% of U.S. respondents.

Vietnamese Sample

In the Vietnamese sample, males (71%) were a higher proportion of respondents than females (29%). All of the respondents in this sample have earned a degree beyond a high school degree (5% of respondents had an associate's degree, 64% had a bachelor's degree, 30% possessed a master's degree and 1% obtained a doctorate's). Median age of Vietnamese respondents was 29, with lower and upper quartile ages being 26 and 33 respectively.

Respondents from Vietnam had a median of 11 years of overall full-time work experience, with a median of four years of work experience with their current employer, and a median of three years of work experience in their current job role and with their current manager. For their current job situation, 86% reported working full-time, 12% reported part-time, and 2% reported working as temporary/contract workers. Regarding the size of the organization that they work for, 53% of respondents work in medium (100-1,000 employees), 32% work in small (less than 100 employees), and 15% work in large (more than 1,000 employees) organizations. The majority of respondents reported as having either highly-skilled/professional jobs (48%) or skilled labor (48%) as their job classification.

These respondents came from various industry sectors, with sales and services representing the largest sector at 34%. Education was the next largest industry sector at 17% and healthcare making up 11% of Vietnamese respondents. Within all of these sectors, 41% of respondents self-classified as middle-managers, 31% as team supervisors, 26% as associates/workers, and no other category made up more than 10% of the subjects.

Survey Translation

A standard back-translation process consistent with the recommendations of Brislin and Triandis (1980) to administer the survey for the respondents from Vietnam was used for this study. The instrument was first translated from English to Vietnamese by the researcher, a Vietnamese-American fluent in both languages. In addition, a second fluent English and Vietnamese speaker, a college provost at a college in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, back-translated the survey from Vietnamese to English. The two versions were compared and discussed to minimize any significant changes in translations. No major alterations in meanings were found between the two versions. In order to validate this, a third person, fluent in English

and Vietnamese, currently an assistant professor in English at a university in South Vietnam analyzed whether there was any loss of meaning as a result of the translation or the back translation. She confirmed that both versions of the survey still hold the same meaning.

Manipulation Check

It is important to run a manipulation check in order to assess whether the data collected from the respondents from each sample is a good representation of their respective countries. In order to do this, this dissertation first compared Hofstede's (2001) cultural scores to find the cultural dimension with large difference for each of the country pairs: 1) the U.S. versus India (see Table 4.3), 2) the U.S. versus Vietnam (see Table 4.4), and 3) India versus Vietnam (see Table 4.5).

With regards to Table 4.3, three of the dimensions show the most variance when comparing the cultural scores of the U.S. vs. India: power distance (difference of 37), individualism (difference of 43), and long-term orientation (difference of 35).

The most significant variance between the U.S. and Vietnam (shown in Table 4.4) is the individualism score (71), followed by long-term orientation (31) and power distance (30). The largest difference in cultural scores for India and Vietnam (shown in Table 4.5) is individualism, which is 28. This is followed by masculinity and uncertainty avoidance, which resulted a difference of 16 and 10, respectively.

Table 4.3

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions: U.S. vs. India

	Power Distance	Uncertainty Avoidance	Individualism	Masculinity	Long-term Orientation
U.S.	40	46	91	62	26
India	77	40	48	56	61

Table 4.3 Continued

	Power Distance	Uncertainty Avoidance	Individualism	Masculinity	Long-term Orientation
Difference	37	6	43	6	35

Table 4.4

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions: U.S. vs. Vietnam

	Power Distance	Uncertainty Avoidance	Individualism	Masculinity	Long-term Orientation
U.S.	40	46	91	62	26
Vietnam	70	30	20	40	57
Difference	30	16	71	22	31

Table 4.5

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions: India vs. Vietnam

	Power Distance	Uncertainty Avoidance	Individualism	Masculinity	Long-term Orientation
India	77	40	48	56	61
Vietnam	70	30	20	40	57
Difference	7	10	28	16	4

The questionnaire included three items (see Appendixes A and B) adopted from Hofstede's (1980b, 1993) individualism measure in order to run the cultural manipulation check. Tan, Wei, Watson, Clapper, & McLean (1998) suggested that researchers can use one dimension to compare the cultural differences between countries. In addition, the largest difference between the three pairs of countries is individualism. Therefore, this cultural dimension is selected to perform a test of differences for each of the country pairs.

A cultural manipulation check is assessed in WarpPLS 6.0 where a country dummy variable is pointed at the individualism latent variable. Betas with significance suggest that there

is a statistically significant difference in cultural variability between the two countries. This indicates that the respondents in each sample are representative of their respective countries.

Table 4.6

Cultural Manipulation Check

Individualism	Beta	P-Value
U.S. vs. India	-0.26	0.04
U.S. vs. Vietnam	-0.34	0.01
India vs. Vietnam	-0.18	0.05

The results for the three analyses (presented in Table 4.6) show that each of the pairs of countries are statistically different (U.S vs. India, $\rho = 0.04$; U.S. vs. Vietnam, $\rho = 0.01$; and India vs. Vietnam, $\rho = 0.05$). This suggests that each these samples represents their respective country. Therefore, the samples are a snapshot of the intended workforce of that country.

Statistical Technique

This dissertation adopts a partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) to test the hypotheses previously developed in Chapter 3. PLS-SEM is appropriate for this dissertation because it has several advantages over other statistical techniques which are crucial given the research demands of this dissertation. Specifically, the suitability of PLS-SEM is considered in light of: 1) the advantages of SEM over first generation statistical techniques such as linear regression and 2) the benefits of PLS techniques relative to covariance-based SEM such as LISREL. These advantages are briefly discussed in the following paragraphs.

The main purpose of structural equation modeling (SEM is to validate a theoretical model by examining if the data collected fits the predictions (Dion, 2008). SEM is considered the second-generation data analysis techniques (Bagozzi & Fornell, 1982). Because of this, SEM has

several of advantages. First, unlike first generation techniques such as linear regression or ANOVA, which perform on parameter estimation at a time, SEM allows investigators to test a series of interrelated research objectives in one setting by simultaneously testing two or more relationships among observed and/or unobserved latent variables (Shook, Ketchen, & Hult, 2004). Therefore, SEM becomes preferable over the others when researchers need to examine a set of relationships where a dependent variable in one relationship becomes an independent variable in another, within the same analysis (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Because of this feature, SEM is more suitable for modeling complex relationships.

The second advantage is that unlike first generation techniques, SEM can analyze both observed and unobserved variables, also referred to as latent variables (Gefen et al., 2000). This is important because latent variables are prevalent in organizational and management research and a significant number of constructs that are analyzed are latent variables. In SEM models, these variables are measured through manifest variables or indicators.

The third advantage is that SEM analysis generally produces more valid parameter estimations because it controls for measurement error (Dion, 2008). Both structural and measurement model are evaluated in a typical SEM analysis. Structural models include theorized relationships among unobserved constructs, or latent variables, while measurement models represent the loadings of the observed variables, or indicators, on their expected latent variables. Parameters are calculated for latent variables meaning that measurement errors are not included in the path coefficients. Thus, the combined analysis of structural and measurement models is considered by many researchers to be more rigorous than many other tools. The fourth advantage is that SEM has the ability to handle multicollinearity (Gefen et al., 2000). Multicollinearity is a major issue in liner regression and therefore, it needs to be properly addressed before a

regression analysis can be meaningfully conducted. SEM addresses this issue by including the predictor variables into the structural model.

In conclusion, SEM is a statistical technique that allows its users to model complex relationships that include latent variables and derive reliable parameter estimation. This dissertation examines the variables and relationships previously illustrated in Figure 3, which contains several latent variables and complex relationships. Therefore, SEM is an appropriate technique for this study.

Researchers who plan to use SEM to test their conceptual models must then decide which specific type of SEM is appropriate for their analysis. There are two major types of SEM techniques: covariance-based techniques (CB-SEM; e.g., LISREL) and variance-based partial least squares (PLS-SEM). Although both techniques share the same statistical root (Jöreskog & OA, 1982), their methodological features vary significantly which would have to be accounted for when researchers decide which one to choose (Hulland, 1999).

The differences between CB-SEM and PLS-SEM include: a) usage objective (theory validation vs. theory exploration); b) data types (metric vs. both metric vs. non-metric); c) construct types (reflective only vs. both reflective and formative); d) construct item quantity (minimum 3 and above vs. single item) and e) sample size (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012; Hulland, 1999; Sosik, Kahai, & Piovoso, 2009). In simple terms, PLS-SEM is more relaxed on its requirements on sample size, data distribution, and data type relative to CB-SEM.

Organizational and management scholars have traditionally focused on CB-SEM (Hulland, 1999). However, increasingly, PLS-SEM appears to be accepted by a growing number or scholars with the recognition that its unique methodological can make it a suitable alternative

to the CB-SEM approach (Sosik et al., 2009). This study chooses PLS-SEM to test the hypotheses because of the relaxed requirements on sample and data distribution.

This dissertation uses WarpPLS 6.0 (Kock, 2017) to analyze the data. WarpPLS 6.0 is a statistical program dedicated to PLS-SEM. Previous studies have shown that this program is capable of analyzing a variety of PLS models and producing reliable results (Kock, 2013; Kock, Jung, & Syn, 2016).

CHAPTER V

DATA ANALYSES

Descriptive Statistics

Tables 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3 depict the correlations and descriptive statistics of the research and control variables for India, the U.S., and Vietnam, respectively. Detailed correlations matrixes for the retained indicators of each latent variable used in the study can be found in Appendix C.

These tables also present the variables' means and standard deviations for each of the country analyzed in the study. Calculated means indicate that respondents from the U.S. report higher absenteeism (3.78) than respondents from India (3.40) and Vietnam (2.66). With regards to turnover intentions, respondents from India scored the highest (3.46), followed by respondents from the U.S. (3.13) and Vietnam (2.98). Vietnamese workers reported the highest job satisfaction (3.54) and the highest ambidexterity (4.52), while U.S. respondents scored the lowest in both these categories (job satisfaction = 3.39, ambidexterity = 4.45). Finally, Indian respondents reported the highest job performance (3.86) and receiving the strongest motivating language from their managers (3.51).

The average age of respondents in India is about 27, which is younger than the average respondent in both the U.S. (about 34) and Vietnam (about 31). In addition, U.S. respondents varied more in age (standard deviation = 10.88) compared to both India (standard deviation = 4.82) and Vietnam (standard deviation = 7.40)

Calculated means for tenure with same boss, position tenure, and firm tenure indicate that the respondents understood and differentiated between these questions. In all three samples, the tenure with same boss is less than or equal to the job position tenure, and the job position tenure

is less than or equal to the firm tenure. This suggests validity for these control variables across the samples as respondents logically answered that they had worked for the same boss for less than or equal to the number of years in which they have been in the same position and/or in the same firm. Similarly, the respondents also answered that they have worked in the same position for less than or equal to the number of years that they have been employed at that firm.

Measurement Model Assessment

The measurement model was tested with WarpPLS 6.0 (Kock, 2017) using confirmatory factor analysis and related techniques to examine if the latent variables have satisfactory reliability and validity. In addition, WarpPLS 6.0 provided several ratios are calculated to assess the reliability, validity, collinearity, common method bias, and predictive validity.

First, a confirmatory factor analysis was used to establish whether the latent variables passed acceptable measures for discriminant and convergent validity. According to Hair and colleagues (1987), the loading of all indicators should be at least 0.50 on their hypothesized component as well as show significance at the $\rho < .05$ level (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Sujan, Weitz, & Kumar, 1994). Three indicators of absenteeism did not load properly (>0.50) in the samples in India and the U.S.; therefore, they were removed. In the sample from Vietnam, one turnover intention indicator, five absenteeism indicators and two job satisfaction indicators did not load properly; these items were also removed. All of the standardized factor loadings included in this investigation were significant at the $\rho < .001$ level. The loadings, as shown in Tables 5.4, 5.5, and 5.6 indicate that the instrument has acceptable convergent validity (Hair et al., 2012)

Tables 5.7, 5.8, and 5.9 show the results of the discriminant validity test. This purpose of

Table 5.1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for India

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Mot. Language	3.51	1.04												
2. Ambidexterity	4.47	1.60	0.68**											
3. Absenteeism	3.40	1.10	-0.32**	-0.31**										
4. TO Intention	3.46	1.01	-0.54**	-0.49**	0.56**									
5. Satisfaction	3.53	0.96	0.59**	0.53**	0.64**	-0.63**								
6. Performance	3.86	1.06	0.64**	0.63**	0.33**	-0.52**	0.56**							
7. Age	27.26	4.82	0.06	0.10	-0.30**	-0.03	-0.05	0.10						
8. Education	2.94	0.27	0.20	0.26**	0.10	-0.24**	0.25**	0.21*	0.06					
9. Job Level	2.18	0.84	0.00	0.07	0.01	-0.03	0.05	0.06	0.17*	0.05				
10. Job Tenure	2.90	1.97	0.10	0.12	-0.12	-0.01	-0.04	0.11	0.46**	0.07	0.18*			
11. Firm Tenure	2.92	1.96	0.04	0.08	-0.20**	-0.01	-0.07	0.09	0.63**	0.10	0.12*	0.68**		
12. Same Boss	2.84	2.65	0.07	0.06	-0.15*	-0.01	-0.12+	0.06	0.48**	0.08	0.12	0.60**	0.64**	
13. Firm Size	1.76	0.64	-0.01	0.01	-0.05	-0.01	-0.02	0.00	0.06	0.05	0.18*	0.09	0.12	0.10

Notes: SD = Standard deviation

Mot. Language = Motivating language

Ambidexterity= Individual Ambidexterity

TO Intention= Employee Turnover Intention

Satisfaction and Performance= Employee Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

Same Boss = Tenure under the same manager

* $\rho < .05$, ** $\rho < .01$

Table 5.2

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for the U.S.

