THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, SOCIETAL

CULTURE, AND LEADERSHIP STYLES

by

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Abstract

In an increasingly globalized marketplace and society, the need for leaders who understand fundamental differences in cultures has new relevance and importance. Advocates of multiculturalism suggest that all cultures are equal and make important contributions to the human experience, whereas opponents point to the increased incidence of violence and social upheaval that has been associated with multiculturalism. In this environment, it is little wonder that corporate leaders confronted with diverse workforces are searching for more effective leadership techniques to help them achieve their organizational goals while acknowledging and balancing the needs of their employees. The purpose of this study was to identify the relationship, to the extent that it exists, between organizational culture and societal culture; identify what leadership styles are most effective in terms of achieving organizational goals while balancing the needs of the workers involved; identify relevant cross-cultural issues that may affect leadership styles in an increasingly multicultural society; and determine how leadership styles vary in cultures around the world based on the larger society in which they exist. To this end, I conducted a survey, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), to identify relevant issues concerning the relationship between organizational culture and the larger societal culture in which it exists and to formulate recommendations for corporate leaders in multicultural settings concerning effective leadership approaches. I presented a summary of the research and found pertinent traits that characterize effective leaders in various societal settings such as; feel trust, loyalty, and respect toward their leaders. The findings can thus be used as a basis for cultural change within any organization.

Keywords: Culture, Leadership Styles, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ).

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to the memory of my loving parents, John S. and Susan E. and my brothers, John C. and Floyd E.. Because of their boundless and unselfish love, support and tremendous sacrifice, I was able to go forth and achieve things that were impossible for them to achieve during their lifetime. They taught me to believe that nothing is impossible with God.

My father served as a model for my ten brothers and me of what an honorable and dedicated father and husband can achieve through the grace and mercy of God. My mother, with a very limited education, was one of the wisest and strongest individuals I have ever known and will always admire. When I thought I couldn't, she was determined that I could and she never accepted the statement, "no, I can't" as an answer. It is because of the encouragement and love of my parents that I have been able to stretch far beyond my comfort zone to meet life's challenges with faith and courage and accept God's blessings with humility and thanksgiving.

To all of my children, EJ, JoEd, Tamesha and AJ, I issue you a challenge. If Daddy is able, you can with God on your side! To all persons in the world, I implore you to recognize that every other person is a unique individual with unique characteristics and cultures and should be treated as unique and very much so, as distinct.

No work of this magnitude can be claimed as the achievement of any one individual. Rather, it is a tapestry woven of thousands of interactions and experiences. Each thread depends upon the strength of those supporting it. My family, my friends, my advisors, and my teachers form those threads. Together, we achieved. I thank you.

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Acknowledgments

First I thank God for giving me the strength and fortitude to come this far and accomplish so much success.

Although any learning activity – the purist of a graduate terminal degree in this case – is a lonely personal project, it requires help, support and encouragement of others to be successful. Just as an eagle could not soar without the invisible strength of the wind, I could not have arrived at this place without all the invisible hands that provided me strength. I would like to present my humble appreciation and gratefulness to all the people who made this journey possible. I am in debt to those who knowingly and unknowingly were so helpful and important in the difficult moments.

I wish to thank several individuals who have provided expertise, encouragement, and assistance in the accomplishment of this educational endeavor. When I say I couldn't have done it without the help of others, I am not simply passing on a trite compliment; I mean it!

There is no doubt in my mind that without the persistence of Dr. Thomas L. Driver, this dissertation would never have been completed. Therefore, I would like to thank my mentor and committee chair, Dr. Driver, and each of my committee members, Dr. Irving Buchen for sharing their knowledge, expertise, and words of encouragement and Dr. Tyjuan Lee, your continued patience showed you cared.

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No work of this magnitude can be claimed as the achievement of any one individual. Rather, it is a tapestry woven of thousands of interactions and experiences. Each thread depends upon the strength of those supporting it. My family, my friends, my advisors, my teachers, and just as important, my committee form those threads. Together, we achieved. I thank you.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Effective leadership is as crucial (if not more so) in a functional entity or organization as it is throughout countries, politics, military or even local school districts. Functional organizations are no different from any other type of organization in terms of striving for globally competitive performance. Because organizations and their environments have transformed quickly in recent years, a new style of leadership that is less bureaucratic and more democratic is required to ensure the organization's survival and performance (Johnson, 1995).

I focused on the relationship between organizational culture, societal culture, and leadership styles. In undertaking any research, it is necessary to establish the need for such a study and to clearly set out the intentions of the research. By so doing, I provided a point of reference against which other researchers can assess the outcomes of the research. The intention of this chapter is to set the research context and define the aim and objectives of this work. I also briefly discussed the scope of the research, the research methodology, and the main contribution by the study to knowledge, followed by an outline of how the study was researched, as depicted in Appendix A.

In this dissertation, I focused on the relationship among organizational culture, societal culture, and leadership styles. In this chapter, I provided the introduction, background, and motivation for this research. I also discussed the problem statement, specified the aims, and explained the research model. I gave the paradigm perspectives of

the research, including the relevant paradigms, meta-theoretical statements, and theoretical models. Thereafter, I presented the research design and methodology and provided the chapter layout as well as concluding chapters with findings and study recommendations.

Because of the increased globalization of industrial organizations and interdependencies among nations, the need for better understanding of cultural influences on leadership and organizational practices has never been greater. Situations that leaders and would-be-leaders must face are highly complex, constantly changing, and difficult to interpret. More than ever before, managers of international firms face fierce and rapidly changing international competition. The trend toward the global economic village is clear, and the 21st century may become known as the century of the "*global world*" (McFarland, Senen, & Childress, 1993).

In order to maximize efforts, it is important for firms to be more aware of leadership style and its interrelationship with corporate culture because the fit of both variables has been noted to determine the success of firms in the future (Block, 2003; Carey & Ogden, 1998; Cartwright & Cooper, 1993) because the diverse behaviors and strengths of races and genders are likely to diminish in strong cultures as people attempt to fit in (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Silverthorne, 2004).

Past researchers have shown that a positive corporate culture and effective leadership style can enhance organizational commitment and increase the consistency of employee behavior (Lok & Crawford, 2004; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). Leaders empower subordinates through their hierarchical position (Hirschhorn, 1997). The role of hierarchical position brings about some changes in leadership roles. The leader willingly

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becomes dependent on followers and vulnerable to their mistakes because the empowered subordinates support him or her. A leader hoping to manage their vulnerability actually makes the organization more vulnerable. This stance leads to open organizational culture. The postmodern organization sustains a "culture of being open to others," that is, a "culture of openness" (Hirschhorn, p. 139). Without such a culture, the postmodern organization is likely to fail.

For leaders to be effective, according to this view, issues related to the culture must be clearly identified. The study of leadership coincides with the study of cultures; how leaders evolve from societal dictates and how societal dictates mold and evolve new leaders. Over the past decade, *culture* has become a common term used when thinking about and describing an organization's internal world, a way of differentiating one organization's personality from another. Many researchers contend that an organization's culture socializes people.

Hofstede (1977) studied culture in organizations. Leaders and their styles influence the way people understand society. The leader's job is to create conditions for the team to be effective (Ginnett, 1996). It is important that an organization understand the cultural environment and recognize the type of leadership style that best serves the organization's culture to ensure operational continuity. In this research study, I addressed the question of what relationship exists between organizational culture, societal culture, and leadership styles.

The amount of research on organizational culture has increased over the last 3 decades because researchers concluded that culture was an important factor that contributed to the overall effectiveness of an organization (Hofstede, 1998a).

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Organizational culture is a cognitive phenomenon and employees have common norms, values, and beliefs; consequently, it becomes a direct link to understanding and influencing how people in an organization think and act (Trice & Beyer, 1993). I explored the relationship between culture and leadership to determine the extent of cultural influence on leadership. For leaders to be effective, according to this view, issues related to the culture must be clearly identified.

Before defining leadership, researchers conducting leadership empirical studies focused on the characteristics of efficient leadership, leadership practices, or the skills and characteristics of a leader. How should a leader go about the task of coping with change? What types of behavior should one use to be most effective? What are the special leadership dynamics that occur in the typical organizations? Is there a preferred leadership model for use in the typical organization? Is there a leadership model that is uniquely unsuited for use in the typical organization? Leadership is one of the world's oldest preoccupations. It occurs in all groups of people regardless of geography, culture, or nationality. Leadership in organizations often plays a critical role, and is frequently, although not always, one of the major drivers of the success or failure of a company (Bass, 1990b).

Studies conducted in organizations showed that executive leadership could account for up to 45% of an organization's performance (Day & Lord, 1988). Hundreds of surveys showed that leadership did make a difference in followers' satisfaction and performance (Howell & Costley, 2001; Schriesheim & Neider, 1996). As such, leadership has been the subject of scientific study for more than 100 years. The central issue in the study of leadership across different nations was the question of universality

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versus cultural contingency of leadership. Leadership scholars diverge sharply on this issue, with most assuming absolute positions on opposite ends of the culture contingency versus universality spectrum solutions (Carl & Javidan, 2001; Dorfman & Howell, 1997).

As leadership research grew and expanded, a broader focus that encompassed organizational culture emerged (Stein, 1985b). For leaders to be effective, according to this view, issues related to the culture must be clearly identified. One such cultural issue relevant to leadership studies is the concept of change (Ouchi, 1981).

Leaders and the organizations they serve must be able to adapt to change (i.e., shift to more appropriate behaviors) as environments shift and develop. Baron (1995) found that organizations that resisted change in the external environment (e.g., new technology, mergers and acquisitions, global competition, environmental concerns, unstable economy) experienced more difficulties than did organizations that responded positively to change.

Leaders must also be able to successfully manage the internal environments of the areas they oversee through regulation of features such as budgeting, project management, labor cost, recruitment and retention, policies and procedures, and federal and state regulations. Managing the internal environments and the changes that must take place helps leaders develop the culture of the organization.

Over the past decade, culture has become a common term used when thinking about and describing an organization's internal world, a way of differentiating one organization's personality from another. Many researchers contend that an organization's culture socializes people (Stein, 1985b) and that resultant conscientious or unscientious leadership styles are an integral part of the culture of an organization. A culture-specific

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perspective reflects the view that the occurrence and the effectiveness of certain leadership behaviors (as well as constructs) is likely to be unique to a given culture.

In contrast, leaders in the culture-universal position contended that certain leadership constructs were comparable across cultures and that many universal leadership behaviors did exist. Only recently, on the basis of a review by Bass (1990b) and the emergence of the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavioral Effectiveness project (GLOBE; House, 1998), had leadership research community members begun to realize that universal and culture specific leadership behaviors and constructs were not mutually exclusive categories but could coexist in a single culture.