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Mot. Language	3.09	1.16												
2. Ambidexterity	4.45	1.54	0.35**											
3. Absenteeism	3.78	1.40	-0.10*	-0.28**										
4. TO Intention	3.13	1.23	-0.22*	-0.04*	0.09*									
5. Satisfaction	3.39	1.09	0.46**	0.25**	-0.22*	-0.64**								
6. Performance	3.38	0.99	0.18*	0.52**	-0.32**	-0.01*	0.17*							
7. Age	34.39	10.88	-0.16*	-0.03	-0.05	-0.08	0.05	-0.07						
8. Education	2.75	1.01	0.13	0.06	0.21*	0.12	-0.05	0.00	0.08					
9. Job Level	1.98	0.97	0.11	-0.05	0.28**	-0.03	-0.05	0.00	0.13	0.26				
10. Job Tenure	4.84	5.01	-0.06	-0.02	-0.06	-0.16*	0.16*	0.04*	0.58**	0.11**	0.09			
11. Firm Tenure	5.84	6.30	-0.08	-0.02	-0.02	-0.17*	0.15*	-0.01*	0.61**	0.08	0.19	0.69**		
12. Same Boss	4.07	4.70	0.01	0.00	0.07	-0.13	0.17*	0.17*	0.45**	0.09	0.21*	0.67**	0.62**	
13. Firm Size	1.99	0.70	-0.06	0.02	0.07	-0.01	-0.07	-0.06	0.02	0.02	-0.08	0.00	0.08	-0.08

Notes: SD = Standard deviation

Mot. Language = Motivating language

Ambidexterity= Individual Ambidexterity

TO Intention= Employee Turnover Intention

Satisfaction and Performance= Employee Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

Same Boss = Tenure under the same manager

* $\rho < .05$, ** $\rho < .01$

Table 5.3

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Vietnam

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Mot. Language	3.42	1.06												
2. Ambidexterity	4.52	1.49	0.68**											
3. Absenteeism	2.66	1.13	-0.09*	-0.12*										
4. TO Intention	2.98	1.12	-0.18*	-0.08	0.12*									
5. Satisfaction	3.54	0.99	0.52**	0.45**	-0.02*	-0.24**								
6. Performance	3.31	1.03	0.60**	0.60**	-0.10*	0.14*	0.36**							
7. Age	30.64	7.40	0.08	0.14	0.37**	-0.16*	0.10	0.21*						
8. Education	2.95	0.30	0.06	0.16*	0.01	0.06	0.07	-0.02	-0.12					
9. Job Level	2.22	0.86	0.17*	0.19*	-0.04	-0.08	0.07	0.22	0.15	0.05				
10. Job Tenure	3.46	2.97	0.12	0.15	0.27*	-0.06*	0.107	0.17	0.59	-0.10	0.03			
11. Firm Tenure	4.78	3.95	0.09	0.22	0.17**	-0.14*	0.16*	0.24**	0.63	-0.06	0.14*	0.67**		
12. Same Boss	3.35	3.04	0.12*	0.12	0.22*	-0.13	0.07	0.21*	0.44	-0.15	0.10	0.54**	0.48**	
13. Firm Size	1.83	0.67	0.07	0.07	0.26**	-0.07	0.03	0.12	0.22	0.17*	0.10	0.17*	0.27**	0.14*

Notes: SD = Standard deviation

Mot. Language = Motivating language

Ambidexterity= Individual Ambidexterity

TO Intention= Employee Turnover Intention

Satisfaction and Performance= Employee Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

Same Boss = Tenure under the same manager

* $\rho < .05$, ** $\rho < .01$

Table 5.4

Latent Variables Loadings and Cross-loadings for India

	TO	AttAbs	JobSat	JobPerf	Motivate	IndAmb
TO1	**0.646**	0.089	-0.156	0.030	-0.154	0.228
TO2	**0.643**	0.323	-0.308	0.109	-0.177	0.158
TO3	**0.618**	-0.288	0.404	0.077	0.070	-0.245
TO4	**0.723**	0.046	-0.042	0.047	-0.147	-0.074
TO5	**0.522**	-0.230	0.152	-0.328	0.528	-0.084
AttAbs2	-0.032	**0.730**	0.242	-0.158	0.190	-0.136
AttAbs3	0.117	**0.534**	0.102	0.309	-0.262	0.082
AttAbs4	0.144	**0.803**	0.053	-0.050	0.117	-0.141
AttAbs6	0.179	**0.742**	-0.308	-0.032	-0.080	0.060
AttAbs8	-0.075	**0.768**	-0.105	0.014	-0.127	0.098
AttAbs9	-0.027	**0.508**	0.243	0.113	-0.114	0.019
AttAbst10	-0.268	**0.808**	-0.109	-0.068	0.151	0.049
JobSat1	-0.249	0.582	**0.559**	-0.092	0.293	0.129
JobSat2	-0.288	0.033	**0.701**	0.008	0.171	-0.096
JobSat3	0.210	-0.402	**0.641**	0.155	-0.317	0.063
JobSat4	0.166	-0.536	**0.678**	0.081	-0.23	-0.029
JobSat5	0.149	0.434	**0.627**	**-0.173**	0.121	-0.041
JobPerf1	-0.064	-0.009	0.151	**0.693**	0.084	-0.066
JobPerf2	-0.151	-0.008	0.210	**0.729**	-0.163	0.137
JobPerf3	-0.004	-0.095	0.158	**0.758**	-0.072	0.025
JobPerf4	-0.038	0.082	-0.115	**0.696**	0.128	-0.046
JobPerf5	0.175	0.081	-0.214	**0.675**	0.066	-0.112
JobPerf6	-0.112	0.253	-0.127	**0.702**	-0.057	0.176
JobPerf7	-0.057	-0.055	0.081	**0.708**	-0.106	-0.006
JobPerf8	0.139	-0.266	0.12	**0.680**	-0.073	-0.090
JobPerf9	0.131	0.022	-0.295	**0.690**	0.21	-0.033
LV_DirectG	-0.091	0.018	-0.036	0.092	**0.910**	0.010
LV_Meaning	0.074	0.184	-0.078	-0.140	**0.876**	-0.036
LV_Empathy	0.02	-0.201	0.115	0.044	**0.883**	0.025
LV_Explore	-0.019	0.095	-0.100	-0.055	0.016	**0.940**
LV_Exploit	0.019	-0.095	0.100	0.055	-0.016	**0.940**

Notes: TO = turnover intention; AttAbs = attitude toward absenteeism; JobSat = job satisfaction; JobPerf = job performance; Motivate = motivating language; IndAmb = individual ambidexterity. All loadings are significant at the $\rho < .001$ level

Table 5.5

Latent Variables Loadings and Cross-loadings for the U.S.

	TO	AttAbs	JobSat	JobPerf	Motivate	IndAmb
TO1	**0.786**	0.194	-0.112	-0.037	0.087	-0.176
TO2	**0.804**	0.117	0.082	-0.014	-0.051	-0.196
TO3	**0.813**	-0.033	0.010	0.000	0.051	0.054
TO4	**0.681**	-0.055	-0.171	0.092	-0.007	0.187
TO5	**0.777**	-0.234	0.168	-0.030	-0.083	0.161
AttAbs2	-0.104	**0.774**	0.145	0.011	-0.071	-0.212
AttAbs3	0.120	**0.539**	-0.209	-0.060	-0.012	0.445
AttAbs4	0.083	**0.744**	0.048	0.097	-0.146	-0.190
AttAbs5	0.022	**0.612**	-0.088	0.207	0.114	0.029
AttAbs6	0.005	**0.801**	0.021	-0.193	-0.119	0.026
AttAbs7	0.136	**0.504**	-0.216	0.212	0.215	0.020
AttAbst8	-0.169	**0.778**	0.143	-0.165	0.113	0.022
JobSat1	-0.219	0.044	**0.644**	-0.039	-0.034	-0.284
JobSat2	-0.020	-0.090	**0.749**	-0.076	0.041	0.231
JobSat3	-0.129	-0.044	**0.737**	0.156	-0.031	0.162
JobSat4	0.098	-0.199	**0.807**	0.052	0.073	0.033
JobSat5	0.237	0.321	**0.723**	-0.103	-0.061	-0.189
JobPerf1	0.159	0.063	-0.028	**0.678**	0.040	0.020
JobPerf2	-0.037	-0.045	0.017	**0.773**	-0.055	-0.124
JobPerf3	-0.022	-0.006	-0.073	**0.771**	0.080	-0.091
JobPerf4	0.066	-0.192	-0.127	**0.717**	0.000	0.015
JobPerf5	-0.031	-0.087	-0.080	**0.757**	0.025	0.119
JobPerf6	0.028	0.148	-0.062	**0.778**	0.023	0.087
JobPerf7	-0.126	0.072	0.139	**0.745**	-0.007	0.029
JobPerf8	-0.012	-0.021	-0.021	**0.720**	0.053	-0.104
JobPerf9	-0.008	0.064	0.235	**0.732**	-0.158	0.050
LV_DirectG	0.052	0.097	0.029	-0.054	**0.921**	0.054
LV_Meaning	-0.111	-0.231	-0.066	-0.088	**0.804**	0.049
LV_Empathy	0.046	0.108	0.029	0.134	**0.898**	-0.099
LV_Explore	-0.062	-0.100	-0.111	0.125	0.095	**0.862**
LV_Exploit	0.062	0.100	0.111	-0.125	-0.095	**0.862**

Notes: TO = turnover intention; AttAbs = attitude toward absenteeism; JobSat = job satisfaction; JobPerf = job performance; Motivate = motivating language; IndAmb = individual ambidexterity. All loadings are significant at the $\rho < .001$ level

Table 5.6

Latent Variables Loadings and Cross-loadings for Vietnam

	TO	AttAbs	JobSat	JobPerf	Motivate	IndAmb
TO1	**0.785**	0.305	-0.045	0.085	0.022	0.032
TO2	**0.820**	0.271	-0.002	0.134	-0.006	0.058
TO3	**0.672**	-0.308	-0.107	-0.191	0.146	-0.108
TO5	**0.668**	-0.38	0.163	-0.072	-0.165	0.001
AttAbs2	0.028	**0.743**	-0.003	-0.096	-0.004	0.209
AttAbs4	0.021	**0.714**	0.076	0.105	-0.020	0.011
AttAbs6	-0.093	**0.825**	0.039	0.097	0.000	-0.187
AttAbs8	0.022	**0.794**	-0.055	0.025	-0.065	-0.013
AttAbs10	0.033	**0.688**	-0.060	-0.151	0.099	0.002
JobSat2	0.053	0.155	**0.783**	-0.145	0.101	0.055
JobSat3	0.013	-0.053	**0.833**	0.074	-0.139	0.056
JobSat4	-0.062	-0.092	**0.838**	0.062	0.044	-0.108
JobPerf1	0.062	-0.072	0.318	**0.697**	0.124	-0.255
JobPerf2	-0.022	0.090	-0.072	**0.714**	0.032	0.022
JobPerf3	0.054	0.036	0.070	**0.720**	0.059	-0.132
JobPerf4	-0.063	-0.177	-0.067	**0.710**	-0.165	0.226
JobPerf5	-0.138	0.136	-0.044	**0.741**	-0.110	0.005
JobPerf6	0.004	0.010	0.029	**0.723**	-0.107	0.136
JobPerf7	-0.023	-0.078	-0.103	**0.762**	0.016	0.056
JobPerf8	0.188	-0.047	-0.005	**0.771**	0.037	0.101
JobPerf9	-0.067	0.101	-0.108	**0.732**	0.112	-0.172
LV_DirectG	0.026	0.009	-0.002	0.110	**0.929**	-0.045
LV_Meaning	-0.018	0.066	0.031	-0.082	**0.892**	0.067
LV_Empathy	-0.009	-0.075	-0.029	-0.032	**0.896**	-0.020
LV_Explore	0.061	0.098	0.022	-0.070	0.039	**0.926**
LV_Exploit	-0.061	-0.098	-0.022	0.070	-0.039	**0.926**

Notes: TO = turnover intention; AttAbs = attitude toward absenteeism; JobSat = job satisfaction; JobPerf = job performance; Motivate = motivating language; IndAmb = individual ambidexterity. All loadings are significant at the $\rho < .001$ level

this test is to analyze whether the latent variables differ from each other (Bollen, 1989; Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003; Fornell & Larcker, 1981) by comparing the inter-construct

correlations with the square roots of their respective average variances extracted. The square roots of average variances extracted (AVEs) for each latent variable is highlighted and bolded in each of the tables. The results from all of these tables show that the square roots of AVEs for each latent variable is greater compared to any correlation relating to each latent variable. These results suggest that each of the latent variables used in each sample has satisfactory discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 5.7

Latent Variables-Square Roots of AVEs Correlations for India

	TO	AttAbs	JobSat	JobPerf	Motivate	IndAmb
TO	**0.634**	0.564	0.625	0.518	-0.539	-0.485
AttAbs	0.564	**0.708**	0.641	0.325	-0.321	-0.312
JobSat	0.625	0.641	**0.643**	0.561	0.024	0.528
JobPerf	0.518	0.325	0.561	**0.704**	0.641	0.634
Motivate	0.539	-0.321	0.593	0.641	**0.890**	0.685
IndAmb	0.485	-0.312	0.528	0.634	0.685	**0.940**

Notes: TO = turnover intention; AttAbs = attitude toward absenteeism; JobSat = job satisfaction; JobPerf = job performance; Motivate = motivating language; IndAmb = individual ambidexterity

Table 5.8

Latent Variables-Square Roots of AVEs Correlations for the U.S.

	TO	AttAbs	JobSat	JobPerf	Motivate	IndAmb
TO	**0.774**	0.088	0.643	0.008	-0.217	-0.040
AttAbs	0.088	**0.689**	0.219	0.321	-0.014	-0.279

Notes: TO = turnover intention; AttAbs = attitude toward absenteeism; JobSat = job satisfaction; JobPerf = job performance; Motivate = motivating language; IndAmb = individual ambidexterity

Table 5.8 Continued

	TO	AttAbs	JobSat	JobPerf	Motivate	IndAmb
JobSat	0.643	0.219	**0.734**	0.173	0.457	0.252
JobPerf	0.008	0.321	0.173	**0.742**	0.183	0.521
Motivate	0.217	-0.014	0.457	0.183	**0.876**	0.349
IndAmb	-0.040	-0.279	0.252	0.521	0.349	**0.862**

Notes: TO = turnover intention; AttAbs = attitude toward absenteeism; JobSat = job satisfaction; JobPerf = job performance; Motivate = motivating language; IndAmb = individual ambidexterity

Table 5.9

Latent Variables-Square Roots of AVEs Correlations for Vietnam

	TO	AttAbs	JobSat	JobPerf	Motivate	IndAmb
TO	**0.739**	0.124	-0.243	-0.143	-0.175	-0.079
AttAbs	0.124	**0.754**	0.023	-0.101	-0.091	-0.119
JobSat	-0.243	0.023	**0.818**	0.359	0.517	0.446
JobPerf	-0.143	-0.101	0.359	**0.730**	0.632	0.602
Motivate	-0.175	-0.091	0.517	0.632	**0.906**	0.682
IndAmb	-0.079	-0.119	0.446	0.602	0.682	**0.926**

Notes: TO = turnover intention; AttAbs = attitude toward absenteeism; JobSat = job satisfaction; JobPerf = job performance; Motivate = motivating language; IndAmb = individual ambidexterity

WarpPLS 6.0 also provided several estimates to assess the measurement models. The results of these tests are presented in Tables 5.10, 5.11, and 5.12 for India, the U.S., and Vietnam, respectively. First, these tables present the R-squared coefficients for the latent variables. All the R-squared coefficients pass the minimum of 0.02 recommended by Cohen

(1988) for practical relevance. The r-square of Vietnam's absenteeism (0.03) is significantly lower than the r-squares of India (0.52) and the U.S. (0.20). In order to validate that the scale was not an issue, items were dropped for India and the U.S.' absenteeism latent variables to be consistent with Vietnam's absenteeism variable. The r-squares for absenteeism dropped to 0.44 for India and 0.16 for the U.S. samples which is still significantly higher than Vietnam's. In addition, WarpPLS 6.0 provides indicator weight-loading signs (WLS) for the indicators of all latent variables. A WLS with a negative value means that the indicator being analyzed is making a negative contribution to the r-squared of its latent variable. (Kock, 2017). That is, this would suggest the existence of Simpson's paradox. This is not the case with Vietnam's absenteeism as all of the indicators included has a WLS of positive 1. Therefore, there are likely other factors influencing absenteeism for the Vietnam sample that is not captured in this study. Future research should investigate this phenomenon more thoroughly.