The culture literature is conventionally divided into two broad streams (Smirchich, 1983). In one stream, proponents approached culture as an attribute, something an organization had, along with other attributes, such as structure and strategy. Another stream of literature regarded culture more globally, as a force defining the whole character and experience of organizational life, that is, what the organization was. Here, organizations were construed as cultures existing in, and reproduced through, the social interaction of participants. Some scholars viewed the organization as culture approach, as but one of a range of paradigms used in organizational analysis. From that relativist perspective, a global definition of organizational culture may be termed as the *culture as metaphor* approach (Smirchich, 1983).

Although the debate on nature versus nurture continues, many authorities agree that some leaders are born, whereas others can learn how to become effective leaders in an organizational environment. As in all these debates, the answer often lies in the simplistic premise that both are right and wrong. In the past, leaders have been

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traditionally seen in many cultures as those whose heritage gave them advantage, but

current theorists and researchers view leadership as a learned behavior (Bernard, 1926;

Blake, Shepard, & Mouton, 1964; Drath & Palus, 1994; Fiedler, 1967; House & Mitchell,

1974). Organizational culture is shaped by varying aspects of organizational life, such as

strategies, interpersonal relationships, and contexts (Dension & Mishra, 1995) that vary

across and within cultures. Because virtually everything that characterizes a society is

based on humanity, and a society's culture is based on what humans do, say, want, and

feel, the relationship between organizational culture and the larger society in which it

exists are inextricable.

In the increasingly multicultural society that exists in the United States today,

these issues have assumed new relevance and importance. Touraine (2000) explored the

question of how we might live together in a globalizing society in which our differences

are being heightened, as communities increasingly define their identities against the

encroaching forces of globalization. He argued that under global conditions, our cultural

distinctiveness increasingly risks being eroded by homogenized mass culture, making us

increasingly introverted, as we fight to defend ourselves against outside forces. As

Fairholm (1994) stated,

> Of all the new and pressing problems the chief officers in our large-scale
> organizations face day-to-day one stands out. It is the challenge of creating and
> maintaining an organizational culture, that fits the nature of the work done and the
> character and capacities of its growingly diverse work force. (p. 7)

According to Parvis (2003), the issue of cultural diversity has received increasing

attention in recent years for several reasons, including (a) the term *multiculturalism* has

replaced *melting pot*; (b) the influx of immigrants into many major metropolitan areas of

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the United States has generated multiple concerns from civil and human rights organizations demanding unprecedented attention from local authorities; and (c) following the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks, a number of American organizations have identified a need to provide educational workshops in cultural diversity for their employees to diminish tensions in the workplace. Although it is reasonable to posit that everyone can contribute to accomplishing an organization's goals, managing people to act in a common direction to achieve a common goal can be extremely challenging, and when a number of different cultures are involved, the task can seem enormous.

In the article, *"Of Reason, Morality, and Ethics: The Way of Effective Leadership in a Multicultural Society,"* Campbell (2000) noted,

> The concept of the United States being the *Great Melting Pot*, creating a stronger whole from the diversity of its members. Not only is it no longer true, but the very opposite seems to be actively occurring: Differences between our citizens be they real, pseudo-cultural, substantial or insignificant are being used as catalysts to stratify the melting pot. Commonalties of our society are being ignored in favor of differences. (p. 23)

In the United States, across Europe, and particularly in the United Kingdom, multiculturalism is increasing as is social unrest. Connor (1994, 2004) was among the first to argue that an increase in international contacts was often accompanied by an increase in international conflict. Some contacts were bound to generate clashes further separation, rather than the fusion of cultures.

Most change in complex systems is emergent; that is; it comes about as a result of the interactions between the agents in the system. In an organization, the agents are people—complex systems in themselves (Mihata, 1997). The same forces that drive globalization also fuel these multicultural trends and therefore, the workplace of the 21st

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century is going to be a vastly different place than what people have experienced in the past. As a result, Parvis (2003) pointed out, "In every society, community, and workplace alike, diversity is prominent;" he then recommended, "We should not only focus on diversity within each culture, but also address cultural diversity as a national theme" (p. 37).

Most diversity experts believe that significant distinctions in cultural diversity are "race, ethnicity, culture, religion, language, nation of origin, gender, sexual orientation, age, physical abilities, occupation, and class" (Parvis 2003, p. 37). Because all organizations exist and compete in a larger social and cultural sphere, the author suggested that it was therefore important for organizations of all types to reflect this diversity in their workforces.

Bajdo and Dickson (2001) emphasized that gender was frequently overlooked in studies of organizational culture, and the fact that men have predominantly shaped most organizational cultures suggested that gender views of the larger society in which the organization competes will be mirrored in their organizations to assure equity and diversity.

Bajdo and Dickson (2001) stated the following:

Organizations tend to reinforce the value system of the dominant gender. For example, in cultures predominantly shaped by men, there is an emphasis on hierarchy, independence, and top-down communication. In cultures primarily influenced by women, there is likely to be more emphasis on interpersonal relationships and the sharing of power. (p. 399)

Because of antidiscrimination laws in the United States, more companies can be assured a likely pool of heterogeneous employees. Davidson (1999) claimed, "Above all, given the changes in today's world, we need to live our lives, and manage our workplaces to

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promote the benefits of diversity for humankind now and the generation to come" (p. 1). Unfortunately, most businesses ignore the consequences of global and local demographic changes on their business operations. Many organizations are at varying stages in this transformation of understanding the ramifications of diversity.

There are also other important considerations for organizational leaders already faced with an increasingly competitive marketplace and a shaky economy. Many companies may not have the luxury of experimenting with various combinations of cross-cultural workers to identify a perfect mix, and there is no room for false starts and experimentation when people are involved. Indeed, fundamental shifts in demographic composition have introduced a number of challenges to leaders of all types of organizations today.

Identifying best practices is particularly difficult considering the increasingly competitive and dynamic globalized marketplace in which companies are competing. Certainly, it is desirable to discern good examples from bad when considering effective leadership in various organizational settings today. The relationship between organizational culture and the larger society in which it exists is the focus of the current study.

Globalization has increased over the last 25 years, and leaders must now pay close attention to multiculturalism because it is important to monitor the influence of various national cultures on overall organizational performance and team effectiveness (Hofstede, 1998a, 1998b; Trice & Beyer, 1993). In the current study, I explored the relationship between culture and leadership, and determined the extent of cultural influence on leadership. Increasing knowledge about leadership and understanding which leadership

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styles work best in discrete organizational cultures might improve organizational ability to apply this knowledge to select the best leaders for the culture.

To systematically investigate the empirical relationship between culture and performance, it is necessary to have a conceptual framework that brings together, in a logical manner, all the essential aspects to be investigated and provides appropriate parameters and points of reference for investigating culture in an operational context. This dissertation consists of five chapters, organized as shown in Appendix A. In chapter 1, I outlined the context in which the research was undertaken the aim, and the objectives. I also briefly outlined the scope and research methodology applied, and presented the main contributions of the research to the available knowledge. I ended the study with a discussion and interpretation of results, followed by a discussion of study limitations and proposals for further research.

Background of the Study

Deming (1986, 2000) and Drucker (1998) strongly advocated the need for organizations to constantly transform to fit the reality of their environment. The environmental contexts of organizations encompass the society, the markets, and the customer base and technology fields in which they operate. This complex context is clearly influenced by the population, which only a continually responsive and learning manager can address. The research provides a guide for managers to transform organizations in response to a continually changing population profile.

Researchers have been discussing the definition of leadership for years with differing results; however, most agree that leaders have a perceived influence on organization members (Bohn & Grafton, 2002; Rost, 1991). In the past two decades,

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there has been some concurrence among organizational behavior scholars concerning leadership styles, such as transactional (actions) and transformational (changes). Burns (1978) developed the research on transactional and transformational leadership and Bass (1985) further refined it. The research will be applied to situational efforts throughout this dissertation.

The focus, or central concept, of all leadership research shifting from traditional to transactional models is charisma (Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999). Transformational (change) leadership studies have demonstrated leaders who were charismatic and visionary were those who inspired followers to transcend their self-interest for the good of the organization. It is against this backdrop that the present study was undertaken, with research hypotheses designed to provide answers about the extent to which organizational culture varied with functions and the effects that these cultures had on performance outcomes.

The answers bridge the clearly identified gaps in knowledge that informed this investigation, relating for instance to the existence or otherwise of differences in cultural orientations on work projects and whether the existence of such differences lead to significantly different performance outcomes. An empirical study of the relationship between organizational culture and work performance provides a significant contribution to the body of knowledge on culture as it relates to performance in a predominately foreign-born employee work environment.

Transformational leadership is explained using a combination of behavioral and trait theories. Hence, to some, the transformational leader is seen as a change agent (Doyle & Smith, 2001). To change not only requires great skills in management and

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leadership but also the willingness and ability to adapt to human nature and societal

norms and to recognize the cost and benefit of the change. It is in this direction that I

focused and developed this study.

The leadership of an organization is bound to affect the culture, but why and to

what extent is unclear. I focused on the aforementioned aim to address a gap in the

literature. This research was designed to identify such gaps and develop further the

scholarly and peer-reviewed literature that exhibited and supported any relationship

existing between organizational and societal cultures and leadership styles.

Statement of the Problem

Business Management education does not adequately prepare its operational

leaders to create or foster an effective organization. Likewise, it does not prepare these

leaders to diagnose and remedy an organization that has become ineffective in combating

its greatest challenge: a chronic lack of morale and performance. Although there are

many studies pertaining to food service leadership, only a few used an organizational

culture model to anticipate or recruit individuals who exhibit the ability to shift among

appropriate leadership roles.

The success or failure of an organization depends largely on the quality of its

management and leadership personnel; however, the highly involved, inspirational leader

may not be the optimal solution for all circumstances. At times, it takes a small but

significant attribute to create the solution. In particular, to the extent that a company's

management fails to fully understand and appreciate its workers' unique culture is likely

the extent to which the company's leadership style will be ineffective in achieving its

organizational goals. Therefore, the problem addressed in this study was to determine the

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relationship between organizational leaders' knowledge of their corporate culture and their employees' culture as measured by Bass's (1985) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ).

The population studied in this dissertation was a selection of 23 cafeteria supervising coordinators and 106 secondary school cafeteria managers who work in the Miami-Dade County School District, in the State of Florida. There was a specific focus on how the aforementioned issues affected organizational culture and leadership styles in promoting organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) in practice.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was not merely to develop a leadership-management culture model that could be adapted as standard operating procedure in organizations with multicultural attributes, but it rises to redesign the process and procedures for both the contexts to capitalize human resource and its development for organizational effectiveness. Much research has been conducted on both leadership and organizational culture as separate and distinct subject areas. However, the relationship between the two concepts has been given much less attention (Alvesson, 1993; Butler, Cantrell, & Flick, 1999; Howell & Hall-Marenda, 1999).

In addition, a majority of leadership research has been conducted on top executive management and has embraced a narrow definition of leadership (Ayman, Chemers, & Fiedler, 1995). McCall (1978) suggested that the leadership team of an organization did not act in isolation but in the context of the organizational environment. The leadership of an organization was bound to affect the culture, but why and to what extent was unclear.