Second, measurement model reliability was assessed using composite reliability (CR) and Cronbach's alpha (CA). CA provides an estimate of the indicator intercorrelations (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovis, 2009). CA of 0.70 or higher indicates that the latent variable has acceptable reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Tables 5.10, 5.11, and 5.12 show that all the latent variables pass this threshold for India, the U.S., and Vietnam, respectively.

CR, unlike CA, considers the indicators' different loadings. In order to display acceptable reliability, a latent variable's CR should be 0.70 or higher (Hair et al., 2012; Nunnally & Berstein, 1994). As presented in Tables 5.10, 5.11, and 5.12, the CRs for all latent variables exceed this threshold.

Third, these tables provide the average variances extracted (AVEs) and the full collinearity VIFs for the latent variables. These AVEs were used for assessing discriminant and

convergent validity, which were discussed earlier. The full collinearity VIFs are calculated based on a full collinearity test (Kock & Lynn, 2012), which "enables the identification of not only vertical but also lateral collinearity and allows for a test of collinearity involving all latent variables in a model" (Kock, 2017, p. 78). Full Collinearity VIFs can also be used to effectively check for common method bias (Kock & Lynn, 2012). Full collinearity VIFS of 3.3 or lower indicate no multicollinearity in the model and no existence of common method bias (Kock & Lynn, 2012). There were no latent variables for any of the countries that exceeded this threshold, suggesting that there is no existence of multicollinearity or common method bias (Kock, 2017).

Lastly, these tables provide the Q-squared coefficients for each latent variable. This coefficient is used for predictive validity (Kock, 2015). The Q-squared coefficients for all latent variables in all of the countries are greater than zero which indicates that the models have acceptable predictive validity (Kock, 2017).

In summary, the measurement model passes several stringent tests of validity, reliability, collinearity, common method bias, and predictive validity. This indicates that the results of the SEM can be trusted and are free from data measurement problems (Kline, 2005; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

Table 5.10

Latent Variable Coefficients for India

	TO	AttAbs	JobSat	JobPerf	Motivate	IndAmb
R-squared	0.46	0.52	0.11	0.54		0.51
Composite reliability	0.77	0.87	1.00	0.90	0.92	0.94
Cronbach's alpha	0.72	0.83	1.00	0.87	0.87	0.87
Average variance extracted	0.40	0.50	1.00	0.50	0.79	0.88

Table 5.10 Continued

	TO	AttAbs	JobSat	JobPerf	Motivate	IndAmb
Full collin. VIF	2.10	2.25	1.21	2.12	2.54	2.29
Q-squared	0.46	0.44	0.12	0.54		0.53

Notes: TO = turnover intention; AttAbs = attitude toward absenteeism; JobSat = job satisfaction; JobPerf = job performance; Motivate = motivating language; IndAmb = individual ambidexterity

Table 5.11

Latent Variable Coefficients for the U.S.

	TO	AttAbs	JobSat	JobPerf	Motivate	IndAmb
R-squared	0.48	0.20	0.24	0.28		0.24
Composite reliability	0.88	0.86	0.85	0.92	0.91	0.85
Cronbach's alpha	0.83	0.80	0.78	0.90	0.85	0.76
Average variance extracted	0.60	0.47	0.54	0.55	0.77	0.74
Full collin. VIF	1.93	1.56	2.42	1.51	1.59	1.70
Q-squared	0.45	0.20	0.24	0.30		0.25

Notes: TO = turnover intention; AttAbs = attitude toward absenteeism; JobSat = job satisfaction; JobPerf = job performance; Motivate = motivating language; IndAmb = individual ambidexterity

Table 5.12

Latent Variable Coefficients for Vietnam

	TO	AttAbs	JobSat	JobPerf	Motivate	IndAmb
R-squared	0.06	0.03	0.28	0.47		0.55
Composite reliability	0.83	0.87	0.86	0.91	0.93	0.92

Table 5.12 Continued

	TO	AttAbs	JobSat	JobPerf	Motivate	IndAmb
Cronbach's alpha	0.72	0.81	0.75	0.89	0.89	0.83
Average variance extracted	0.55	0.57	0.67	0.53	0.82	0.86
Full collin. VIF	1.13	1.37	1.54	2.05	2.57	2.37
Q-squared	0.08	0.12	0.29	0.47		0.55

Notes: TO = turnover intention; AttAbs = attitude toward absenteeism; JobSat = job satisfaction; JobPerf = job performance; Motivate = motivating language; IndAmb = individual ambidexterity

Model Fit and Quality

Model fit was assessed through several indicators including, average path coefficient (APC), average R-squared (ARS), and average variance inflation factor (AVIF). The literature recommends that the values for both the APC and ARS be significant at least at the $\rho < .05$ level, while the AVIF should be lower than 5 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2010; Kline, 2005; Kock, 2017). The results of these tests for each country (presented in Table 5.13) indicate that the data is a good fit with the proposed model.

Table 5.13

Model Fit

Country	APC	ARS	AVIF
India	0.204**	0.466**	1.576
U.S.	0.192**	0.277**	1.369
Vietnam	0.183*	0.268*	1.513

Note: * $\rho < .05$, ** $\rho < .01$

Several model quality indices were provided by WarpPLS 6.0 to assess the quality of the models (presented in Table 5.14). Sympson's paradox ratio (SPR) is "a measure of the extent to which the model is free from Simpson's paradox instances" (Kock, 2017, p. 64). Simpson's paradox indicates a possible causality problem, suggesting that a hypothesized path is either implausible or reversed. The ideal coefficient for SPR is 1, meaning that there are no instances of Simpson's paradox in the model; "acceptable values of SPR are equal to or greater than 0.7, meaning that at lease 70 percent of the paths in a model are free from Simpson's paradox (Kock, 2017, p. 64). The coefficients for the three models are: 0.870 for India, 0.862 for the U.S., and 0.862 for Vietnam. This suggests that the paths in the three models are 87% (India), 86.2% (U.S.), and 86.2% (Vietnam) free from Simpson's paradox. In addition, the R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR) is "a measure of the extent to which a model is free from negative R-squared contributions" (Kock, 2017, p. 64), which also occurs with Simpson's paradox. This index is similar to SPR, with the key difference that it is calculated based on actual values of r-squared contributions, not on the number of paths where these contributions have specific signs. Ideally, RSCR should be 1, but acceptable values of RSCR are equal to or greater than 0.9. This means that "the sum of positive R-squared contributions in the model makes up at least 90 percent of the total sum of the absolute R-squared contributions in the model" (Kock, 2017, p. 64). The index calculated for India (0.998), the U.S. (.990), and Vietnam (0.965) shows that the models have acceptable RSCR. Furthermore, WarpPLS 6.0 also provided a calculation for nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR). This index is "a measure of the extent to which bivariate nonlinear coefficients of association provide support for the hypothesized directions of the causal links in a model" (Kock, 2017, p. 65). Acceptable values of NLBCDR are equal to or greater than 0.7, "meaning that in at least 70 percent of path-related instances in

[the] model the support for the reversed hypothesized direction of causality is weak or less" (Kock, 2017, p. 65). "Less" in this context may mean that the support for the reverse hypothesized direction of causality is less than weak, or that the hypothesized direction of causality is supported. As seen in Table 5.14, the NLBCDR for India (0.913), the U.S. (0.793), and Vietnam (0.826) are acceptable values.

Table 5.14

Model Quality Indices

Country	SPR	RSCR	NLBCDR
India	0.870	0.998	0.913
U.S.	0.862	0.990	0.793
Vietnam	0.862	0.965	0.826

In summary, these three model quality indices- SPR, RSCR, and NLBCDR, indicate that the model is well specified and free from Simpson's paradox.

Hypotheses Testing

Figures 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3 show the results of the SEM analysis for India, the U.S., and Vietnam, respectively. Each hypothesis refers to a link in the model while links refer to variable-pair relationships, except for the control variables. The latent variables are reduced to individual scores using a PLS regression algorithm, Beta coefficients denote the strengths of the multivariate association for the variable-pair relationship. The significance of the beta coefficients is represented as: * $\rho < .05$, ** $\rho < .01$, and NS = not statistically significant. The R-squared coefficients, under the latent variables, represents the percentage of variance explained by the variables point to them in the model.

Hypothesis 1 suggested that the manager's use of ML can significantly and positively influence the employees' IA behaviors. The path coefficients are positive and significant at the 1% for all three samples ($\beta = 0.66$ for India, $\beta = 0.46$ for the U.S., and $\beta = 0.63$ for Vietnam). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is supported for all three samples.

Hypothesis 2 argued that the employee's IA behaviors has a significant and negative association with his/her absenteeism. The path coefficients are negative and significant for India ($\beta = -0.10$, $\rho < 0.05$); the U.S. ($\beta = -0.20$, $\rho < 0.01$); and Vietnam ($\beta = -0.24$, $\rho < 0.01$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 is supported across all three samples.

Hypothesis 3 stated that there is a significant and negative relationship between the employees' IA behaviors and turnover intention. The path coefficients are negative and significant for India ($\beta = -0.18$, $\rho < 0.01$), the U.S. ($\beta = -0.15$, $\rho < 0.05$). Although the path coefficient for Vietnam is negative (($\beta = -0.05$), the results indicated no significance. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is supported for India and the U.S. but not supported for Vietnam.

Hypothesis 4 hypothesized that the employees' IA is significantly and positively associated with job satisfaction. Across all three samples, the path coefficients are positive and significant: India ($\beta = 0.27$, $\rho < 0.01$); the U.S. ($\beta = 0.13$, $\rho < 0.05$), and Vietnam ($\beta = 0.17$, $\rho < 0.01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 is supported for all three countries.

Hypothesis 5 suggested that there is a significant and positive relationship between the employee's IA and job performance. The path coefficients are positive and significant at the 1% for all three samples ($\beta = 0.34$ for India, $\beta = 0.50$ for the U.S., and $\beta = 0.30$ for Vietnam). Therefore, Hypothesis 5 is supported for all three samples.

Hypothesis 6 stated that there is a significant and negative relationship between the manager's use of ML and employee's absenteeism. The path coefficients are negative and

significant for India ($\beta = -0.10$, $\rho < 0.05$), the U.S. ($\beta = -0.10$, $\rho < 0.05$) Vietnam ($\beta = -0.12$, $\rho < 0.01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 6 is supported for all three countries.

Hypothesis 7 suggested that there is a significant and negative relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and employees' turnover intention. The path coefficients are negative and significant for India ($\beta = -0.14$, $\rho < 0.05$), the U.S. ($\beta = -0.26$, $\rho < 0.05$), and Vietnam ($\beta = -0.10$, $\rho < 0.05$). Thus, Hypothesis 7 is supported for India, the U.S., and Vietnam.

Hypothesis 8 stated that there is a significant and positive relationship between the manager's use of ML and the employee's job satisfaction. The path coefficients are positive and significant for India ($\beta = 0.41$,$\rho < 0.05$), the U.S. ($\beta = 0.43$, $\rho < 0.01$), and Vietnam ($\beta = 0.40$, $\rho < 0.01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 8 is supported for all three samples.

Hypothesis 9 hypothesized that there is a significant and positive relationship between the manager's use of ML and the employees' job performance. The path coefficients are positive and significant for India ($\beta = 0.31$, $\rho < 0.01$), the U.S. ($\beta = 0.22$, $\rho < 0.05$) and Vietnam ($\beta = 0.37$, $\rho < 0.01$) and significant at the 1% level. Therefore, Hypothesis 9 is supported across all samples.

Hypotheses 10 and 11 stated that the relationships between job satisfaction and absenteeism and job satisfaction and turnover intention are significant and negative. The path coefficients across all three samples are negative and significant at the 1%. Therefore, Hypotheses 10 and 11 are supported for all three countries. Hypothesis 12 suggested that there is a significant and positive relationship between the employees' job satisfaction and job performance. The path coefficients are significant and positive for India ($\beta = 0.19$, $\rho < 0.01$), the U.S. ($\beta = 0.17$, $\rho < 0.05$), and Vietnam ($\beta = 0.11$, $\rho < 0.05$). Thus, Hypothesis 12 is supported.

Incremental Increase of ML's Impact on Employee Outcomes

An additional analysis tested for ML's incremental impact on employee outcomes above

the control variables. As such the control variables were removed in all three samples to reveal the r-square contributions of ML on these outcomes. Table 5.15 summarizes these results for the three samples.

For the India sample, ML is shown to have r-square contributions of 0.39 for IA, 0.37 for absenteeism, 0.30 for turnover intention, 0.28 for job satisfaction, and 0.34 for performance. ML's r-square contributions for the U.S. are: 0.17 for IA, 0.19 for absenteeism, 0.36 for turnover intention, 0.16 for job satisfaction, and 0.28 for job performance. Finally, for the Vietnam sample, ML have r-square contributions of 0.43 for IA, 0.15 for absenteeism, 0.19 for turnover intention, 0.19 job satisfaction, and 0.35 for job performance.