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Therefore, this study was focused on the relationship between organizational culture, societal culture, and leadership style.

Rationale

Because resources are by definition scarce, it is important for a company's leadership team to take advantage of opportunities for improvement and avoid the missteps and pitfalls that frequently accompany expanding operations into unknown cultural territories. Therefore, to the extent that an organization's leader can overcome these challenges and take advantage of the benefits afforded to diverse workplaces is the extent to which the company will remain competitive in an increasingly globalized marketplace.

To achieve these goals, a careful assessment of the culture of an organization and how it promotes an atmosphere conducive to workplace harmony, rather than chaos, is required. A recurrent theme in the literature on effective leadership in virtually any cultural setting is the need to align an organization's interests and core values with those of its employees.

Fairholm (1994) emphasized,

Leaders are identified, flourish, and grow in situations where they and their followers share unifying values, ideals, and goals. Leaders are successful when they unite individuals in collaborative action without losing too much of the individual freedom they and their followers want. (p. 7)

There is clearly a reciprocal element involved in this process, wherein good leaders become better and then can inspire followers to even greater accomplishments. Although such synergistic organizational settings are the exception rather than the rule, some companies have succeeded while others have failed, and these issues were

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discussed in general and as they applied to leadership, organizational culture, and the larger societal culture in chapter 2.

Research Questions, Aims, Objectives, and Operational Definitions

The study was aimed at investigating the relationship between organizational culture, societal culture, and leadership styles. The principal aim of this study was to determine empirically the extent to which the relationship between organizational culture and leadership influence the work performance in a predominately foreign born employee work environment. I expected to identify pertinent traits that characterize effective leaders in various societal settings.

The importance of these outcomes relates to the increasingly multicultural society in the United States and the forces that are fueling globalization of the marketplace. Because virtually everything that characterizes a society is based on humanity, and a society's culture is based on what humans do, say, want, and feel, there is a fundamental relationship between organizational culture and the larger society in which it exists.

In sum, the research questions, the aims, and objectives of the study addressed the following objectives:

1. To identify the relationship, to the extent that it exists, between organizational culture and societal culture;

2. To identify what leadership styles are most effective in terms of achieving organizational goals while balancing the needs of the workers involved;

3. To identify relevant cross-cultural issues that may affect leadership styles in an increasingly multicultural society; and

4. To determine how leadership styles vary from culture to culture around the world based on the larger society in which they exist.

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Furthermore, the interplay between culture and leadership exists because it is the leader, as the organization founder, who creates the culture. Once the culture exists and is embedded in the organization, the culture shapes the style of leadership (Dastmalchian, Lee, & Ng, 2000). With a fit between positive organizational culture and suitable leadership style in the organization, a lasting success in business performance can be achieved as determined from results of the two hypotheses. In this type of research both confirmation and disconfirmation of a particular position are equally important and represent an equally significant contribution to the body of knowledge.

Hypothesis

The researcher used the following hypothesis and null hypothesis to guide the direction of the research:

Ho: There is a quantifiable relationship between culture and leadership style.

Ha: There is not a quantifiable relationship between culture and leadership style.

These hypotheses are not all-conclusive in the sense that there exists a high probability of their acceptance. Cultural or cross-cultural research often produces contradictory results, and both culturally-contingent and universalist perspectives provide strong results along with some supporting evidence. Nevertheless, the hypotheses have been formulated in such a way that the probability of their being true can be judged as slightly higher than the probability of their not being true.

What managers do, or do not know about their management style and its effect on corporate culture is important for managerial, employee, and organizational effectiveness. This is because a number of factors determine organizational effectiveness (Bryman,

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Bresnen, Beardsworth, & Keil, 1988). Kelley (1988) suggested that followers also play an important role in determining organizational effectiveness. Transformational leaders help shape and maintain the desired culture of an organization (Schein, 1990), which may link to organizational effectiveness in typical organizations. Some researchers have suggested that transformational leadership and organizational culture contain the key to understanding organizational effectiveness (Bass & Avolio, 1992). These aims or assumptions have not been investigated in the existing literature.

To support the link between organizational culture and leadership, Bass and Avolio (1993) supported Schein's (1992) argument suggesting that the relationship between the two concepts represents an ongoing interplay in which the leader shapes the culture and is in turn shaped by the existing culture. This investigation of organizational culture and leadership styles is designed to answer these questions.

Research on leadership and organizational culture has attracted considerable interest from both academics and practitioners as referenced:

1. Corporate culture and leadership style in the United Kingdom (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000), Canada, and Korea (Dastmalchian et al., 2000).

2. Organizational culture and leadership style on job satisfaction and commitment (Lok & Crawford, 2004).

3. Leadership style and organizational culture to affect change (Smith, 2003).

4. Leadership and organizational culture in a private organization toward performance (Block, 2003).

Despite numerous references to a relationship between leadership and organizational culture in many parts of organization theory and research, little systematic research has been conducted to investigate the link between the nature of the relationship of these two concepts and its effect on organizational culture.

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Significance of the Study

This study is important from several perspectives. The significance relates to the ongoing need for effective leadership in all types of organizations and how these leaders go about accomplishing organizational goals. Organizations invest considerable time, effort, and money into initiatives designed to gain a better understanding of culture and performance needs of employees, particularly managers and leaders. Identifying which leadership styles work best for the organization and then determining what type of culture exists requires critical, accurate, and reliable measurement to ensure cultural understanding is at its best, and by emphasis is worth repeating here.

Fairholm (1994) emphasized,

Leaders are identified, flourish, and grow in situations where they and their followers share unifying values, ideals, and goals. Leaders are successful when they unite individuals in collaborative action without losing too much of the individual freedom they and their followers want. (p. 7)

This study is significant for leaders and managers in any organization serving a diverse workforce. The analysis may be useful in helping these leaders and managers to become more effective in managing a diverse staff, addressing staff needs, and providing services that meet the needs of workers. Because a diversity of cultures characterizes many organizations today, it is important to understand how such differences can positively and adversely impact an organization's performance.

Many organizational leaders may view the current trends toward multicultural workplaces with alarm and worry that such differences can slow organizational productivity. Today, we are in a position to address and improve on this issue. Many leadership theorists have found that ineffective leadership in any organization is the major cause of diminishing productivity and downward positioning of North American

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corporations on the international scale (Yukl, 1994); thus, the need to be ever aware of the multicultural attribute. Some theorists have taken another approach by identifying opportunities on how best to take advantage of such diversity in their organizations.

In this regard, Parvis (2003) emphasized:

Although some people think that diversity does nothing but create problems and challenges, it offers remarkable benefits. Among the benefits is variety in local customs, ideas, and styles, forms of devotion, vision, creativity, innovation, histories, and lifestyles. This variety enhances and enriches our lives in many ways. (p. 37)

Notwithstanding these potentially remarkable benefits, it is reasonable to suggest that many people from the mainstream culture may view such diversity with the same alarm as their leaders. Unfortunately, longstanding prejudices, stereotypes, and misperceptions can disrupt even the most effective organization. As Parvis (2003) pointed out:

Difficulties arise from workplace challenges to diversity such as disparage treatment, racism, sexism, homophobia, and ageism, which can disrupt and create a hostile environment. These challenges, if not detected and resolved via constructive leadership, will lead to loss of innovative potential and ultimately to failure in the undertakings of an organization. (p. 37)

Therefore, I will add insights into understanding the relationship between organizational culture, societal culture, and leadership styles.

One can see that culture affects an organizations' performance and that it is highly embedded in societal norms and value systems. Learning culture is a best-practice attribute tool when appropriately used, not only to identify organizational problems, but also as a vehicle to address cultural diversity in the work place. Moreover, it is important to understand the socio-cultural values of society while studying the culture of organizations. Furthermore, this study informs organizational culture theory development

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through the explication of empirically verified dimensions of organizational culture found in high-level hiring of foreign-born workers.

Assumptions and Limitations

All research (whether quantitative or qualitative) is based on some underlying assumptions about what constitutes valid research and which research methods are appropriate. Regarding the limitations of this study, although thorough literature reviews on empirical organizational culture studies have been conducted, there might be relevant literature not included in the analysis. Studies that examine similar issues but do not explicitly state to study organizational culture are not included. Regarding future work, clearly more empirical organizational culture studies are needed to understand in depth the turbulent and constantly changing contexts of technological development and use and the role culture plays in the implementation of different organizational change efforts.

In relation to organizational change efforts, (Patton, 1990) stressed the importance of a priori assumptions regarding the object of study. It depends on the conceptions of culture and change the researcher has adopted how he or she sees and understands the world and what kind of conclusions at which he or she arrives. Documents and interview and focus group participants were selected based on their availability and relevancy and thus, might reveal only certain aspects of the organizations and programs (Patton, 1990).

Furthermore, interview and focus group data relied on hand-recorded notes, less preferable to audio-recordings (Maxwell, 1996) but a necessary delimitation. Organizational results of this study were not affected by the inclusion of multiple organizations. The researcher assumed that all organizations that participated in this study

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were similar in nature, and unique qualities did not significantly impact the findings. Information respondents provided is accurate.

Results were sufficient to assess the relationship between leadership styles and organizational culture. Results were sufficient to assess the relationship between leadership styles and organizational effectiveness outcomes. As always, bias is a possibility, because "stories that tell history are always biased; none can ever document the truth" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 375).

Nature of the Study

I expected to identify pertinent traits that characterize effective leaders in various organizational, societal, and leadership settings. The importance of these outcomes relates to the increasingly multicultural society in the Miami-Dade County School District, in Florida, in practice as well as for the United States and the forces that are fueling individual organizations and globalization of the marketplace.

Leadership and Cultural Differences

The theories and models on organizational culture explored are those of Denison (1990), Stein (1990), Kotter and Heskett (1992), and Goeffee and Jones (1998). The organizational culture is the character of the corporation and is made up of several components, some of which are directly observable and others of which are based on beliefs, values, and underlying assumptions. Together, these form the foundation of an organization's management system and practices.

Hofstede (1991) defined culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group of society from those of another" (p. 5).

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Another researcher defined cultural distance as "the extent to which different cultures are similar or different" (Shenkar, 2001, p. 163). According to Hofstede (1991, 2001), each nation is characterized by cultural dimensions, such as, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and collectivism, and masculinity and feminity. The variation of these dimensions across nations creates cultural differences that drive nations to behave differently with respect to leadership. In the GLOBE research project researchers focused on the relationship between organizational culture, societal culture, and leadership (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002; Javidan & House, 2001). The results of this study identified attributes that were universally positive, universally negative, or culturally contingent for inhibiting or promoting good leadership.

There are many different leadership styles to adapt—some more effective than others. Researchers have studied transactional and transformational leadership styles extensively. There has been a great deal of interest in the past 20 years in testing a new paradigm of transformational and transactional leadership (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1994). I examined the relationship between leadership styles, organizational culture, and organizational leadership effectiveness outcomes.

Cultural influence on leadership is a difficult topic to study. The cross-cultural nature of research increases the research design complexity, complicates data gathering procedures, and makes the interpretation of the obtained results more difficult. A substantive complication in cross-cultural research is that the variety of contexts in which multicultural surveys are embedded means that salient alternative explanations and hypotheses multiply, as do the sources of error and bias that complicate and hinder understanding. Therefore, although many studies of cultural influence on leadership have

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been conducted to date, the results remain ambiguous and contradictory. As a result, two opposing views on the nature of cultural influence on leadership coexist, both partially supported by empirical studies.

The basic argument of the culture-specific position is that different environments create different leaders. What represents appropriate leadership in one setting does not have to be appropriate for a differently programmed group of followers. The basic argument of the universalistic perspective is that leadership is a basically universal phenomenon, common to all cultures, which may sometimes vary because of local cultural idiosyncrasies, but it is generally more similar than different across cultures

Proponents of the culture-specific perspective maintain that the occurrence and effectiveness of leadership is likely to be unique to a given culture. They stated that the values, beliefs, norms, and ideals that are embedded in a culture effect leadership behavior and goals, as well as structure, culture, and strategies of organizations. National culture is a central organizing principle of employees' understanding of work, their approach to it, and the way in which they expect to be treated. National culture implies that one way of action or one set of outcomes is preferable to another.

Based on these ideas, culture creates perceptions of leadership. Some researchers believed that the entire concept of leadership was perceived differently in different societies, such as Africa or Asia. In a behavioral tradition of leadership research, Sinha (1980) said that concern for task and concern for people were integrated in a specific way in the Indian nurturant-task leader. The personal character of the relationship with a father-like role for the leader was the most outstanding feature of such leadership.

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The nurturant-task leader "understands the expectations of his subordinates. He knows that they relish dependency and personalized relationship, accept his authority and look towards him for guidance and direction" (Sinha, 1980, p. 95). In many cases, observed cross-cultural differences are a product of research design limitations and flaws (such as unmatched sampling and disregard for confounding variables), or the differences could be attributed to some variables other than culture. As a result, the magnitude of pure cultural influence on leadership might be negligible and insignificant.

Last, forces of modernization and globalization are boosting cultural congruence, at least at the level of organizational and business practices. These are strongly influenced by contingencies such as the size of organizations, organizational technologies, organizational strategy, and the stability of the organizational environments. It is likely that such variables have a much more direct and significant impact on leadership than on culture (Blyton, 2001; Kerr, 1983).

The study of culture in the last 25 years has become important because organizational effectiveness requires logical, tactical, and strategic thinking for its leaders to enhance a culture (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Leaders using these paradigms can create and build a vision for the organization's future and shape an organizational culture that is supportive of and committed to their shared vision. Ultimately that vision could determine the organization's success and the leadership's effectiveness (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Bass (1985) pointed out that an organization's culture is built from its leadership. For example, transformational leaders who understand cultural variables could adjust the culture, realigning it to fit a changed organization, and then revise cultural values and

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norms. These types of leaders believe that if the organizational culture is supportive, innovative, and satisfying, then leaders can continue to strengthen the organizational values, motivate followers to increase productivity, empower followers to take on responsibilities in ways that promote organizational and leadership effectiveness (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Transactional leaders, conversely, work with the existing rules, norms, and procedures of the organization's culture, reward followers for positive work, and work to maintain the existing culture (Bass, 1985). The transactional leaders base their decision-making and actions on existing norms, values, and procedures (Bass, 1985). Transactional leaders can deter organizational success and leadership effectiveness (Bass, 1985).

Leadership style has received a great deal of attention from human resource development researchers (HRD) in the past years (Woodall, 2000). Researchers in some studies are focused on building an HRD knowledge base in countries in which this is low or nonexistent (Kuchinke, 1999), whereas others try to identify the compatibility between different leadership styles and the national cultural characteristics. The results suggested that leadership development based on national dimensions as Hofstede (1980) described should be considered with caution because countries with similar cultural features and geographical proximity may display different leadership styles. In further research, researchers should take into consideration other country characteristics, such as economic outlook and political situation. Furthermore, the researcher pointed out clear differences in leadership styles, not only between developed and developing countries, but also in these two groups.

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Leadership is a complex notion that requires explanation of a vast number of factors, some of which are of social or cultural matter. Equity, accountability, and transparency are three objectives these studies targeted. The objectives are particularly important in the developed countries and considering globalization, multinationals are interested in their spread in developing countries (Wells, 1998).

According to Aycan (2000), research on international and cross-cultural organizational behavior is reductionist in that it fails to acknowledge the complex nature of organizations and the influence of multiple environmental forces that are both internal and external to the organization. Frameworks are needed that incorporate variables at multiple levels to paint a fuller and more valid picture of how organizations operate in diverse regions of the world.

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found that the values, beliefs, norms, and ideals embedded in a culture effect leadership

behavior and goals, as well as the structure, culture, and strategies of organizations.

Newman and Nollen (1996) stated,

> National culture is a central organizing principle of employees' understanding of
> work, their approach to it, and the way in which they expect to be treated.
> National culture implies that one way of action or one set of outcomes is
> preferable to another. (p. 755)

To research and develop new knowledge, I researched many case-related studies that

supported the relationship between organizational culture, societal culture, and leadership

styles.

Proponents of the universalistic perspective argue that leadership is a universal

phenomenon. They argued that, although some differences across cultures are bound to

exist, there are more similarities than differences in leadership across the world. They

maintain that increasingly common technological imperatives, common industrial logic,

and global technologies and institutions all serve to harmonize management practices and

structure (Carl & Javidan, 2001). Specifically, they also pointed out that indigenous

patterns of leadership are often unjustifiably romanticized—much the same way some

social anthropologists championed the cause of the noble savage, a luxury less easily

indulged by their participants (Blunt & Jones, 1997). Moreover, although researchers

have found differences in leadership behaviors or styles across cultures, they implicitly

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assume the universality of constructs (and instruments) used to measure these behaviors or styles.

Organizational culture is the key to organizational excellence and the function of leadership is the creation and management of this culture (Stein, 1992a).

> In general we find that outstandingly successful organizations usually have strong and unique cultures . . . unsuccessful organizations have weak indifferent sub-cultures or old sub-cultures that become sclerosed and can actually prevent the organization's adaptation to changed circumstances. (Hofstede, 1980, p. 394)

Graves (1986) supported this statement and showed unanimous agreement by all the chief executives interviewed in his study. The executives agreed it is essential for business success that the culture is strong and that people in the organization recognize, and if possible, adopt the values and attitudes the leader and senior managers (or key influential people) espoused.

Although there are staunch opponents to the culture-specific perspective, I was unable to find any case in which the culture was weak but the business successful. Culture and business go hand-in-hand. Organizational researchers are becoming aware of the importance of understanding and enhancing the leadership style and cultural life of an organization.

Furthermore, existing research-based leadership theory holds that people in an interacting group—a team, organization, community, or society—all share similar implicit leadership theories. This occurs because people in groups share a great deal, including their environment, past history, recent experiences, common challenges, systems of reward, philosophic or religious beliefs, and core values. It would be beyond belief if they did not also share a system of beliefs about leaders.

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Chapter Summary and Study Organization

In the preceding chapter, I summarized the implications for questions asked and sources of cultural data; the research focus was on the question "What is?" to draw out responses on existing practices, as opposed to "What ought to be?" or "Why?" questions, which lead to responses on preferences and values. In asking the question "What is?," I examined the solutions adopted to address problems as manifested in organizational structures, information and control systems, organizational processes, behaviors, myths, legends, stories, and charters, among other aspects (Stein, 1985b).

In the preceding chapter, I provided a clear introduction to the study and gave a detailed background, centered on the rationale for selecting this research. I then gave the purpose, aims, and objectives with supporting references to show leadership and cultural differences, demonstrating the addition of new knowledge in the subject area of culture and leadership attributes. Understanding the leadership styles used in specific cultures allows organizations to determine (a) which leadership styles have the highest value and opportunity for success in the organization's culture, or (b) whether cultural change is required, in the form of a leader with a new style, to move the organization in a new direction.

In chapter 2, I reviewed the literature and its contributions to leadership theory. In chapter 3, I detailed the research methods. Also included are a discussion of the instruments, the sampling method, and procedures for collecting data. In chapter 4, I presented the data analysis. Chapter 5 includes the summary, conclusions, and recommendations. I addressed limitations of this study and made recommendations for further research.

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CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In this chapter, I presented a review of the existing literature relevant to the study. The purpose of this chapter I was to conduct a literature review to define organizational culture as a concept, describe key aspects of organizational culture, and focus on its relationship. In addition, an appropriate model of organizational culture and a relational technique was selected for the research, on the basis of the evaluation of the literature reviewed. Last, I concluded with a discussion of the relationships among organizational culture, leadership styles, and cultural adaptation that provides the conceptual basis for the present study.

The study of leadership has spanned across cultures, decades, and theoretical beliefs. A summary of what is known and understood about leadership is important to conducting further research analyzing the relationships among organization culture, societal culture, and leadership styles and their contribution to leadership in an organization.

Because most substantive achievements in the 21st century are accomplished by groups of people or organizations, it is reasonable to assume that how people behave in and out of the workplace is reflective of the larger society in which they live. Regarding this, Stein (1994) pointed out that, "Much, if not most, of life in contemporary U.S.

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society is based on doing, achieving, striving, succeeding, winning, intervening, producing—in other words, on outcomes. 'Hurry up and get there first' is our modus operandi" (p. 1). It is reasonable to assume that this "hurry up" attitude has become more pronounced considering the acceleration in technological innovations since these words were written. In addition, organizations and the larger society in which they compete have experienced unprecedented opportunities—and challenges—in the past two decades.

Although the Chinese continue their inexorable march to global market domination, leaders in the United States and other Western nations are focusing on improving the ability to remain competitive in an increasingly globalized economy. In this environment, it is not surprising to find numerous researchers advancing various views concerning how best to achieve organizational goals, and although a consensus has not been achieved, some useful guidance can be gained through careful analysis of what leaders of successful organizations have done differently from their failed counterparts. To accomplish this analysis, an operationalization of the terms involved is required, as is a discussion of how these definitions relate to the problem.

I used the literature review as a launching point for reviewing cultures leadership styles. In particular, the review was focused on three distinct but related theoretical areas. First, the existing relevant research on organizational culture was examined and its interrelated nature was developed. The review of literature concludes with a summary linking these three theoretical areas. In addition, I included a review of culture concept theories, organizational goals, organizational culture theories, organizational culture

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research, and levels of organizational culture, following a summary and critical analysis of the literature.