Effect Sizes

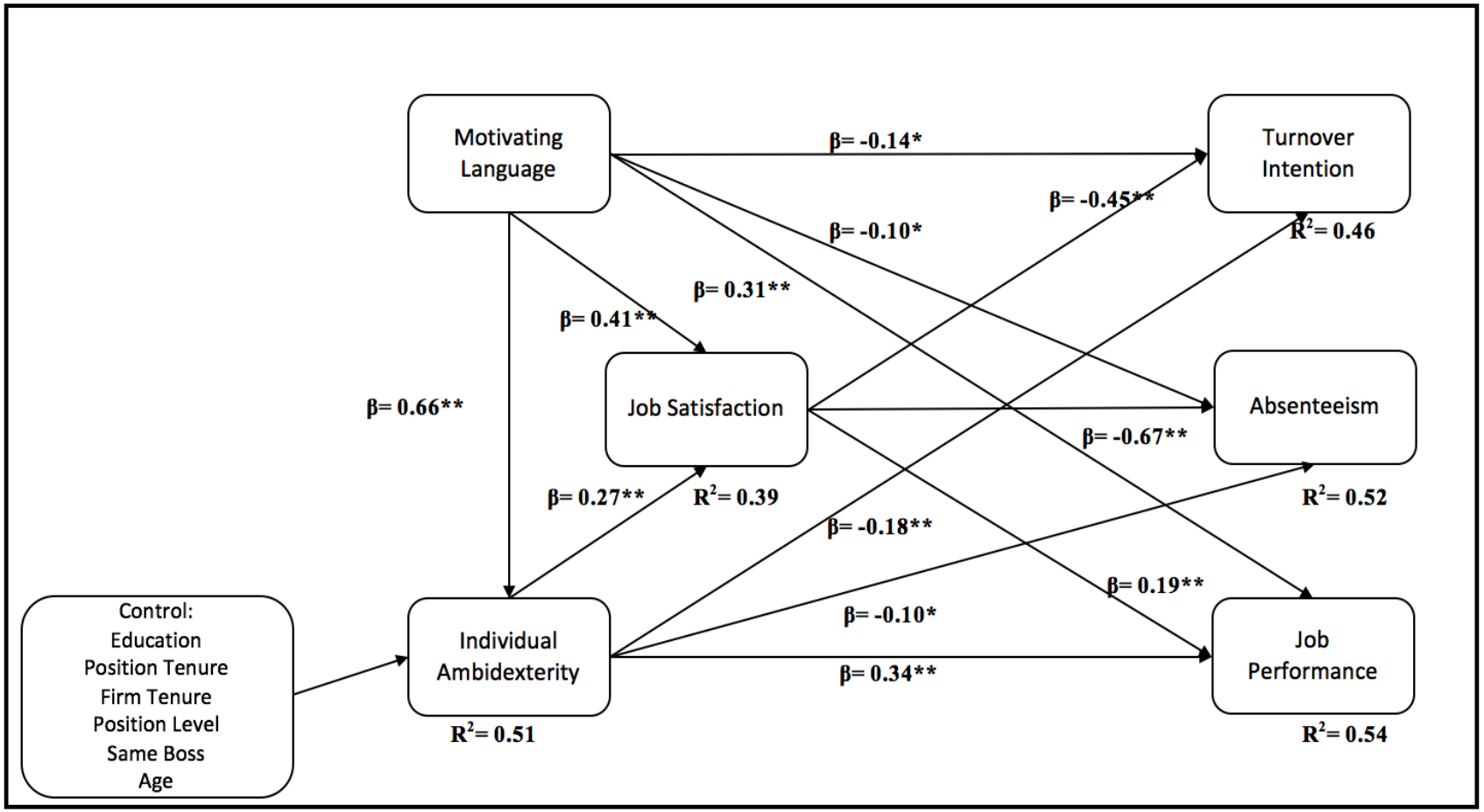
Table 5.16 provides the path coefficients and effect sizes for each country. These effect sizes, calculated in WarpPLS, are similar to Cohen's (1988) *f*-squared coefficients. They are calculated using a different procedure, but they have similar interpretation (Kock, 2017). The effect sizes indicated by path coefficients can be interpreted as small, medium, or large. The values that are recommended are 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, respectively (Cohen, 1988). Any coefficients below 0.02 indicates that the relationship is too weak to be considered relevant (Kock, 2017).

First, with regards to IA paths, the effect sizes indicate that IA has a small effect on absenteeism and turnover intention across all three countries. In addition, the results show that employee ambidexterity has a small effect on workers' job satisfaction for respondents in the U.S. and Vietnam but a medium effect for respondents in India. Moreover, ambidexterity is shown to have a medium effect on job performance for respondents in all three countries.

Second, with regards to ML paths, results show that managerial use of ML has a large

Figure 5.1

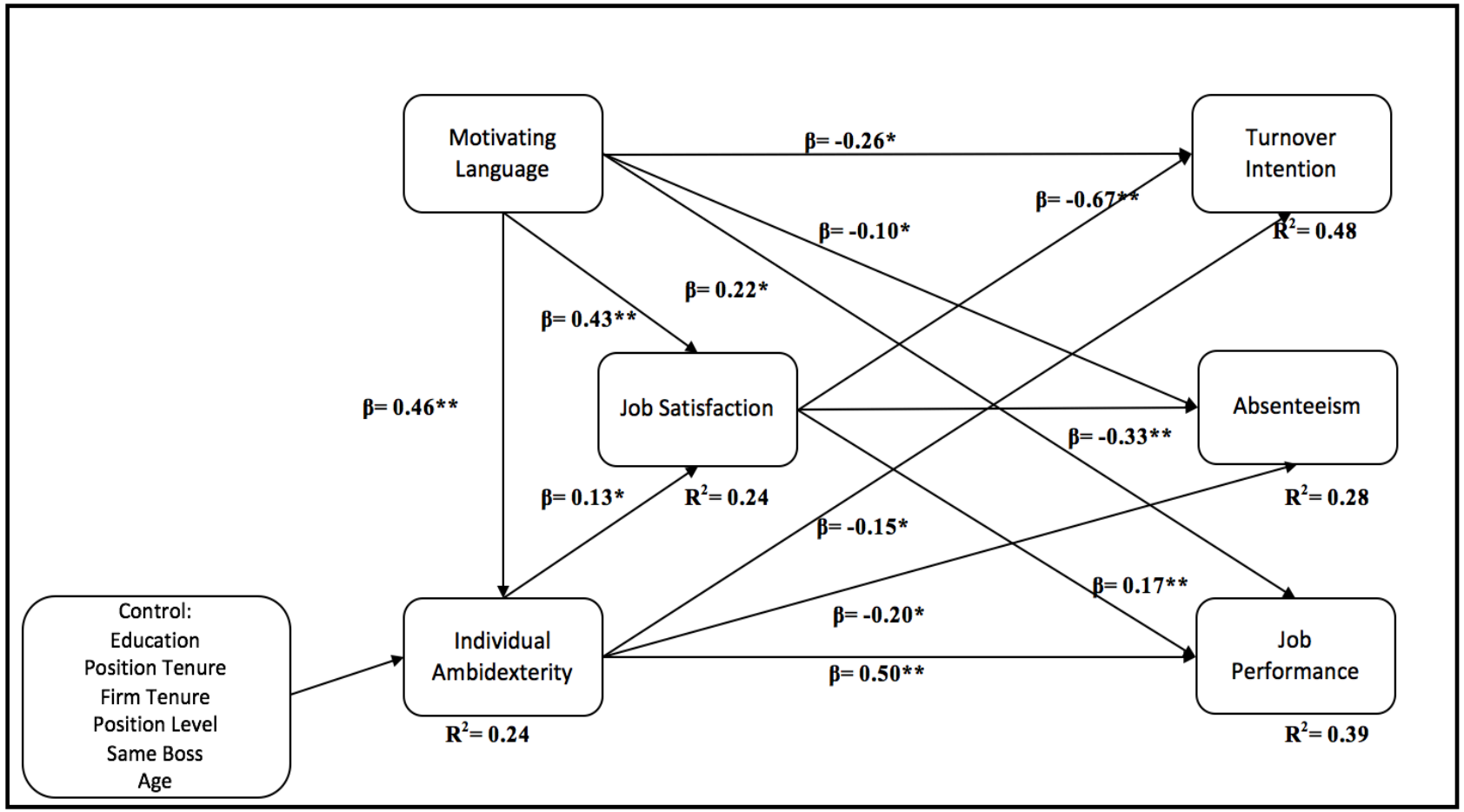
Model Results for India



Note: * ρ < .05, ** ρ < .01

Figure 5.2

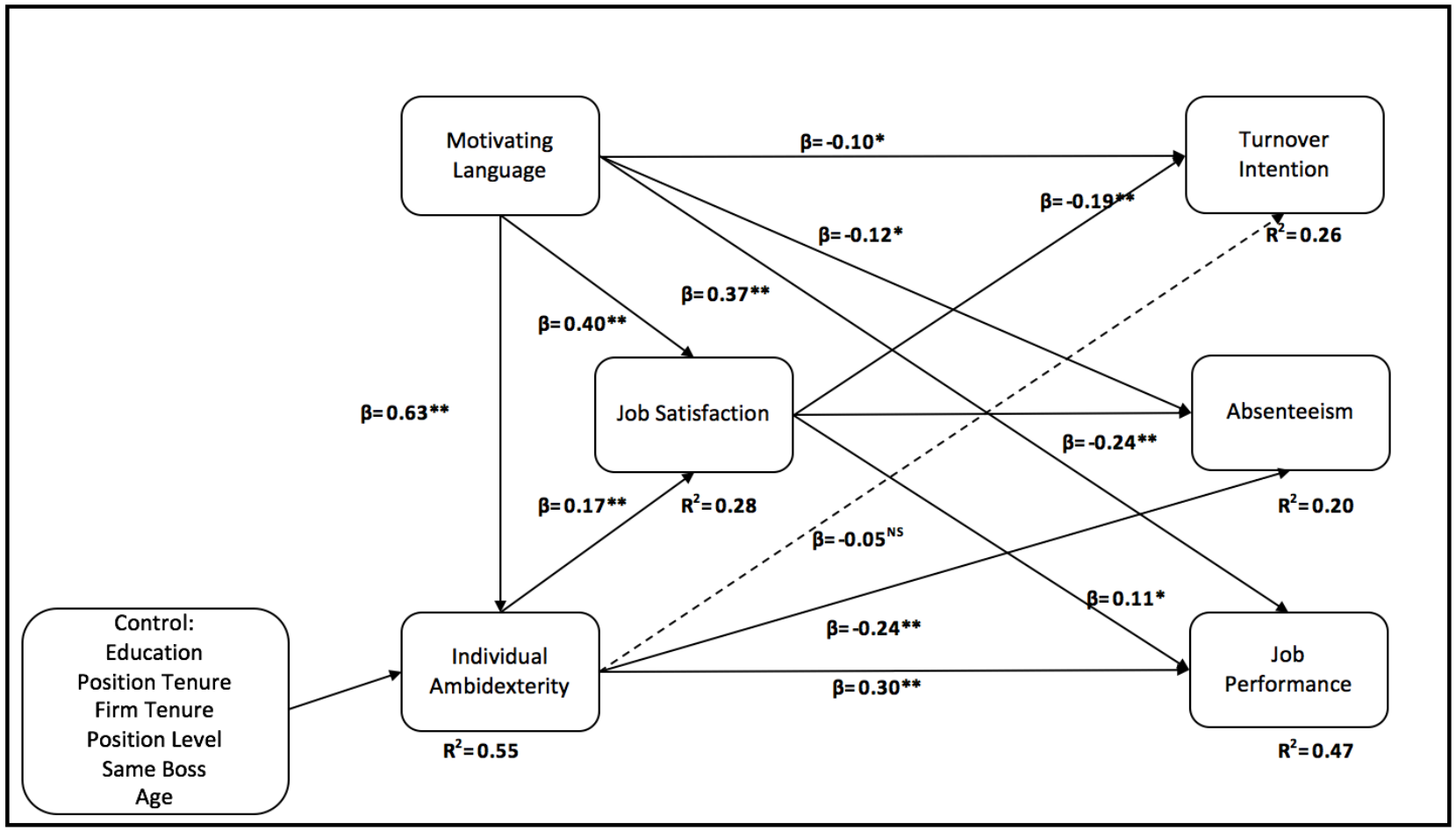
Model Results for the U.S.



Note: * ρ < .05, ** ρ < .01

Figure 5.3

Model Results for Vietnam



Note: * ρ < .05, ** ρ < .01, NS = Not Significant

Table 5.15

Motivating Language Contributions to R^2

	India		U.S.		Vietnam	
	R^2 with controls	R^2 no controls	R^2 with controls	R^2 no controls	R^2 with controls	R^2 no controls
Ambidexterity	0.51	0.39	0.24	0.17	0.55	0.43
Absenteeism	0.52	0.37	0.28	0.19	0.20	0.15
Turnover intention	0.46	0.30	0.48	0.36	0.26	0.19
Satisfaction	0.39	0.28	0.24	0.16	0.28	0.19
Performance	0.54	0.34	0.39	0.28	0.47	0.35

effect on employee ambidexterity for employees in India and Vietnam, and a medium effect for employees in the U.S. ML's effect is shown to be small for all respondents across the countries. In addition, ML has a medium effect for respondents in India and the U.S., but a small effect for respondents in Vietnam. Furthermore, managerial use of ML has a medium effect for employee satisfaction and performance in all three samples.

Third, examination of the job satisfaction paths indicates that it has a small effect on employee performance across all three samples. For its effect on absenteeism, the tests suggest that it is large for workers in India, but small for workers in the U.S. and Vietnam. Moreover, the effects are mixed for job satisfaction and turnover intention (medium for India, large for the U.S., and small for Vietnam).

Country Comparisons

Hypotheses 13-15 relates to the country comparisons for: 1) the U.S. vs. India; 2) the

U.S. vs. Vietnam, and 3) India vs. Vietnam. To test these hypotheses, this dissertation uses the Satterthwaite method, which considers the coefficients and standard errors of each path to calculate their respective t-value and p-value. These results are presented in Tables 5.17, 5.18, and 5.19 for each country pair comparisons.

Hypothesis 13 stated that the results would be significantly different for the U.S. relative to India. The results show support for this hypothesis as eight of the twelve relationships show significance: 1) IA → Job Satisfaction ($\rho < 0.10$); 2) IA → Job Performance ($\rho < 0.05$); 3) ML → IA ($\rho < 0.01$); 4) ML→ Turnover Intention ($\rho < 0.01$); 5) ML → Job Performance ($\rho < 0.001$); 6) Job Satisfaction → Absenteeism ($\rho < 0.001$); 7) Job Satisfaction → Turnover

Table 5.16

Path Coefficients and Effect Sizes

	India		U.S.		Vietnam	
Path	Coefficient	Effect Size	Coefficient	Effect Size	Coefficient	Effect Size
Ambidexterity						
Absenteeism	-0.10	0.04	-0.20	0.06	-0.24	0.05
TO intention	-0.18	0.11	-0.15	0.03	-0.05	0.09
Job satisfaction	0.27	0.24	0.13	0.04	0.17	0.08
Job performance	0.34	0.21	0.50	0.27	0.30	0.19
Mot. language						
Ambidexterity	0.66	0.46	0.46	0.22	0.63	0.44
Absenteeism	-0.10	0.04	-0.10	0.13	-0.12	0.02
TO intention	-0.14	0.18	-0.26	0.19	-0.10	0.22

Table 5.16 Continued

	India		U.S.		Vietnam	
Path	Coefficient	Effect Size	Coefficient	Effect Size	Coefficient	Effect Size
Job satisfaction	0.41	0.24	0.43	0.21	0.40	0.21
Job performance	0.31	0.21	0.22	0.26	0.37	0.24
Job satisfaction	-0.67	0.44	-0.33	0.13	-0.24	0.05
Absenteeism	-0.67	0.44	-0.33	0.13	-0.24	0.05
TO intention	-0.45	0.28	-0.67	0.43	-0.19	0.05
Job performance	0.19	0.11	0.07	0.14	0.11	0.05

Intention ($\rho < 0.001$); and 8) Job Satisfaction → Job Performance ($\rho < 0.10$).

There was also support for Hypothesis 14, which stated that the results would be significantly different between the U.S. and Vietnam. Results indicate that five of the twelve relationships between the models showed significant variance: 1) IA → Job Performance ($\rho < 0.01$); 2) ML → IA ($\rho < 0.05$); 3) ML → Turnover Intention ($\rho < 0.05$); 4) ML → Job Performance ($\rho < 0.001$); and 5) Job Satisfaction → Turnover Intention.

Hypothesis 15 hypothesized that the results for India and Vietnam would not be significantly different. The results showed support for this as nine out of twelve relationships showed no significance. There were no significant differences for the relationships between motivating language and all of the studied employee outcomes, including absenteeism, turnover intention, job satisfaction, and job performance. In addition, how IA impacts employee absenteeism, job satisfaction and job performance between the two countries also did not vary significantly. Moreover, employee job satisfaction impacts his/her job performance consistently between India and Vietnam.

Table 5.17

Path Comparisons: U.S. vs. India

	U.S.		India		Satterthwaite method	
Path	**Coefficient**	**SE**	**Coefficient**	**SE**	**T-value**	**P- value**
Individual ambidexterity						
Absenteeism	-0.20	0.07	-0.10	0.07	-1.05	0.15
Turnover intention	-0.15	0.07	-0.18	0.07	0.30	0.38
Job satisfaction	0.13	0.07	0.27	0.07	-1.45	**0.07**
Job performance	0.50	0.06	0.34	0.07	1.80	**0.04**
Motivating language						
Individual ambidexterity	0.46	0.06	0.66	0.06	-2.31	**0.01**
Absenteeism	-0.10	0.07	-0.10	0.07	0.00	0.50
Turnover intention	-0.26	0.06	-0.14	0.07	-1.21	**0.09**
Job satisfaction	0.43	0.06	0.41	0.07	0.18	0.43
Job performance	0.22	0.02	0.31	0.07	-1.42	**0.07**
Job satisfaction						
Absenteeism	-0.33	0.07	-0.67	0.06	3.76	**0.00**
Turnover intention	-0.67	0.06	-0.45	0.07	-2.52	**0.01**
Job performance	0.07	0.07	0.19	0.07	-1.26	**0.10**

Notes: SE= Standard error; the p-values are the results of the one-tailed test

Table 5.18

Path Comparisons: U.S. vs. Vietnam

	U.S.		Vietnam		Satterthwaite method	
Path	**Coefficient**	**SE**	**Coefficient**	**SE**	**T-value**	**P- value**
Individual ambidexterity						
Absenteeism	-0.20	0.07	-0.24	0.07	0.36	0.36
Turnover intention	-0.15	0.07	-0.05	0.07	0.30	0.38
Job satisfaction	0.13	0.07	0.17	0.07	-0.40	0.34
Job performance	0.50	0.06	0.30	0.07	2.22	**0.01**
Motivating language						
Individual ambidexterity	0.46	0.06	0.63	0.06	-2.00	**0.02**
Absenteeism	-0.10	0.07	-0.12	0.07	0.20	0.42
Turnover intention	-0.26	0.07	-0.10	0.07	-1.62	**0.05**
Job satisfaction	0.43	0.06	0.40	0.06	0.25	0.40
Job performance	0.22	0.02	0.37	0.07	-2.06	**0.02**
Job satisfaction						
Absenteeism	-0.33	0.07	-0.24	0.07	-0.95	0.17
Turnover intention	-0.67	0.06	-0.19	0.07	-5.33	**0.00**
Job performance	0.07	0.07	0.11	0.07	-0.46	0.32

Notes: SE= Standard error; the p-values are the results of the one-tailed test

Table 5.19

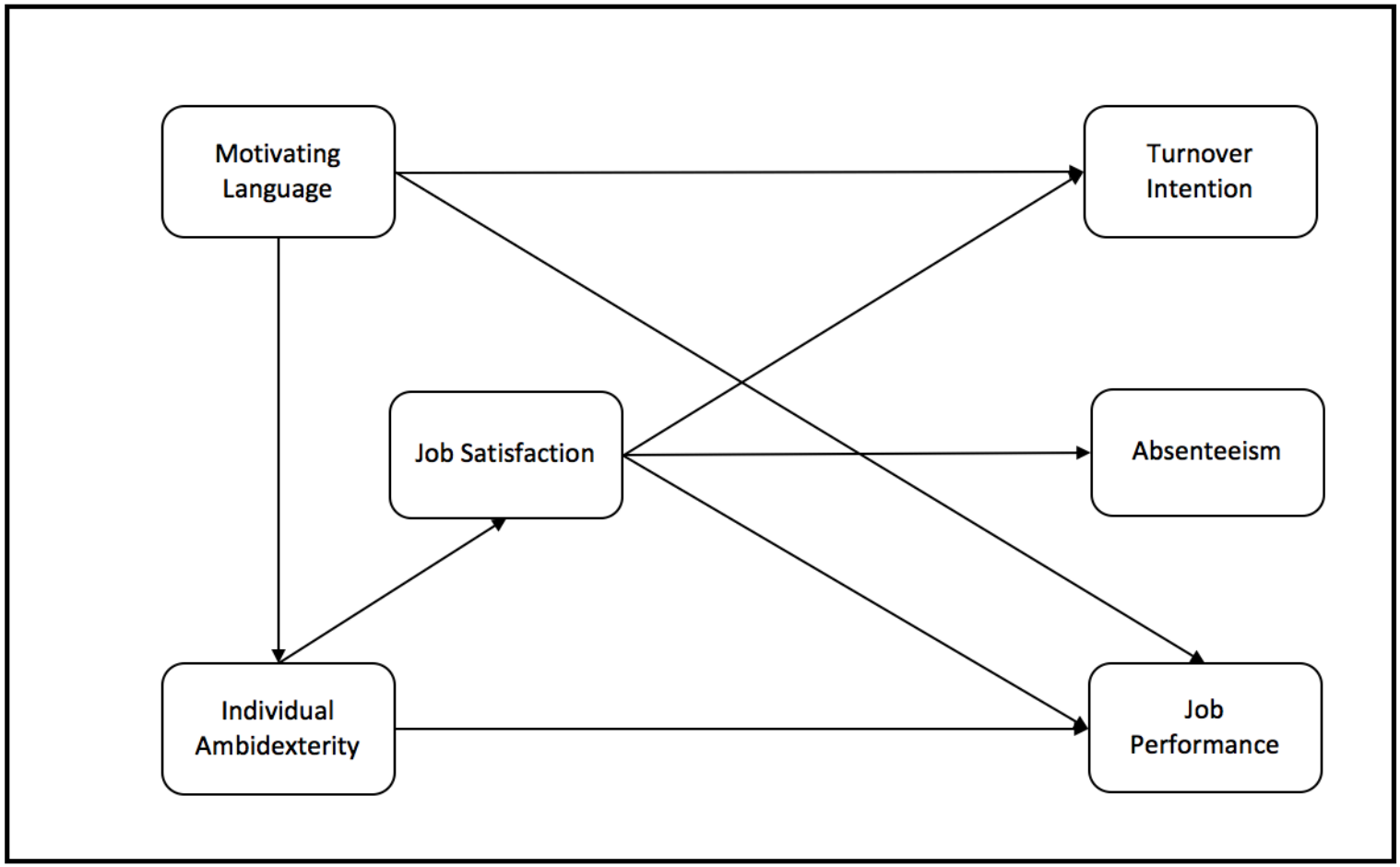
Path Comparisons: India vs. Vietnam

	India		Vietnam		Satterthwaite method	
Path	**Coefficient**	**SE**	**Coefficient**	**SE**	**T-value**	**P- value**
Individual ambidexterity						
Absenteeism	-0.10	0.07	-0.24	0.07	-1.07	0.14
Turnover intention	-0.18	0.07	-0.05	0.07	-1.31	**0.09**
Job satisfaction	0.27	0.07	0.17	0.07	1.06	0.15
Job performance	0.34	0.07	0.30	0.07	0.42	0.33
Motivating language						
Individual ambidexterity	0.66	0.06	0.63	0.06	0.32	0.37
Absenteeism	-0.10	0.07	-0.12	0.07	0.23	0.41
Turnover intention	-0.14	0.07	-0.10	0.07	-0.44	0.33
Job satisfaction	0.41	0.07	0.40	0.06	-0.08	0.47
Job performance	0.31	0.07	0.37	0.07	-0.65	0.26
Job satisfaction						
Absenteeism	-0.67	0.06	-0.24	0.07	-4.70	**0.00**
Turnover intention	-0.45	0.07	-0.19	0.07	-2.76	**0.00**
Job performance	0.19	0.07	0.11	0.07	0.80	0.21