Culture

At first, anthropologists proposed the notion of culture to describe societies, but it was also used to describe organizations (Muchinsky, 1997). Muchinsky stated, "Culture consists of the language, values, attitudes, beliefs, and customs of an organization. It represents a complex pattern of variables that, when taken collectively, give each organization its unique 'flavor'" (p. 263). Furthermore, Firestone and Seashore (1999) pointed out that culture brings people together by offering ways to address issues of togetherness and community. But how does culture bring people together? Stein (1992b) posited that culture brings people together because it becomes a pattern of shared assumptions, values, and codes that maintains cultural growth and environment (Bolman & Deal, 1997; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Firestone & Seashore; Maslow, 1968; Stein, 1985b, 1992b).

Barthorpe, Duncan, and Miller (2000), presenting an overview of culture, examined the evolution of the term and pointed to its initial historical association with land cultivation, crop production, and animal breeding. This perspective gradually evolved to include current views of culture as the totality of socially transmitted behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions, and all other products of human work and thought (American Heritage Dictionary, 2000).

Hofstede (2001) proposed a cross-disciplinary definition of culture as "transmitted and created content and patterns of values, ideas, and other symbolic-

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meaningful systems as factors in the shaping of human behavior and the artifacts produced through behavior" (p. 583). An entire treatise could be written on the various definitions of culture offered over the years, but the concept for the purposes of the present study are fairly straightforward and involve how and why people behave the way they do based on predominate social values, mores, and practices. Regarding this, Parvis (2003) advised, "Culture is a complex phenomenon, and it has been defined in many ways. Briefly, anthropologists define culture as learned behavior. In other words, culture, includes an implicit list of standard operating procedures" (p. 37).

Culture acts like a template and shapes behavior and consciousness in society through generations (Miraglia et al., 1999). In effect, it operates as a decoder (Serpell & Rodriguez, 2002), defining situations and words, and giving them new meaning. Culture exists in a constant state of change (Miraglia et al., 1999), and this may account for some of the difficulty in defining it. The various perspectives and definitions notwithstanding, a number of themes that are fundamental to understanding culture are common to all the interpretations:

1. Culture is learned and shared.

2. Culture is determined by contextual factors, implying that it is peculiar only to the group to which these factors apply.

3. The underlying basic cultural problems are common and include relation to authority, concepts of masculinity and femininity, and ways of dealing with conflicts.

4. Culture shapes behavior and manifest in the form of values and practices.

Perhaps the most important theme is the universal recognition that a phenomenon such as culture does exist. Likewise, Hayton, George, and Zahra (2002) suggested that culture can be defined as "a set of shared values, beliefs, and expected behaviors. Deeply

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embedded, unconscious, and even irrational shared values shape political institutions as well as social and technical systems, all of which simultaneously reflect and reinforce values and beliefs" (p. 33). Studies of organizational culture to date have been based on multilevel (e.g., department, division, company, country) structures. On the basis of these studies, Sarros, Gray, Densten, and Cooper (2005) maintained that culture is "the deep structure of organizations, which is rooted in the values, beliefs and assumptions held by organizational members" (p. 159).

According to Sarros et al. (2005),

When we speak of organizational culture, we refer to the meanings inherent in the actions and procedures of organizational commerce and discourse. Culture evolves and is not manipulated easily, while climate is temporal and often subject to manipulation by people with power and influence. (p. 159)

In his essay, "Organizational Values and Leadership," Tannenbaum (2003) reported that, "There is a growing body of literature that documents the bottom-line benefits of investing in a performance-oriented organizational culture that focuses, to a large extent, on values and leadership" (p. 19). Like the generic concept of culture, various organizational behavior theorists have different views on an appropriate definition for this phenomenon. This is probably because, as Smirchich (1983) indicated, the concept of culture has been borrowed from anthropology in which, as noted, no consensus on its meanings exists.

Every person is a unique individual. What people want and need out of life varies greatly depending on their background, circumstances, abilities, and culture. There is no single definition for organizational culture or societal culture that best fits any paradigm seamlessly. Researchers have studied these topics from a variety of perspectives, ranging from disciplines such as anthropology and sociology to the applied disciplines of

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organizational behavior, management science, and organizational communication.

Mintzberg (1973) defined culture in this context:

> The behavior of a group cannot be predicted solely from an understanding of the personality of each of its members. Various social processes intervene. The group develops a "mood," an "atmosphere." In the context of the organization, we talk about a "style," "a culture," a "character." (p. 151)

The term *culture* has been used by theorists and researchers in several disciplines, including sociology, psychology, anthropology, and education. There are many definitions of culture and scholars disagree on the precise b. These disciplines provide clarification of the use of the concept of culture and a framework that is helpful to understanding what is meant by shaping or influencing culture in an organization from various perspectives.

Some of the definitions are as follows:

1. A set of common understandings around which action is organized . . . finding expression in language whose nuances are peculiar to the group (Becker & Geer, 1960).

2. A set of understandings or meanings shared by a group of people that are largely tacit among members and are clearly relevant and distinctive to the particular group which are also passed on to new members (Louis, 1980).

3. A system of knowledge, of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating and acting . . . that serve to relate human communities to their environmental settings (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984).

According to Spradley (1972) the understanding of culture is informed by the semantics of biology, social class, human nature, human group, omnibus, artifact, behavioral, and cognitive definitions. For example, in its biological definition, culture refers to the cultivation of bacteria in a test tube. A social class definition refers to the forms of habits of a structured society. The human nature definition sees culture as the distinction between human and animal behaviors. The human-group definition uses

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culture as a synonym for society or community. In its omnibus definition, "culture is everything" (Spradley, p. 6). As an artifact, culture becomes a qualifier of material goods made by a specific group, community, or society. In behavioral and cognitive definitions, culture is a pattern of behavior or a way of life; a set of knowledge, ideas, and beliefs (Spradley, 1972).

Wolcott (as cited in Creswell, 1998, p. 59) stated, "Culture is an amorphous term." In its principal epistemological form, the term culture derives from the Latin *cultura*, which means cultivation. Culture, according to Spradley (as cited in Creswell, p. 59), "consists of what people do (behaviors), what people say (language), and some tension between what people really do and what they ought to do as well as what they make and use (artifacts)." In particular, culture is a set of norms, values, and beliefs in a particular group or community (Spradley, 1972).

For the purpose of the present study, I used the Geertz's (as cited in Finkelstein et al., 1998, p. 9) definition of culture as "an array of symbolic forms, social habits, material constructions, and educational efforts" transmitted from generation to generation. Therefore the meaning of culture is "educationally constituted and transmitted" to the society's members (Finkelstein et al., p. 9). Thus, in this manner, culture portrays the characteristics of ethnic groups in our overall society (Creswell, 1998).

Schein (1985) argued that although the first two levels of basic assumptions reflect culture, only the third is the essence of culture. In essence, unless the third level (basic assumptions) is addressed, the organizational culture will likely remain the same. Although Schein's (1985) separation of levels is an important insight, in contrast to Stein,

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other authors (Van Maanen, & Barley, 1985) considered each level to be an important part of the study and understanding of organizational culture.

The deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs is learned responses to the group's problems of survival in its external environment and its problems of internal integration and is shared by members of an organization that operate unconsciously and define in a basic taken-for-granted fashion in an organization's view of itself and its environment (Stein, 1988). Any social system arising from a network of shared ideologies consisting of two components: (a) substance, the networks of meaning associated with ideologies, norms, and values; and (b) forms, the practices whereby the meanings are expressed, affirmed, and communicated to members (Trice & Beyer, 1984).

This sampling of definitions represents the two major camps that exist in the study of organizational culture and its "application strategies." The first camp views culture as implicit in social life. Culture is what naturally emerges as individuals transform themselves into social groups as tribes, communities, and ultimately, nations. The second camp represents the view that culture is an explicit social product arising from social interaction either as an intentional or unintentional consequence of behavior. In other words, culture is comprised of distinct observable forms (e.g., language, use of symbols, ceremonies, customs, methods of problem solving, use of tools or technology, and design of work settings) that groups of people create through social interaction and use to confront the broader social environment. (Wuthnow & Witten, 1988).

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Stein (2004) defined culture as,

a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptations and integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (p. 17).

The GLOBE research program defined culture as "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations" (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004, p. 15).

These definitions clearly indicate that understanding culture is a tool for organizational effectiveness and that understanding employees' values, norms, and beliefs is a perquisite for corporate leaders seeking to ensure future corporate and organizational success. Although culture is an enduring phenomenon that enhances stability, there are many reasons it is also difficult to change an organization's culture in a

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short period of time (Hofstede, 1998a; O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991; Trice & Beyer, 1993).

A function of a culture is to ensure that members fit within the organization. Culture promotes people to work together toward desired outcomes and requires members, especially leaders, to acknowledge their behavior's impact on the organization (Stein, 1992a). Individuals new to an organization need to learn the social expectations of the organization. The relationship between culture, environment, and its members warrants careful study because the aim of organizational design is to couple people with tasks that inspire them and best use individual talents (Kotter & Heskett, 1992). Culture also develops tasks and strategies that enable people to meet environmental demands and opportunities (Collins & Porras, 1994).

Researchers have found that organizations with a strong culture perform better, and members demonstrate a high performance level. Once a culture exists, it determines the criteria for leadership and decides who will or will not lead. Leaders in an organized culture use clear messages to convey the values they. Leaders who communicate with optimism and enthusiasm create a new vision (Kotter & Heskett, 1992). However, continuity and the ability to honor the past remain significant, for they preserve key aspects of a culture (Wilkins, 1989).

According to Schein (1985), culture is the most difficult organizational attribute to change, outlasting organizational products, services, founders, leadership, and all other physical attributes of the organization. According to Stein (1985b), organizational leaders are the creators of organizational culture (as cited in Mele, 2003). Likewise, Mele suggested that humanistic management is an ethical imperative with organizational

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culture playing a central role. He also proposed that virtue ethics play a significant role, so long as they follow the Aristotelean ideal. However, Mele also warned that contemporary virtue ethics diverges sharply from this ideal and so is problematic in its acceptance and application.

Because of the importance of values in shaping organizational culture, it is only logical those organizational leaders, as influential agents who have a strong deterministic effect on corporate values, require virtuous characteristics. The implication here is that screening and training becomes important in terms of positions of authority.

It is worthwhile to focus not only on organizational leaders because the mechanism extends down to include first-line managers as well (Kantor & Weisberg, 2002). In point of fact, all organizational leaders are carriers of organizational culture. Van Sandt (2003) showed a clear link between individual behavior and corporate culture; thus, supporting the contention of the researcher's dissertation.

Leaders must be able to successfully manage the internal environments of the areas they oversee through regulation of such features as budgeting, project management, labor cost, recruitment and retention, policies and procedures, and federal and state regulations. Over the past decade, culture has become a common term used when thinking about and describing an organization's internal world, a way of differentiating one organization's personality from another. Many researchers contend that an organization's culture socializes people (Stein, 1985b) and that leadership styles are an integral part of the organization's culture.