Notes: SE= Standard error; the p-values are the results of the one-tailed test

Figure 5.4

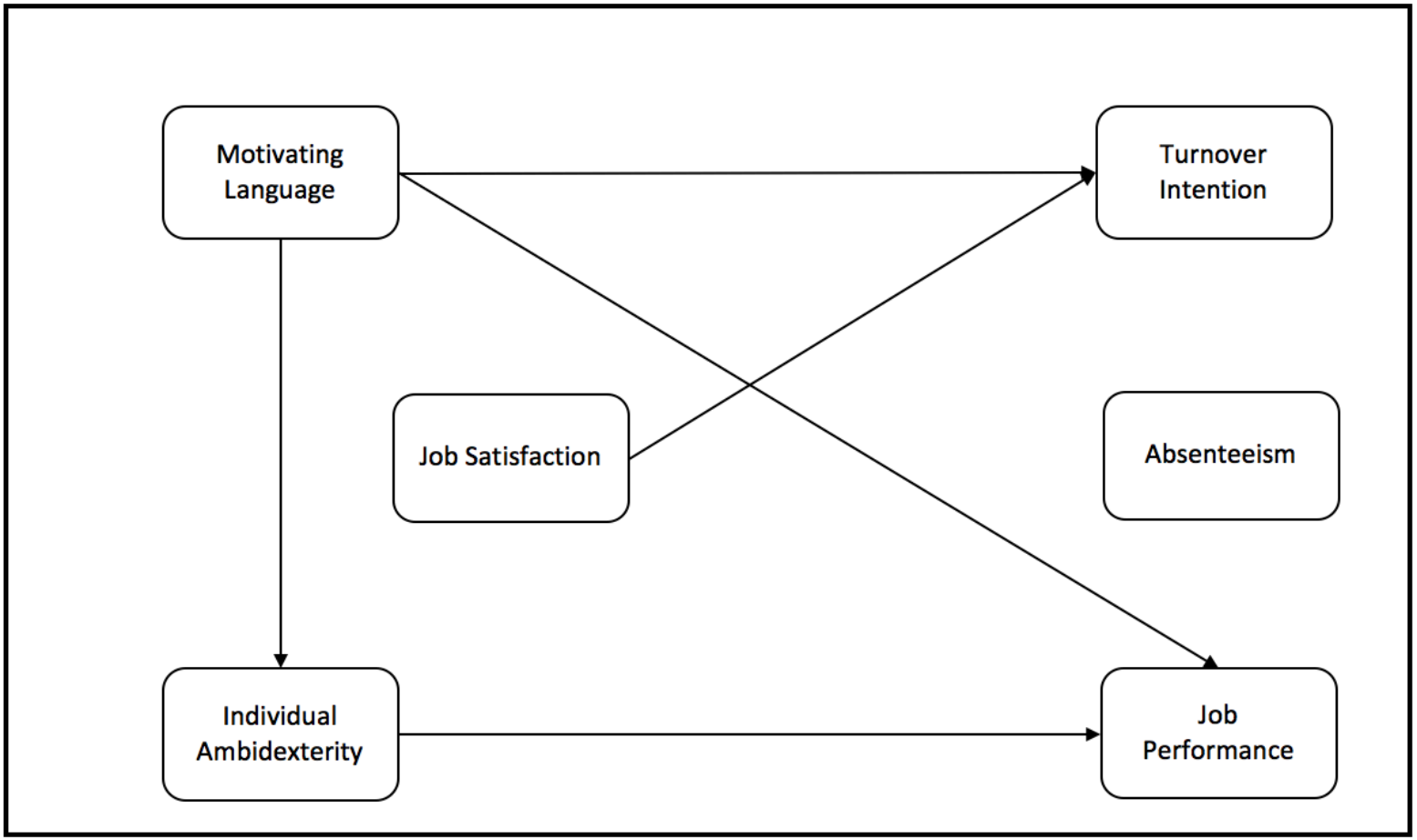
Country Comparison: U.S. vs. India



Note: ⟶ indicates link with significant difference

Figure 5.5

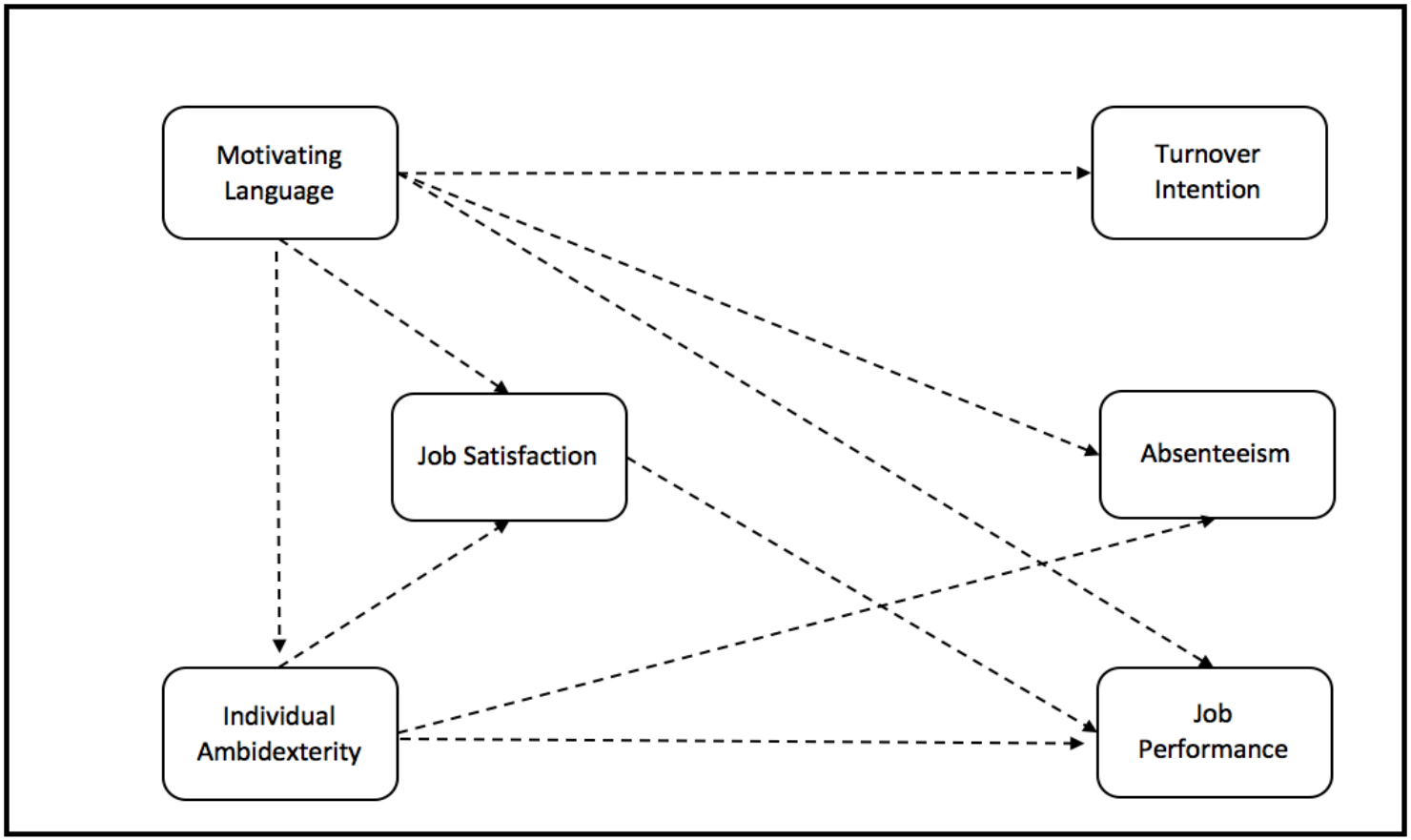
Country Comparison: U.S. vs. Vietnam



Note: ⟶ indicates link with significant difference

Figure 5.6

Country Comparison: India vs. Vietnam



Note: - - - -►indicates link with non-significant dfference

Table 5.20

Summary of Research Hypotheses Support

	India		U.S.		Vietnam	
Hypothesis	**Path**	**Findings**	**Path**	**Findings**	**Path**	**Findings**
H1: There is a significant and positive relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and the employee's individual ambidexterity.	0.66**	Supported	0.46**	Supported	0.63**	Supported
H2: There is a significant and negative relationship between the employees' individual ambidexterity and absenteeism.	-0.10*	Supported	-0.20*	Supported	-0.24**	Supported
H3: There is a significant and negative relationship between the employees' individual ambidexterity and turnover intention.	-0.18**	Supported	-0.15*	Supported	-0.05^{NS}	Not Supported
H4: There is a significant and positive relationship between the employees' individual ambidexterity and job satisfaction	0.27**	Supported	0.13*	Supported	0.17**	Supported

Note: * $\rho < .05$, ** $\rho < .01$

Table 5.20 Continued

	India		U.S.		Vietnam	
Hypothesis	**Path**	**Findings**	**Path**	**Findings**	**Path**	**Findings**
H5: There is a significant and positive relationship between the employees' individual ambidexterity and job performance.	0.34**	Supported	0.50**	Supported	0.30**	Supported
H6: There is a significant and negative relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and employees' absenteeism.	-0.10*	Supported	-0.10*	Supported	-0.12*	Supported
H7: There is a significant and negative relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and employees' turnover intention	-0.14*	Supported	-0.26*	Supported	-0.10*	Supported
H8: There is a significant and positive relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and employees' job satisfaction.	0.41**	Supported	0.43**	Supported	0.40**	Supported

Note: * $\rho < .05$, ** $\rho < .01$

Table 5.20 Continued

	India		U.S.		Vietnam	
Hypothesis	**Path**	**Findings**	**Path**	**Findings**	**Path**	**Findings**
H9: There is a significant and positive relationship between the manager's use of motivating language and employees' job performance.	0.31**	Supported	0.22*	Supported	0.37**	Supported
H10: There is a significant and negative relationship between employees' job satisfaction and absenteeism.	-0.67**	Supported	-0.33**	Supported	-0.24**	Supported
H11: There is a significant and negative relationship between employees' job satisfaction and turnover intention.	-0.45**	Supported	-0.67**	Supported	-0.19**	Supported
H12: There is a significant and positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and job performance.	0.19**	Supported	0.17*	Supported	0.11*	Supported

Note: * $\rho < .05$, ** $\rho < .01$

Table 5.20 Continued

Hypothesis	Findings	
H13: There are significant differences for the results between the U.S. and India.	Significant differences found for 8/12 paths.	Supported
H14: There are significant differences for the results between the U.S. and Vietnam.	Significant differences found for 5/12 paths.	Supported
H15: There are no significant differences for the results between India and Vietnam.	No significant differences found for 9/12 paths.	Supported

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

Overview

This chapter is the final chapter. It summarizes the findings of the empirical analysis. In addition, this chapter reviews the dissertation's potential implications in light of the research model presented in Chapter IV and the results shown in Chapter V. Furthermore, this chapter also addresses the limitations of the current study and offers directions for future research.

Findings

The goal of this study was to test a research model explaining the expected relationships between: 1) ML and IA, 2) IA and employee outcomes, 3) ML and employee outcomes, and 4) Job satisfaction and absenteeism, turnover intention, or job performance, for India, the U.S., and Vietnam. In addition, this dissertation wanted to compare the results for: 1) the U.S. versus India, 2) the U.S. versus Vietnam, and 3) India versus Vietnam. Overall, the SEM analysis showed a close fit between the proposed model and the data for each country (see Chapter V). The following paragraphs highlight the findings for each of the dependent variables for the three countries examined as well as the main findings for the three country pairs tested in this dissertation.

First, with regards to the ML-IA relationship, ML along with the control variables included in this study explained 51% of the variance in individual ambidexterity for respondents from India, 24% for respondents from the U.S. and 55% for respondents from Vietnam, respectively. Managerial use of ML is found to positively and significantly influence employees' IA across the three samples.

Second, the models show that ML and IA explained 39% of the variance in job satisfaction for respondents from India, 24% for respondents from the U.S. and 28% for respondents from Vietnam, respectively. Both managerial use of ML and employees' IA positively and significantly influenced employee job satisfaction across all three samples.

Third, the models show that ML, IA, and job satisfaction explained 52% of the variance in absenteeism for respondents from India, 28% for respondents from the U.S., and 20% for respondents from Vietnam. ML, IA, and job satisfaction are found to significantly and negatively impact employee absenteeism for respondents in India, the U.S., and Vietnam.

Fourth, the models show that ML, IA, and job satisfaction explained 46% of the variance in turnover intention for respondents in India, 48% for respondents in the U.S., and 26% for respondents in Vietnam. In the samples from India and the U.S., ML, IA, and job satisfaction are found to significantly decrease employees' turnover intention. However, in the Vietnamese sample, while ML and IA significantly decrease employee turnover intention, there is no significant relationship found for job satisfaction.

Fifth, the models show that ML, IA, and job satisfaction explained 54% of the variance in job performance for respondents in India, 39% for respondents in the U.S., and 47% for respondents in Vietnam. ML, IA, and job satisfaction are found to significantly and positively impact employees' job performance for the respondents in all three samples.

Sixth, regarding the comparison of models for the U.S. and India, significant differences are found in eight out of the twelve relationships examined. Significance at the 10% level is found for: IA→ Job satisfaction and Job satisfaction → Job performance. Significance at the 5% level is found for: 1) IA→ Job performance, 2) ML → IA, 3) ML → Turnover intention, and 4) Job satisfaction → Turnover intention. Moreover, significance at the 1% level is found for: the

relationship between ML and job performance and the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism.

Seventh, regarding the comparison of models for the U.S. and Vietnam, significant differences are found in five out of the twelve relationships studied. Significance at the 5% level is found for: 1) IA → Job performance, 2) ML → IA, and 3) ML → Turnover intention. In addition, significance at the 1% level is found for: the relationship between ML and job performance and the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Lastly, the model comparisons between India and Vietnam are found to be generally similar. No significant differences are found for nine of the twelve relationships studied. Regarding the IA-employee outcomes, only IA's impact on turnover intention varied significantly. With regards to ML's effect on employee outcomes, no relationship showed significant differences. Finally, job satisfaction's influence on absenteeism and turnover intention showed significance at the 1% level.

Implications

This study offers several implications to literature and practice. First, this dissertation responds to calls for the development of ambidexterity theory at the individual level of analysis (Gupta et al., 2006; Raisch, Birkinshaw, Probst, & Tushman, 2009). The few studies that have analyzed IA have mainly focused on how it impacts employee performance. This dissertation not only contributes to that literature by providing evidence of the IA-performance relationship from three separate countries: India, the U.S., and Vietnam, but it also examines how ambidexterity can impact other employee work-related outcomes including absenteeism, turnover intention, and job satisfaction for these three countries. Findings suggest that ambidexterity in the workplace can generally influence employee attitude and performance in a positive way. This

implies that firms need to recognize the importance of employee IA behaviors and find ways to foster employee ambidexterity. Developing a model for employee ambidexterity training can be fruitful for research and practical purposes.

Second, it has been outlined in the literature that one strategy for ambidexterity is one in which the leaders of the organization create a supportive context for employees to engage in exploitative and explorative behaviors (S. Parker, 2014). As such, ambidexterity is achieved when individuals are empowered to judge for themselves how to best divide their time between the conflicting demand of exploration and exploitation (Gibson & Birkinshaw, 2004). This study used insights from the motivating language literature to show that managers can motivating language to motivate such behaviors and foster employee ambidexterity. To my knowledge and notwithstanding the increasing research attention, this study is the first to empirically examine how leader communication can foster employees' exploitation and exploration behaviors. My findings support previous theory suggesting that leadership can directly influence employees' ambidextrous behaviors (Burgers et al., 2009; Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016). These findings suggest that training managers how to effectively use ML can be an impactful way to cultivate employees' ambidextrous behaviors. Moreover, this dissertation adds to the ML literature by providing more empirical evidence to the literature, specifically evidence from India and Vietnam. These findings support MLT in that managerial use of ML can effectively motivate employees. These results would strengthen the argument for firms to train their managers on ML for favorable employee attitudes and behaviors for employees of different national backgrounds.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Although this study provides some meaningful implications for research and practice, there are several limitations. However, these limitations might prove fruitful for future research.

First, there is no temporal separation between the state variables in the model. Although this study presented several calculations for causality (see Chapter V) in the analyses using experimental indices, incorporating longitudinal data can provide some validation to the causal ordering between: 1) ML and IA; 2) IA and employee outcomes; 3) ML and employee outcomes; and 4) Job satisfaction and absenteeism, turnover intention, or job performance. Similarly, future investigations may implement experimental designs to provide additional evidence for the causal relationships in the model.

Second, this investigation relied on employees' self-reports regarding the extent to which they pursued exploitative and explorative behaviors. Although the scales used to assess these behaviors are designed and validated to be self-reported (Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016; Mom et al., 2009), future research should also investigate whether supervisory or peer assessments of these behaviors yield similar results. Relatedly, I also relied on the employees' perspective of their manager's extent of motivating language use and self-reported performance, future studies should collect and analyze data from the manager's perspective of his/her use of motivating language and the employee's performance to examine if the model yields comparable effects.

Third, although this dissertation hypothesized and found several differences for India, the U.S., and Vietnam, it did test for the exact causes for these differences. Future studies can explore how specific cultural or economic factors may influence employees' attitudes and behaviors.

Fourth, this research captured only the extent to which employees pursued exploitative and explorative behaviors in the workplace. It was unable to determine how these activities intertwine; in other words, whether the individuals engage in these behaviors synchronously or whether they temporally cycled between longer periods of exploitation and exploration (see,

Simsek, 2009). Future research should more thoroughly investigate how individuals accommodate and alternate between such behaviors. Fifth, a mixed methods approach for data collection (i.e. qualitative and quantitative) may offer a richer understanding of the research model. Furthermore, this study investigated ambidexterity from the behavioral perspective. Future works should examine IA from the cognitive (Good & Michel, 2013; Kauppila & Tempelaar, 2016) to see if the results are similar.

Conclusion

Previous ambidexterity studies have focused on analyzing ambidexterity on a macro level, such as groups and firms (Birkinshaw & Gibson, 2004). In addition, the few studies that have analyzed ambidexterity at the individual level remains fragmented. As such, this dissertation focuses on all individual level variables and analyze how IA impact such variables.

Drawing on research on motivating language, I hypothesized and found that managerial use of ML can significantly and positively influence employees' ambidextrous in three separate national settings: India, the U.S. and Vietnam. I also demonstrated that these behaviors can lead to several favorable employee outcomes including, reducing absenteeism and turnover intention, and increasing job satisfaction and performance. Furthermore, I provided more international evidence to the motivating language literature by finding that ML can effectively motivate Indian and Vietnamese employees.