According to Moore (1988), the concept of *organizational culture* has become popular since the early 1980s. Along with growing interest in the topic, there is little

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agreement in the literature as to what organizational culture actually is; therefore,

different definitions and perspectives exist on this topic. Some define organizational

culture as the observable behavioral rules in human interaction (Van Maanen, 1979).

Organizational Culture

Organizational culture can be defined as:

> [A] pattern of behavior developed by an organization as it learns to cope with its
> problem of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well
> enough to be considered valid and to be taught to new members as the correct
> way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those processes. (Stein, 1985b, p. 9)

The relationship between an organization and its environment is significant

(Bennis, Benne, & Chin, 1961; Fullan, 2001; Schultz, 1995; Vaill, 1989). Over time, the

construct of culture has evolved, influencing the way in which organizations identify

themselves, specifically how they function (e.g., their environment). Effectiveness and

quality are said to be byproducts of highly goal-oriented organizational structures that

combine its mission with members. Thus, organizational culture focuses on "the beliefs,

values and meanings used by members of an organization to grasp how the organization's

uniqueness originates, evolves, and operates" (Schultz, p. 5).

In other words, organizations are made of people in which division of labor is

specialized by skills and knowledge toward common goals in which coordination or

control of actions define or establish boundaries (e.g., membership or activities) that

create a purposeful culture in the collection of shared values and goals of the organization

for its survival (Hodge, Anthony, & Gales, 1996; 2003).

The purpose of the present review is to provide an overview of organizational

culture and leadership. In this section, I addressed the theoretical concept of culture and

how it relates to organizations and its leadership. There are competing theoretical views of culture and organizational culture exists; however, I focused the discussion on the structural concept of culture within organizational theory. I provided an overview of culture and organization through the following topics: (a) definitions of culture and organizational culture, (b) overview of organizational culture theories and assumptions, and (c) importance of understanding organizational culture and leadership.

Stein (1985b) maintained that organizational culture has two purposes: first, to define the group's response to its central problem with the external environment, and second, to maintain internal relationships within the organization. Martin (1992) contended that:

> As individuals come into contact with organizations, they come into contact with dress norms, stories people tell about what goes on, the organization's formal rules and procedures, its informal codes of behavior, rituals, tasks, pay system, jargon, and jokes only understood by insiders. These elements are some of the manifestations of organizational culture. When cultural members interpret the meanings of these manifestations, their perception, memories, beliefs, experiences, and values will vary so interpretations of these interpretations, and the ways they are enacted, constitute culture. (p. 3)

Definitions of culture from a variety of disciplines have also produced numerous definitions of organizational culture. According to Hoy and Miskel (1987), organizational culture is:

> A concept used to get the feel, sense, atmosphere, and character of an organization. The concept attempts to include many of the earlier thoughts of informal organization, norms, values, and ideologies. The contemporary concept of culture is defined by its anthropological basis. (p. 246)

The term organizational culture was derived from the analysis of successful business corporations. The basic theme of this analysis is that effective organizations have strong cultures and that a basic function of leadership is to shape the culture of the organization

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(Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991). Peters and Waterman (1982) defined organizations with strong cultures as those institutions that have a widely held common purpose, values, and assumptions. Other authorities suggest that organizational culture can be defined alternatively as (a) a pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or developed by a group and taught to new members of that group as the correct way to behave (Stein 1985b) or (b) the values, norms, and beliefs internalized by organizational members that shape the behaviors and attitudes that are rewarded (Stein, 1992).

Jordon and Hamada (1990) defined organizational culture as symbols, ceremonies, and myths that communicated the underlying values and beliefs of that organization to its employees. Sergiovanni and Corbally (1984, p. 161) viewed organizational culture as the "informal understanding of the way we do things around here or what keeps the herd moving roughly west," whereas Martin (1992, p. 95) argued that "culture is an expression of people's deepest needs, a means of endowing their experiences with meaning." Schien (1985) identified several abstract meanings for organizational culture: observed regular behaviors, norms, dominant espoused values, philosophy, rules, and feelings or climate.

Organizational culture is embedded in national culture (Zhang, Lee, Zhang, & Banerjee, 2002).Today there are almost certainly more definitions of organizational culture than there were in the past. The word culture has many meanings and connotations. When we combine it with the word organization, we are almost certain to have semantic and conceptual confusion. Stein (1999) indicated that the problem of defining organizational culture derives from the fact that the concept of the organization itself is ambiguous. One cannot use the existence of cultural phenomena as evidence for

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the existence of a group. It is important that a given set of people have had enough stability and common history to have allowed a culture to form.

An organization is a group of people. People are the ones who develop the culture of the organization. Stein (1999) wrote that organizational culture is developed over time as people in the organization learn to deal successfully with problems of external adaptation and internal integration. It becomes the common language and the common background. So culture arises out of what has been successful for the organization. It can then be easily said that organizational culture reflects people's beliefs, values, and behavior.

National cultures and societal cultures are one in the same. Organization culture is a mere reflection of societal culture and change in society is likely to bring about change in organizational culture. It is settled belief that culture is seen as a fixed entity embedded in society; therefore, cannot be consciously manipulated and managed (Jamil, 1994). In this context, it is expected that sociopolitical norms determine administrative practices in public organizations.

If culture is what organization is, organization culture may differ across cultures. On the contrary, when it comes to a culture is what organization has mentality, and then organization culture varies according to leadership, leadership patterns, reform initiatives, goal or objectives, and history of the organization.

An organization's culture can be understood as the sum total of the assumptions, beliefs, and values that its members' share and is expressed through "what is done, how it is done, and who is doing it" (Farmer, 1990, p. 8). However, members of an organization often take its culture for granted and do not truly evaluate its impact on decisions,

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behaviors, and communication or consider the symbolic and structural boundaries of organizational culture until external forces test it. Therefore, when initiating transformation efforts, it becomes critical to understand and explicate the values and personal meanings that define organizational culture.

Prior to the emergence of the organizational culture construct, organizational climate was the dominant construct for describing the organizational experience. Organizational climate can, therefore, generally be viewed as an older term for organizational culture (Hofstede et al., 1990). The relationship between these two terms is however slightly more complex. In studies of climate, the emphasis is on current state of organizations and the cognitive aspects—attitudes and perceptions, of individual organizational members.

According to Farmer (1990), "failure to understand the way in which an organization's culture will interact with various contemplated change strategies thus may mean the failure of the strategies themselves" (p. 8). Theorists and researchers have studied the phenomenon of organizational culture for the past 25 years. Organizational culture has been the subject of much academic debate, which is a good indicator of its significance. However, these debates pose difficulties for the theorist and the practitioner because the organizational culture definitions are unclear and inconsistent. Researchers cannot agree on specific approaches to defining and studying this concept (Martin, 1991; Ott, 1989; Smircich & Calas, 1987). Oswald, Kolb, and Rubin (2001) referred to organizational culture as the pattern of values and beliefs held in common that lead to certain standards of behavior in an organization. It characterizes the unwritten, feeling part of the organization (Daft, 2002).

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Various aspects of culture include examinations of organizational rites and rituals (Trice & Beyer, 1984), heroes and villains (Smith, 1990), manner of dress, and symbols and artifacts (Daft, 2002). Artifacts are the visible effects of the group and include the architecture of the physical environment, clothing, manner of address, and published lists of values and ceremonies.

Organizational culture includes the visible behavior and the practices that become routine in the organization. Furthermore, Avolio and Bass (1991) argued that an organization's culture develops in large part from its follower-ship, as well as its leadership, and the culture of an organization can also affect the development of its leadership. For example, transactional leaders work in their organizational cultures, following existing rules, procedures, and norms; whereas, the transformational leaders change their culture by first understanding it, then realigning the organization's culture with this new vision and a revision of its shared assumptions, values, and norms (Bass, 1985).

Like the generic concept of culture, various organizational behavior theorists have different views on an appropriate definition for this phenomenon. This is probably because as Smirchich (1983) indicated, the concept of culture has been borrowed from anthropology in which no consensus on its meanings exists. Schneider (1973) described this as the problem of culture—being almost anything and thus being everything depending on who is conducting the specific piece of research. A loose definition of organizational culture has been presented as the way an organization does things to succeed (Schneider, 1973).

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In many ways, the study of culture can be likened to the story of the six blind men and the elephant as Saxe (1963) narrated, and as Roberts and Boyacigiller (1993) used metaphorically when they questioned whether the elephant (culture) was too large or whether researchers were too blind. Whether the elephant is too large or the researchers too blind, the specific concept of culture that a particular researcher adopts is an important matter as it influences the research questions asked, the problems investigated, the methods applied and the interpretation of results (Bodley, 1994). This implied that in undertaking any critical investigation into any aspect of culture, a researcher needs to define the perspective of culture being assumed and its underpinning theories to define the context in which the research is valid.

Notwithstanding the differences in methodological approach applied to the study of organizational culture, it is important that all attributes be clear and that most contemporary definitions of culture embrace one or more elements of what Pettigrew (1979) described as a family of concepts. Prominent components of Pettigrew's (1979) family of concepts included values, beliefs, assumptions, myths, rituals, and symbols that organizational members shared in common and that guided their everyday survival.

Societal Culture

That national culture and organizational culture are highly similar, or organizational culture cascades or evolves from national culture, can be deduced from Eldridge and Crombie's (1974) definition of organizational culture. National culture and societal cultures are one in the same. A society's culture affects an organization's governance structure in terms of power distance and uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede &

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Hofstede, 2005). Interrelated attributes of societal culture make national culture; therefore, national culture and societal cultures are one in the same.

Hofstede (1980) demonstrated that there are national and regional cultural groupings that affect the behavior of organizations. Hofstede identified five characteristics of culture in his study of national influences: (a) collectivism-individualism, (b) power distance, (c) uncertainty avoidance, (d) masculinity-femininity, and (e) long-term–short-term orientation. Chatman and Barsade (1995) wrote that societal culture had a direct influence on organizational culture because the shared meaning that resulted from the dominant cultural values, beliefs, assumptions, and implicit motives culture endorsed results in common implicit leadership theories and implicit organization theories that members of the culture held.

Kymlicka (n.d.) introduced and defined what is meant by culture, he noted:

These societal cultures are typically associated with national groups (pp. 75–76).Using a "culture" as synonymous with "a nation" or "a people"—that is, an intergenerational community, more or less institutionally complete, occupying a given territory or homeland, sharing a distinct language and history. (p. 18)

It can be inferred that national culture and societal cultures are one in the same. The fact that the West and East—specifically, the United States and Chinese or European—has vastly different cultural values is well-acknowledged (Hall & Hall, 1990). The United States is characterized by such values as assertiveness, decisiveness, innovativeness, and risk-taking, which stem from its frontier-conquering history (Hall & Hall). The U.S. culture is also characterized by individualism—the belief in the power and autonomy of the individual (e.g., Goodman, 1981; Yeh, 1995) and emphasis on results and lack of flexibility. For instance, Easterners, particularly the Japanese, Chinese, or European, and to some extent, the Russian contingent, complain that Americans are

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too legalistic and less willing to be flexible (Thornton, 1993). These opinions show that all groups, large or small, do value their societal and national cultural attributes.