Although this dissertation provides some useful evidence and results, the findings should be considered tentative, given the limitations of the study. Future studies are needed to refine this work and to provide additional insights into the literature and practice.

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APPENDIX A

SURVEY INSTRUMENT IN ENGLISH

The questions below were answered on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "1- Strongly Disagree" to "5- Strongly Agree".

Turnover Intention

1. I will probably look for a new job in the near future.
2. At the present time, I am actively searching for another job in a different organization.
3. I do NOT intend to quit my job.
4. It is unlikely that I will actively look for a different organization to work for in the next year.

Attitude toward Absenteeism

1. I never miss work.
2. I miss work far more often than my co-workers.
3. I would only miss work under very exceptional circumstances.
4. I have been reprimanded for the number of my absences.
5. I take pride in not missing work.
6. I am often absent from work.
7. I feel bad if I have to miss work.
8. I don't care if I have to miss work.
9. I feel like I have let my company down if I miss work.
10. I enjoy days when I am absent from work.

Job Satisfaction

1. People on this job often think of quitting.
2. Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job.
3. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.
4. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.
5. I frequently think of quitting this job.

The questions below were answered on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "1- Below Average" to "5- Excellent".

Job Performance

1. Which of the following selections best describes how your supervisor rated you on your last formal performance evaluation?
2. How does your level of production quantity compare to that of your colleagues' productivity levels?
3. How does the quality of your products or services compare to your colleagues' output?
4. How efficiently do you work compared to your colleagues? In other words, how well do you use available resources (money, people, equipment, etc.)?
5. Compared to your colleagues, how good are you at preventing or minimizing potential work problems before they occur?
6. Compared to your colleagues, how effective are you with keeping up with changes that could affect the way you work?
7. How quickly do you adjust to work changes compared to your colleagues?

8. How well would you rate yourself compared to your colleagues in adjusting to new work changes?
9. How well do you handle work place emergencies (such as crisis deadlines, unexpected personnel issues, resource allocation problems, etc.) compared to your colleagues?

The questions below were answered on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "1- Very Seldom" to "5- Always".

Motivating Language[1]

Direction-Giving Language

1. My supervisor provides useful explanations of what I must do at my job.
2. My supervisor effectively guides me on how to do my job.
3. My supervisor gives me easy to understand instructions about my work.
4. My supervisor provides useful tips on how to improve my work.
5. My supervisor clarifies what it is I must do to receive rewards (additional).
6. My supervisor gives me clear instructions on how to solve work problems.
7. My supervisor provides specific information about how I am being evaluated.
8. My supervisor provides relevant information regarding upcoming changes that may affect my work.
9. My supervisor provides relevant information regarding previous changes that affect my work.

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10. My supervisor shares with me news about organizational achievements and financial conditions.

Meaning-Making Language

1. My supervisor tells me stories about past notable organizational events.
2. My supervisor provides me with useful information that I could not otherwise obtain through official channels.
3. My supervisor tells me stories about people who are admired in this organization.
4. My supervisor tells me stories about people who have worked hard in this organization.
5. My supervisor offers advice on how to behave in the organization's social events.
6. My supervisor gives me tips on how to "fit in" with other members of this organization.
7. My supervisor tells me stories about people who have been paid by this organization.
8. My supervisor tells me stories about people who have left this organization.

Empathetic Language

1. My supervisor praises my good work.
2. My supervisor motivates me to make an effort at work.
3. My supervisor shows concern for my job satisfaction.
4. My supervisor expresses support for my professional development.
5. My supervisor asks me about my professional wellbeing.
6. My supervisor shows confidence in me.

The questions below were answered on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from "1- To A Very Small Extent" to "7- To A Very Large Extent".

Individual Ambidexterity

To what extent did you, last year, engage in work related activities that can be characterized as follows:

Exploration

1. Searching for new possibilities with respect to my work.
2. Evaluating diverse options with respect to my work.
3. Focusing on strong renewal of products/services or processes with respect to my work.
4. Activities of which the associated yields or costs are currently unclear.
5. Activities requiring quite some adaptability of you.
6. Activities requiring you to learn new skills or knowledge.
7. Activities that are not (yet) clearly existing company policy.

Exploitation

1. Activities of which a lot of experience has been accumulated by yourself.
2. Activities which you carry out as if it were routine.
3. Activities which serve existing (internal) customers with existing services/products.
4. Activities of which it is clear to you how to conduct them.
5. Activities primarily focused on achieving short-term goals.
6. Activities which you can properly conduct by using your present knowledge.
7. Activities which clearly fit into company policy.

Cultural Manipulation Check

The questions below were answered on a Likert-type scale ranging from "1 – Very strongly agree" to "7 – Very strongly disagree".

Individualism

1. In your ideal job, how important is it to you to have a job which leaves you enough time for your personal or family life?
2. In your ideal job, how important is it to you to have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)?
3. In your ideal job, how important is it to you to have training opportunities (to improve your skills or to learn new skills)?

Demographics[2]

1. What is your gender? [ ] Male [ ] Female

2. What is your marital status? [ ] Single [ ] Married

   [ ] Divorced [ ] Widow/Widower

3. How would you categorize your racial/ethnic group?[3]

   [ ] White (non-Hispanic)

   [ ] Black or African-American

   [ ] Hispanic or Latino

   [ ] Asian or Asian-American

   [ ] Middle Eastern

   [ ] Native American

   [ ] Mixed Race

   [ ] Other _____

4. What is your age? _____

5. What gender is your immediate supervisor? [ ] Female [ ] Male

6. What is your highest educational attainment?

   [ ] Some High School

   [ ] High School

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[3] Asked only to U.S. workers

[ ] Associates Degree

[ ] Bachelor's Degree

[ ] Masters

[ ] Doctorate/MD/JD/other terminal degree

[ ] Other _____

7. Which of the following best describes your educational background?

[ ] Business and Social Science

[ ] Technology and Engineering

[ ] Forestry and Agriculture

[ ] Healthcare

[ ] Education

[ ] Other _____

8. Which of the following best describes your position level?

[ ] Associate/Worker

[ ] Team Supervisor

[ ] Operational-level Management

[ ] Middle Management

[ ] Top Management

9. Approximately how many years have you worked for your current employer? _____

10. Approximately how many years have you worked in your current job position? _____

11. Approximately how many years have you worked for your current boss? _____

12. Which of the following best describes your job?

[ ] Unskilled Labor (requires little or no training to perform)

[ ] Skilled Labor (requires moderate levels of training to perform)

[ ] Professional Work (requires high levels of training and/or specialized certification to perform)

13. Which of the following best describes your department in the organization?

[ ] Sales

[ ] Marketing and Communications

[ ] General Administration

[ ] Human Resources

[ ] Finance and Accounting

[ ] Customer Service and Support

[ ] Research & Development

[ ] Project and System Administration

[ ] Other _____

14. Which sector best describes the organization where you currently work?

[ ] Manufacturing and Production

[ ] Sales and Services

[ ] Education

[ ] Healthcare

[ ] Other _____

14. How would you classify your organization´s size?

[ ] Small (less than 100 employees)

[ ] Medium (100 to 1,000 employees)

[ ] Large (more than 1,000 employees)

15. I am currently working:

[ ] Part Time

[ ] Full Time

[ ] Temporary Position

[ ] Not Working

APPENDIX B

SURVEY INSTRUMENT IN VIETNAMESE

Turnover Intention

1. Tôi có thể sẽ tìm kiếm một công việc mới trong tương lai gần.
2. Hiện tại, tôi đang tích cực tìm kiếm một công việc khác trong một tổ chức khác.
3. Tôi KHÔNG có ý định bỏ việc.
4. Không chắc rằng tôi sẽ tích cực tìm kiếm một tổ chức khác để làm việc trong năm tới.
5. Tôi không nghĩ đến việc bỏ việc tại thời điểm hiện tại.

Attitude toward Absenteeism

1. Tôi không bao giờ bỏ lỡ công việc.
2. Tôi nhớ công việc thường xuyên hơn nhiều so với đồng nghiệp của tôi.
3. Tôi sẽ chỉ bỏ lỡ công việc trong những hoàn cảnh rất đặc biệt.
4. Tôi đã bị khiển trách vì số lần vắng mặt của tôi.
5. Tôi tự hào vì không bỏ lỡ công việc.
6. Tôi thường vắng mặt trong công việc.
7. Tôi cảm thấy tồi tệ là tôi phải bỏ lỡ công việc.
8. Tôi không quan tâm nếu tôi phải bỏ lỡ công việc.
9. Tôi cảm thấy như tôi đã để cho công ty của tôi xuống nếu tôi bỏ lỡ công việc.
10. Tôi thích những ngày khi tôi vắng mặt.

Job Satisfaction

1. Mọi người trong công việc này thường nghĩ đến việc bỏ thuốc.
2. Hầu hết mọi người trong công việc này đều rất hài lòng với công việc.
3. Tôi thường hài lòng với loại công việc tôi làm trong công việc này.
4. Nói chung, tôi rất hài lòng với công việc này.
5. Tôi thường nghĩ đến việc từ bỏ công việc này.

Job Performance

1. Lựa chọn nào sau đây mô tả đúng nhất cách giám sát viên của bạn xếp hạng bạn trong lần đánh giá hiệu suất chính thức cuối cùng của bạn?
2. Mức sản lượng của bạn so với mức sản lượng của đồng nghiệp của bạn như thế nào?
3. Chất lượng sản phẩm hoặc dịch vụ của bạn so với sản lượng của đồng nghiệp như thế nào?
4. Bạn làm việc hiệu quả như thế nào so với các đồng nghiệp của bạn? Nói cách khác, bạn sử dụng tài nguyên sẵn có như thế nào (tiền bạc, con người, thiết bị, v.v ...)?
5. So với các đồng nghiệp của bạn, bạn có thể ngăn ngừa hoặc giảm thiểu các vấn đề công việc tiềm năng trước khi chúng xảy ra như thế nào?
6. So với các đồng nghiệp của bạn, bạn có hiệu quả như thế nào với việc theo kịp những thay đổi có thể ảnh hưởng đến cách bạn làm việc?
7. Bạn điều chỉnh nhanh như thế nào để thay đổi công việc so với các đồng nghiệp của bạn?
8. Bạn đánh giá chính mình như thế nào so với các đồng nghiệp của bạn trong việc điều chỉnh các thay đổi công việc mới?

9. Làm thế nào để bạn xử lý các trường hợp khẩn cấp nơi làm việc (như thời hạn khủng hoảng, các vấn đề nhân sự bất ngờ, các vấn đề phân bổ nguồn lực, vv) so với các đồng nghiệp của bạn?

Motivating Language

Direction-Giving Language

Các ví dụ dưới đây cho thấy các cách khác nhau mà người giám sát của bạn liên lạc với bạn. Vui lòng chọn câu trả lời thể hiện tốt nhất nhận thức của bạn và đánh dấu chúng bằng dấu X.

1. Người giám sát của tôi cung cấp các giải thích hữu ích về những gì tôi phải làm trong công việc của tôi.
2. Người giám sát của tôi hướng dẫn tôi cách thực hiện công việc của tôi một cách hiệu quả.
3. Người giám sát của tôi cho tôi dễ hiểu các hướng dẫn về công việc của tôi.
4. Người giám sát của tôi cung cấp các mẹo hữu ích về cách cải thiện công việc của tôi.
5. Người giám sát của tôi làm rõ những gì tôi phải làm để nhận phần thưởng (bổ sung).
6. Giám sát viên của tôi cung cấp cho tôi hướng dẫn rõ ràng về cách giải quyết vấn đề công việc.
7. Giám sát viên của tôi cung cấp thông tin cụ thể về cách tôi đang được đánh giá.
8. Giám sát viên của tôi cung cấp thông tin liên quan về các thay đổi sắp tới có thể ảnh hưởng đến công việc của tôi.
9. Giám sát viên của tôi cung cấp thông tin liên quan về các thay đổi trước đó ảnh hưởng đến công việc của tôi.
10. Giám sát viên của tôi chia sẻ với tôi tin tức về thành tích và điều kiện tài chính của tổ chức.

Meaning-Making Language

1. Giám sát viên của tôi kể cho tôi những câu chuyện về các sự kiện tổ chức đáng chú ý trong quá khứ.
2. Người giám sát của tôi cung cấp cho tôi thông tin hữu ích mà tôi không thể có được thông qua các kênh chính thức.
3. Người giám sát của tôi kể cho tôi những câu chuyện về những người được ngưỡng mộ trong tổ chức này.
4. Người giám sát của tôi kể cho tôi những câu chuyện về những người đã làm việc chăm chỉ trong tổ chức này.
5. Người giám sát của tôi đưa ra lời khuyên về cách ứng xử trong các sự kiện xã hội của tổ chức.
6. Người giám sát của tôi cho tôi những lời khuyên về cách "phù hợp" với các thành viên khác của tổ chức này.
7. Người giám sát của tôi kể cho tôi những câu chuyện về những người đã được tổ chức này trả tiền.
8. Giám sát viên của tôi kể cho tôi những câu chuyện về những người đã rời khỏi tổ chức này.

Empathetic Language

1. Người giám sát của tôi ca ngợi công việc tốt của tôi.
2. Giám sát viên của tôi thúc đẩy tôi nỗ lực làm việc.
3. Giám sát viên của tôi thể hiện sự quan tâm đến sự hài lòng công việc của tôi.
4. Giám sát viên của tôi thể hiện sự hỗ trợ cho sự phát triển nghề nghiệp của tôi.
5. Người giám sát của tôi hỏi tôi về hạnh phúc nghề nghiệp của tôi.
6. Người giám sát của tôi thể hiện sự tự tin trong tôi.

Individual Ambidexterity

Bạn đã ở mức độ nào trong năm ngoái, tham gia vào các hoạt động liên quan đến công việc có thể được mô tả như sau:

Exploration

1. Tìm kiếm các khả năng mới liên quan đến công việc của tôi.
2. Đánh giá các lựa chọn đa dạng về công việc của tôi.
3. Tập trung vào việc gia hạn mạnh mẽ các sản phẩm / dịch vụ hoặc quy trình liên quan đến công việc của tôi.
4. Các hoạt động mà sản lượng hoặc chi phí liên quan hiện không rõ rang.
5. Các hoạt động đòi hỏi khả năng thích ứng của bạn.
6. Các hoạt động đòi hỏi bạn phải học các kỹ năng hoặc kiến thức mới.
7. Các hoạt động chưa chính sách của công ty.