Because groups of people, in other words, organizations accomplished most substantive achievements in the 21st century, it is reasonable to assume that what people do is reflective of the larger society in which they live. Regarding this, Stein (1994) pointed out that, "much, if not most, of lives in contemporary U.S. and developed nations societies are based on doing, achieving, striving, succeeding, winning, intervening, producing—in other words, benefits derived, which is performance". "Hurry up and get there first' is our modus operandi" (p. 1). It is also reasonable to assume that this hurry-up attitude has become more pronounced in view of the acceleration in technological innovations because organizations and the larger society in which they compete have experienced some unprecedented opportunities—and challenges—and technological growth in the past two decades.

The pervasive effects of national culture have important implications. For instance, the values that characterize organizations are likely to parallel those of the national culture in which the organization operates (Rhody & Tang, 1995). Hence, Chinese or European firms, as compared with U.S. firms, are more likely to have cultures characterized by flexibility and people and detail orientations. Perhaps these cultural factors are the driving force behind the success of Chinese or European firms. That is, Chinese or European firms may rely heavily on the virtues of flexibility and people, detail, and team orientations to achieve greater business performance and customer satisfaction. These societal cultures are contexts of choice and provide the choices

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available, the vocabulary for making these choices, and the meaning we attach to the choices.

A dilemma, similar to whether one ought to conceive culture as an ideational or socio-cultural system when trying to understand its operation in organizations, is whether culture is something that an organization is or something that an organization has (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000; Smircich, 1983). Although some theorists, such as Stein (1985b), have favored the former conception of organizational culture in which culture is seen as something an organization is, or as Smirchich wrote as a root metaphor, it is clear from the literature that most researchers prefer to see it as something that the organization has (cf. Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982), a variable (Smirchich) "assumed characteristic of an entire organization" (Hofstede et al., 1990).

Individuals may choose to leave a culture but when possible, individuals should have access to their culture, much like we treat access to material resources as desirable. To accomplish this analysis, I discussed an action plan to implement the terms involved, as well as how these definitions relate to the problem in the following.

Leadership

Researchers have suggested that there are two views of leadership: the traditional transactional leadership, involving an exchange process between leader and subordinate and transformational leadership that allows for the development and transformation of people (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Meyer & Botha, 2000). Transactional leaders enhance the subordinates' readiness to perform at expected levels by offering rewards for acceptable

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performance; thus, resulting in the desired outcomes the leader defined (Bass & Avolio; Meyer & Botha). Transformational leaders inspire their subordinates to adopt the organizational vision as their own, while attempting to heighten their values, concerns, and developmental needs (Cacioppe, 1997). This enabled the researchers to develop the statistically validated MLQ, a full range assessment of both transactional and transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2000).

In most studies of leadership, researchers focused on how a person identified as a leader was behaving or interacting with a group of subordinates. In some cases, this group of subordinates is so large that it composes an entire organization, and in this way a few researchers have looked at the leader's influence on organizational culture (Alvesson & Berg, 1992). There is no one-way definition but rather multiple definitions, and therefore, it is not surprising to find copious constructs that further define leadership by its ambiguity, complexity, and dynamic processes (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998). Furthermore, leadership literature reveals a puzzle-like effect of meaning that has failed to discern the structure of leadership. The literature points to an intersection between leadership as a universal concept and leadership as a process (Kanter, 1996). Bass (1981) stated, "Leadership is a universal human phenomenon" (p. 5). Chemers and Ayman (1993) posited that leadership was "a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task" (p. 1).

Northouse (2004) wrote:

Leadership has been conceptualized, and the following components can be identified as central to the phenomenon of leadership: (a) leadership is a process;

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(b) leadership involves influence, (c) leadership occurs within a group context, and (d) leadership involves goal attainment. (p. 3)

Referring to these components, Northouse provided the definition of leadership as a "process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3). Identifying leadership as a process implies that it is not a trait or quality that exists in the leader, but rather a transactional event that happens between the leader and the followers. Both leaders and followers are involved. Leaders need followers and followers need leaders (Burns, 1978; Heller & Van Til, 1983; Hollander, 1992; Jago, 1982). Process implies that the leader effects and is effected by followers. It emphasizes that leadership is an interactive event; however, "it is the leader that initiates the relationship, creates the communication linkages, and carries the burden for maintaining the relationship" (Northouse, 2004, p. 3).

Leadership involves influence. It relates to how the leader affects followers. Northouse (2004) wrote, "Influence is the sine qua non of leadership, without influence, leadership does not exist" (p. 3). Researchers found that leaders must absorb and contain anxiety that arises when things do not work as they should (Hirschhorn, 1988). Leaders must provide stability and emotional reassurance. Thus, leaders may "assume a perpetual supportive role" (Stein, 1992).

Northouse (2004) revealed that leadership occurred in groups. A group can be defined as a small task party or a large organization with a common purpose. Groups are the context in which leadership occurs. Leadership is accessible and is not confined to only the formally designated leader in the group (Northouse) but rather available to all.

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As groups develop, the leader must not only possess a vision but also be able to impose it and develop it further as external conditions change (Stein, 1992).

Leadership includes attention to goals. It requires directing a group toward achieving a task. Leaders direct their energies toward followers who are attempting to mutually accomplish something. In the 1950s and 1960s, organizational leadership was approached through patterns of behavior. This way of thinking evolved into what is known as the style approach, which focuses on the action the leaders take (Lord, DeVader, & Alliger, 1986).

According to Northouse (2004) the style approach can be distinguished from the trait approach, which emphasizes personality characteristics, and the skill approach, which emphasizes the leader's capabilities in that it focuses exclusively on what leaders do and how they act by describing the major components of leader behavior. The style approach broadens leadership study to include the actions of leaders toward subordinates and how the leader behaves in various situations: "It reminds leaders that their impact on others occurs through the tasks they perform as well as in the relationships they create" (Northouse, p. 74).

Burns (1979) identified two forms of leadership: transformational and transactional. As noted, transactional leadership occurs when a person interacts with another person for the purpose of exchanging valued objects with no mutual pursuit of a higher purpose. On the contrary, transformational leadership occurs "when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (Burns, p. 382).

In addition, Geijsel (2002) described a transformational leader as one who possessed a clear vision, a charismatic personality, innovative style, motivational technique, and persuasive attitude. Furthermore, the transformational leader shared responsibilities and encouraged collaboration. Motivation and encouragement will be spurred on by the use of best practices (Geijsel). Although many scholars assumed that there was one best style of leadership, Fiedler (1967) postulated in the contingency model that the leader's effectiveness is based on situational contingency, or a match between the leader's style and situational favorableness, later called situational control (Brown, 2001). Culture starts with leadership, is reinforced with the accumulated learning of the organizational members, and is a powerful (albeit often implicit) set of forces that determine human behavior.

Culture and Leadership

It has long been recognized that organizational culture plays a significant role in performance outcomes. This recognition has been implicitly and explicitly expressed in several quarters, mainly in the mainstream organizational behavior and management literature (cf. Baker, 2002; Smith, 2003; Tharp, 2005). According to Smirchich (1983) and Hatch (1993), the idea that business organizations have a cultural quality that is relevant for performance was recognized as far back as the 1970s, as evidenced by the 1980 publication of *Business Week* with the cover story *"Corporate Culture: The Hard-to-Change Values That Spell Success or Failure"* (as cited in Smircich, 1983). In particular, Deal and Kennedy (1982) and Peters and Waterman (1982) were instrumental in popularizing the notion that certain cultural orientations led to organizational

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effectiveness and strong performance. Others (cf. Alvesson, 2002; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Ouchi, 1981; Smith, 2003; Stein, 1985b) also made similar assertions, although many of these assertions were based only on anecdotal evidence, which rightly or wrongly was described as selective (Denison & Mishra, 1995).

Empirical studies to confirm the relationship between culture and performance have been relatively limited and generally not well received (Wilderom et al., 2000). This, according to Denison and Mishra (1995), was mainly a result of the critique of the application of positivist approaches to the social sciences. When researchers have conducted such studies (cf. Denison & Mishra), it has been found that the cultural traits of involvement and adaptability were strong predictors of growth, and consistency and mission would be strong predictors of profitability. Christensen and Gordon (1999) and Wilderom et al. also catalogued other empirical studies that uncovered similar relationships. Beyond just particular cultural orientations, Deal and Kennedy (1982) and Kotter and Heskett (1992) also noted that there were correlations between strong cultures and the strong performance of some organizations. In these studies mentioned here, a strong culture was measured by the degree to which all sections of the organization bought into key aspects of the culture (Thompson, 1993).

The culture that exists in an organization is important for a number of reasons. According to Kotter and Heskett (1992) and Thompson (1993), for an organization to be effective, congruence must exist between the organization's values, its resources, and the environment. Indeed, it is common to find references to culture as an obstacle to change and problem resolution (Bate, 1984). The culture in the organization reflects in the way that people perform tasks, set objectives, and administer the necessary resources to

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achieve these objectives (Thompson). It also affects the way people make decisions, think, feel, and act in response to the opportunities and threats affecting the organization (Thompson).

A strong, unique, and appropriate corporate culture, in Tharp's (2005) view, has the ability to reduce uncertainty by creating a common way to interpret events and issues. It can:

1. create a sense of order in that members know what is expected;

2. create a sense of continuity;

3. provide a common identity and a unity of commitment; and

4. provide a vision of the future around which the company can rally.

Culture is deeply rooted in an organization's history and the collective experiences of its members. Although changing a culture requires time and resources (Stein, 1992), altering an organizational culture involves a participative leadership style, for it is the leaders who "create and transmit organizational culture" (Stein, p. 9). Successful cultural changes involve effective leaders that seize the opportunity to organize support for cultural change. The key factor is that leadership initiates the change process.

To move the food service organization toward the desired clan culture, the leader(s) should open communication by surveying the employees to identify their needs, promote teamwork and participation among the members, implement programs that recognize employees for their contributions to enhance morale and encourage teamwork, empower workers, generate a high level of trust, express sincere concern for the group members, and provide opportunities for self-management. This new emphasis does not

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mean that employees should become undisciplined while the manager becomes too permissive. It does not mean that the group should be overcome with social cliques or power clusters, but only answer to an internal focus, or dismiss expectations or hard work.

Managers should never ignore underachievers or nonperformers, or cultivate an overall freedom that is void of responsibility. Quite often, it is the underachiever who with proper training does excel and with loyalty do contribute immensely to the overall performance of the organization.