Exploitation

1. Các hoạt động mà chính bạn đã tích lũy được rất nhiều kinh nghiệm.
2. Các hoạt động mà bạn thực hiện như thể nó là thói quen.
3. Các hoạt động phục vụ khách hàng hiện tại (nội bộ) với các dịch vụ / sản phẩm hiện có.
4. Các hoạt động trong đó rõ ràng với bạn về cách thực hiện chúng.
5. Các hoạt động chủ yếu tập trung vào việc đạt được các mục tiêu ngắn hạn.
6. Các hoạt động mà bạn có thể thực hiện đúng cách bằng cách sử dụng kiến thức hiện tại của bạn.
7. Các hoạt động phù hợp rõ ràng với chính sách của công ty.

Cultural Manipulation Check

Individualism

1. Trong công việc lý tưởng của bạn, làm thế nào quan trọng là nó để bạn có một công việc mà lá bạn đủ thời gian cho cuộc sống cá nhân hoặc gia đình của bạn?
2. Trong công việc lý tưởng của bạn, bạn quan trọng đến mức nào để có điều kiện làm việc tốt (thông gió tốt và ánh sáng, không gian làm việc phù hợp, v.v.)?
3. Trong công việc lý tưởng của bạn, bạn quan trọng như thế nào để có cơ hội đào tạo (để nâng cao kỹ năng của bạn hoặc học các kỹ năng mới)?

Demographics

1. Giới tính của bạn là gì? [ ] Nam [ ] Nữ

2. Tình trạng hôn nhân của bạn là gì? [ ] Độc than [ ] Kết hôn

[ ] Ly dị [ ] Góa phụ / góa phụ

3. Bạn bao nhiêu tuổi? _____

4. Giới tính của người giám đốc của bạn là gì? [ ] Nam [ ] Nữ

5. Trình độ học vấn cao nhất của bạn là gì?

[ ] Một số trường trung học

[ ] Trung học

[ ] Mức độ

[ ] Bằng cử nhân

[ ] Thạc sĩ

[ ] Tiến sĩ / MD / JD / mức độ thiết bị đầu cuối khác

[ ] Khác _____

6. Điều nào sau đây mô tả đúng nhất nền giáo dục của bạn?

[ ] Khoa học kinh doanh và xã hội

[ ] Công nghệ và Kỹ thuật

[ ] Lâm nghiệp và nông nghiệp

[ ] Chăm sóc sức khỏe

[ ] Giáo dục

[ ] Khác _____

7. Lựa chọn nào sau đây mô tả đúng nhất về cấp độ vị trí của bạn?

[ ] Liên kết / Công nhân

[ ] Giám sát viên nhóm

[ ] Quản lý cấp độ hoạt động

[ ] Quản li trung gian

[ ] Quản lý hàng đầu

8. Bạn đã làm việc cho công ty hiện tại của mình bao nhiêu năm? _____

9. Khoảng bao nhiêu năm bạn đã làm việc ở vị trí công việc hiện tại của bạn? _____

10. Khoảng bao nhiêu năm bạn đã làm việc cho ông chủ hiện tại của bạn? _____

11. Điều nào sau đây mô tả đúng nhất công việc của bạn?

[ ] Lao động không có kỹ năng (yêu cầu ít hoặc không có đào tạo để thực hiện)

[ ] Lao động có tay nghề cao (yêu cầu mức đào tạo vừa phải để thực hiện)

[ ] Công việc chuyên nghiệp (yêu cầu cấp độ đào tạo cao và / hoặc chứng chỉ chuyên môn để thực hiện)

12. Điều nào sau đây mô tả đúng nhất bộ phận của bạn trong tổ chức?

[ ] Bán hàng

[ ] Tiếp thị và Truyền thông

[ ] Quản lý chung

[ ] Nguồn nhân lực

[ ] Tài chính và kế toán

[ ] Dịch vụ khách hàng và hỗ trợ

[ ] Nghiên cứu & Phát triển

[ ] Quản lý dự án và hệ thống

[ ] Khác _____

13. Khu vực nào mô tả tốt nhất tổ chức mà bạn hiện đang làm việc?

[ ] Chế tạo và sản xuất

[ ] Bán hàng và dịch vụ

[ ] Giáo dục

[ ] Chăm sóc sức khỏe

[ ] Khác _____

14. Bạn sẽ phân loại kích cỡ của công ty của bạn?

[ ] Nhỏ (dưới 100 nhân viên)

[ ] Trung bình (100 đến 1.000 nhân viên)

[ ] Lớn (hơn 1.000 nhân viên)

15. Tôi hiện đang làm việc:

[ ] Bán thời gian

[ ] Toàn thời gian

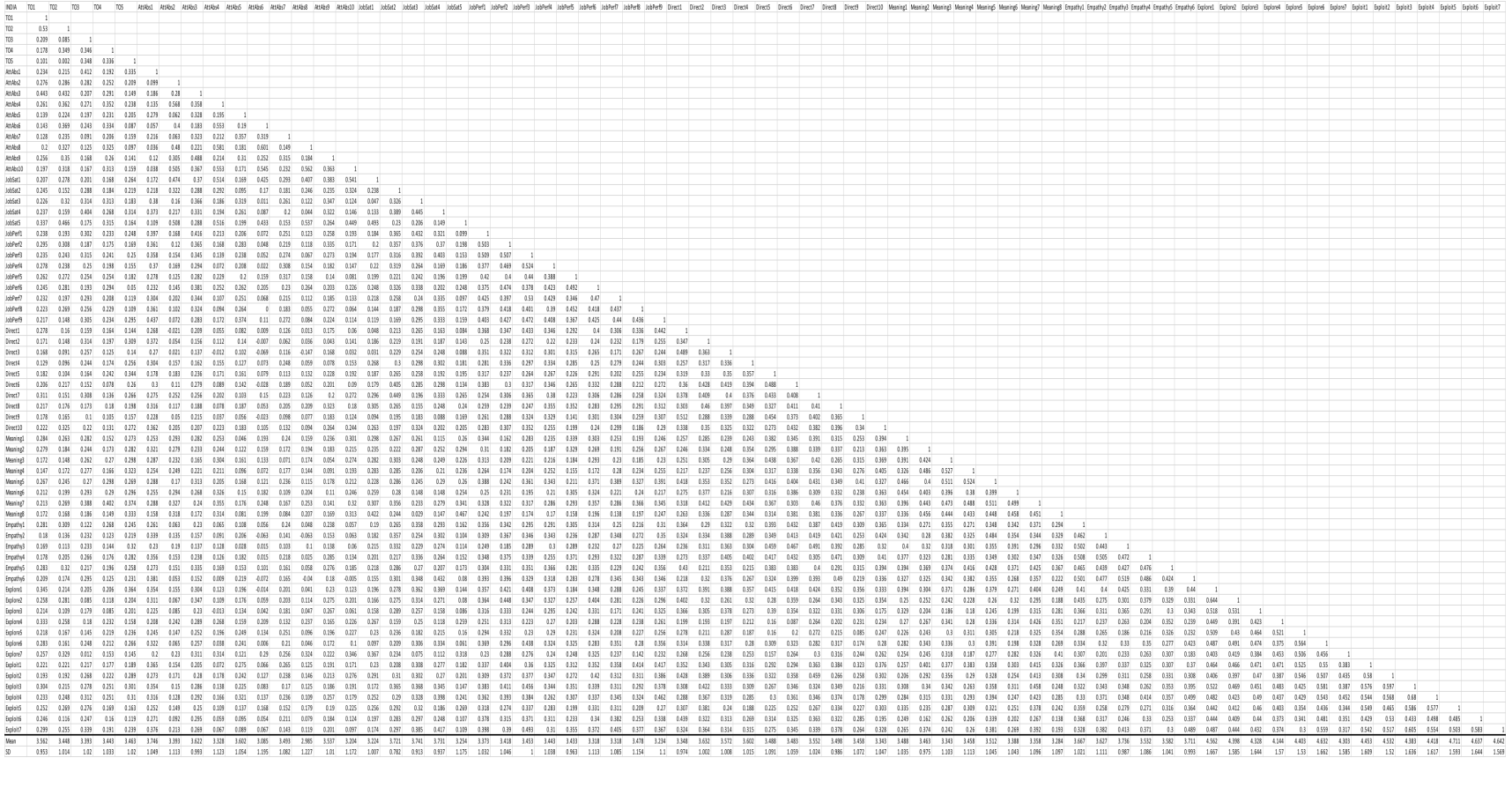
[ ] Vị trí tạm thời

[ ] Không làm việc

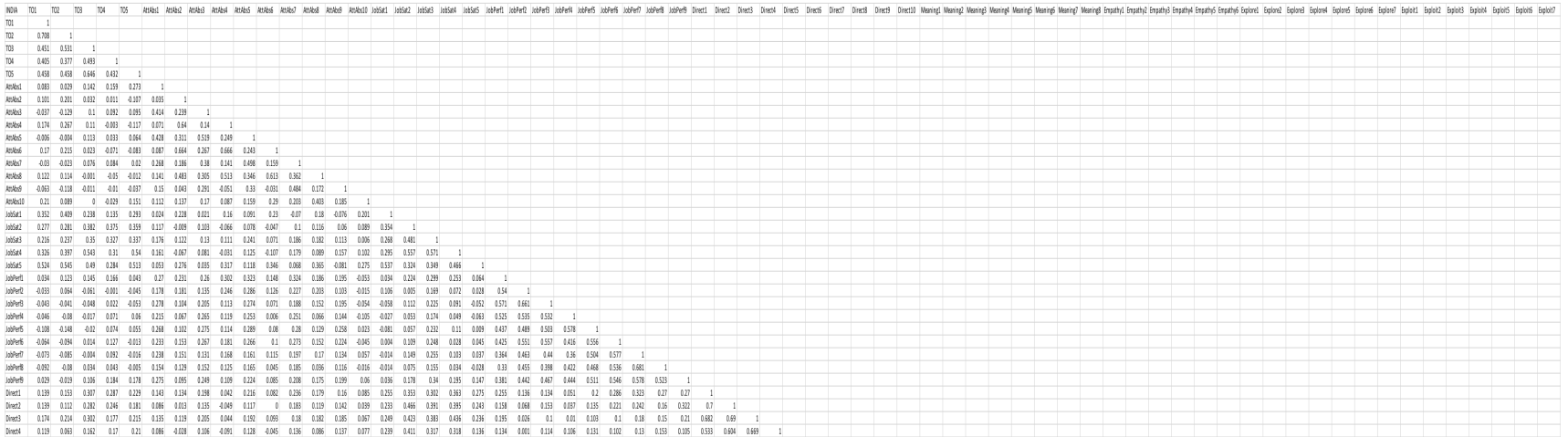
APPENDIX C

INDICATOR CORRELATIONS

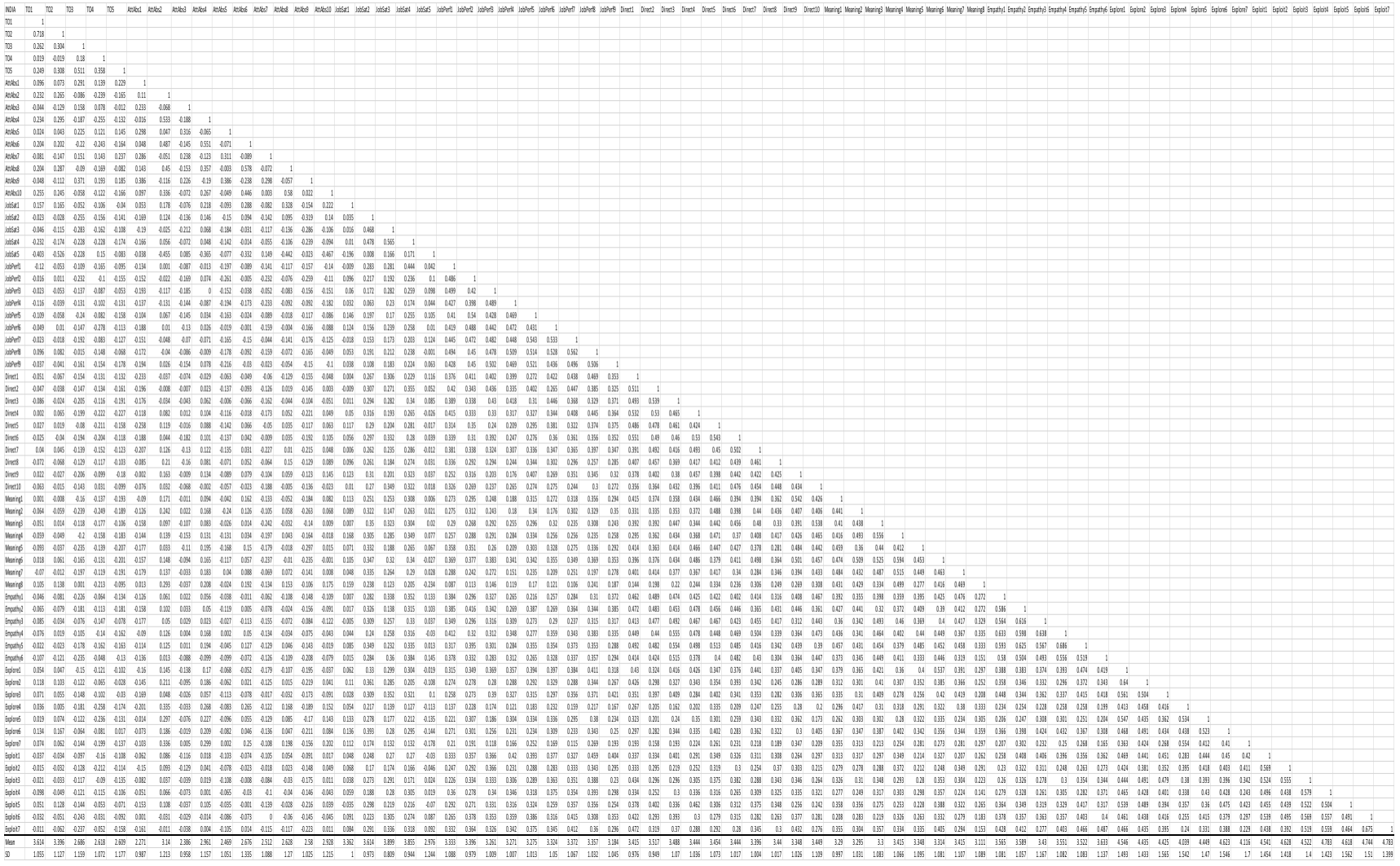
Indicator Correlation Matrix for India



Indicator Correlation Matrix for the U.S.



Indicator Correlation Matrix for Vietnam



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