Likewise, Hayton et al. (2002) suggested that culture could be defined as "a set of shared values, beliefs, and expected behaviors. Deeply embedded, unconscious, and even irrational shared values shape political institutions as well as social and technical systems, all of which simultaneously reflect and reinforce values and beliefs" (p. 33). Researchers have based the studies of organizational culture to date in large part on multiple levels such as department, division, company, or country. Based on these studies, Sarros et al. (2005) maintained that culture is "the deep structure of organizations, which is rooted in the values, beliefs and assumptions held by organizational members" (p. 159).

According to Sarros et al. (2005),

When we speak of organizational culture, we refer to the meanings inherent in the actions and procedures of organizational commerce and discourse. Culture evolves and is not manipulated easily, while climate is temporal and often subject to manipulation by people with power and influence. (p. 159)

In his essay, "Organizational Values and Leadership," Tannenbaum (2003) reported that, "There is a growing body of literature that documents the bottom-line benefits of

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investing in a performance-oriented organizational culture that focuses, to a large extent, on values and leadership" (p. 19).

It is unfortunate that not all organizations will be lucky enough to have a Herb Kelleher or Bill Gates at the helm, but all leaders can improve the ability of their firms by recognizing the importance of their human resource function in developing the workforce and policies needed to harmonize an organization's efforts in a wide range of geographic locales. Indeed, management techniques that are appropriate to New York and California may be entirely inappropriate and ineffective in countries in which the cultural dimensions are distinctly different and people's worldviews are fundamentally different. According to Kim (1999):

> International environments are changing rapidly. Nothing is permanent, and the cause of yesterday's success may be the cause of tomorrow's failure. Today's leaders must assume the responsibility for creating new models of management systems because many of the assumptions on which management practice will be based are now becoming obsolete. Foreign competition and the need to trade more effectively overseas have forced most corporations and government to become increasingly culturally sensitive and globally minded. (p. 227)

Despite the challenges involved in achieving this level of harmonization, it is absolutely essential to a successful enterprise today. Regarding this, Kim (1999) reported:

> Changes in the contemporary global economy highlight many of the emerging challenges facing human resource management. Vast macro-societal changes increasingly bind countries into interdependent nations in which goods, capital, and people move freely. Between these communities, however, there remains a patchwork of cultural barriers. (p. 227)

From the ongoing strife in the Middle East and South Asia it is suggested that such cultural barriers remain highly salient to many people around the world, and overcoming these cross-cultural barriers in the workplace requires more than seat-of-the-pants management. As Kim (1999) emphasized:

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> To remain successful in this new global age, agencies must commit themselves to transnationalism. They must also internalize strategies that are likely to succeed in global competition. Implementing successful global strategies requires careful attention to the paradoxes created in the management of human resources and the maintenance of multifaceted organizational cultures. (p. 227)

Some important leadership and organizational cultural factors that contribute to lasting economic success include having a sound business model and excellent financial management, but to achieve economic success, effective leadership and strongly held organizational values are absolutely essential (Tannenbaum, 2003). One of the gurus of organizational leadership suggested, the organizational culture will certainly shape how we perceive the same events, and will make it more likely that we will disagree about those events to the extent that the cultures we come from are different (Avolio, 2005, p. 100). To re-assure his position, he pundits, a challenging organizational culture is money in the bank as far as I am concerned (p. 108)

The fit between cultural characteristics and management practices is another important factor in the successful implementation of management practices (Erez & Gati, 2004). According to Mullins (1993), a strong culture was crucial for successful management. Deal and Kennedy (1982) noted that a strong culture sets out a system of informal rules that determines how people are to behave and lead most of the time, as viewed in leadership styles and theories.

Leadership Theories

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) cited that there was no best leadership style, but rather that there could be best attitudes for managers. The major advance of the situational approach is the recognition that for different development levels and situations, different leadership styles are more effective. Leadership styles can therefore

be defined as the behavior of an organization's leader as influenced by the situation surrounding that leader (Senior, 1997). Yukl (1998) stated that although situational leadership theories provide insights into reasons for effective leadership, conceptual weaknesses limit the approach's utility. Thus, it is difficult to derive specific testable propositions from the approach, with the approach not permitting strong inferences about the direction of causality (Yukl, 1998).

Leaders are expected to have leadership attributes, qualities, and abilities to be effective, efficient, and productive of excellence in quality and performance as a result of their actions (Bolman & Deal, 1997; Drucker, 1998). In many of the studies on leaders, researchers point out an intersection among leaders, followers, and their approaches to leadership (Northouse, 2004). Through this connection, the researchers revealed several processes and actions that leadership theories and assumptions defined that gave light to the understanding of how people lead. In this understanding, the concept of leadership is a universal and dynamic concept based on the philosophical views of each academic field to simplify and identify what leaders do when they lead (Stogdill & Bass, 1990). As a result, it is not surprising to see the multiple theories, assumptions, approaches, and styles of leadership.

In this section, I addressed the theoretical concept of leadership and how it relates to leaders and their organizations. For the purpose of this review, I provided an overview of leadership through the following topics: (a) the definition of leadership and (b) the synthesis of past and present leadership studies. Burns (1978) viewed transactional and transformational leadership as a dimensional construct with the two at opposite ends of the same continuum. In contrast, Bass (1985) viewed the two as complementary

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constructs, and as such saw it possible, in fact almost necessary, for a leader to engage in both leadership behaviors. Transformational leadership is not a substitute for transactional leadership, but rather tends to add to its effectiveness (Bass, 1997).

The important constructs of leadership styles and organizational and societal cultures are not independent of each other. Researchers have shown that there is constant interplay between leadership and culture (Berrio, 2003). Bass and Avolio (1993) found that effective leaders needed to be attentive to beliefs, values, and assumptions in an organization, to be precise, the culture. Therefore, it is important to know which styles of leadership are most effective in which type of organizational culture.

Since the late 1970s, the literature on leadership has featured a debate and program of research exploring relationships between transactional and transformational leadership. To some degree, this work was given an impetus by the search for appropriate leadership strategies in the increasingly turbulent, unstable, and competitive post-World War II economic, geopolitical, and social environment and the declining significance of the pre-existing social contract that had implied long-term employment in return for loyalty (Griffin, 2003; Simic, 1998). With the apparent demise of a transaction fundamental to organizational leadership and an emerging context of organizational volatility, the search to better understand the leaderships of stability and change and the leaderships of contract and values began.

Alvesson (1993) believed this view allowed a combination of the two elements, which could be found in the activities of many managers. Leadership is therefore not seen as standing above or being able to change culture, but rather as trying to influence people's minds. As has been noted, although there are many leadership theories, the two

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that have dominated the literature since the 1980s are transformational leadership and transactional leadership. Burns (1978) was one of the first to provide an explicit definition of transformational leadership.

Burns (1978) proposed that the leadership process occurs in one of two ways, either transactional or transformational. Transactional leadership is based on bureaucratic authority and legitimacy in the organization. Transactional leaders emphasize work standards, assignments, and task-oriented goals. They also focus on task completion and employee compliance and rely quite heavily on organizational rewards and punishments to influence employee performance.

In contrast, Burns (1978) characterized transformational leadership as a process that motivates followers by appealing to higher ideals and moral values. Transformational leaders must be able to define and articulate a vision for their organizations, and the followers must accept the credibility of the leader. More recent, Bass and Avolio (1994) developed a theory of transformational leadership that is a culmination and extension of Bennis and Nanus (1985), Burns (1978), Tichy and Cohen (1997) and others earlier work.

Weese (1995) conducted a study to investigate the concepts of transformational leadership and organizational culture with Big Ten and Mid-American Conference university recreation programs. Leaders have offered tempered positions relative to the impact that a leader can have on shaping and preserving the culture of an organization (Weese). They have suggested that the culture is the organization, not something that the organization possesses, and consequently, culture change is an arduous assignment.

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The current thinking in the area of leadership is devoted to the leader's role in maintaining the organizational culture or in adapting it to implement a change of direction that a new vision dictated (Bryman, 1992). The researcher suggested that the leader can alter or impact the leadership style and organizational culture.

Transformational Versus Transactional Leadership Styles

The transformational versus transactional leadership grid, as shown in Tables 1 and 2, implied that every leader type displays a combination of the transactional and transformational factors, but each leader's profile involves more of one and less of the other. Those leaders who are more satisfying to their followers and who are more effective as leaders are more transformational and less transactional (Avolio & Bass, 1991). Cultural adaptation is maximized when best suited leadership style attributes are employed, as shown in Table 1.

The distinction between transactional leadership and transformational leadership is close to the distinction made between management and leadership. One might argue that the transactional leader might be better termed the transactional manager. Moreover, do the terms *leader* and *manager* need to be dichotomous, or could we adopt a more comprehensive and eclectic model that embraces what is contextually and personally appropriate for a given situation in a particular organization? Leadership is an all encompassing, dynamic, and eclectic notion, and operational leaders who adopt this perspective might be more prepared to deal with the current realities of any organization.

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Table 1. *Descriptions of Transformational and Transactional Leadership*

Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership
Idealized Influence (attributed and behavior): provides vision and sense of mission, instills pride, gains respect, and trust.	Contingent Reward: contracts exchange of rewards for effort, promises rewards for good performance, recognizes accomplishments.
Inspirational Motivation: communicates high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts, and expresses important purposes in simple ways.	Management-by-Exception (active): watches and searches for deviations from rules and standards; takes corrective action,
Intellectual Stimulation: promotes intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving.	
Individualized Consideration: gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches, advises.	

Note. Based on Bass, Avolio, Jung, and Berson (2003) and "Managerial Leadership: A Review of Theory and Research," by G. Yukl, (1989), *Yearly Review of Management, 15*, (2), 251-289

The transactional and transformational rubric as shown in Table 2 can be applied to teams

and organizations as a whole. Members of transformational teams care about each other,

intellectually stimulate each other, inspire each other, and identify with the team's goals.

Transformational teams are high-performing. Transformational leadership adds to the

effectiveness of transactional leadership; transformational leadership does not substitute

for transactional leadership. They are compared as shown in Table 2.

Table 2.*Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles*

Transformational leadership	Transactional leadership
Transformational leadership implies that leaders inspire followers to develop and grow. They are inspiring followers to transform themselves. The follower, thus inspired is focusing on higher goals, such as collective purposes.	Transactional leadership implies that there is a reciprocal exchange between leaders and followers. The exchange relationship exists as long as both parties have an interest to continue and once they both reach their goal, the relationship ends.
Transformational leaders focus more on end values, such as: 1. equality, 2. justice, 3. liberty.	Transactional leaders are skillful in manipulating values of means, such as: honesty, fairness, responsibility, and the importance of honoring one person's commitments.
Transformational leaders create awareness and acceptance of higher goals and stimulate followers to pursue these goals.	Transactional leaders use reward systems to focus and motivate followers on certain tasks.
The leader-follower relationship is based on intellectual stimulation, courage, vision, and charisma. Transformational leaders deal with a lot of complexity and uncertainty.	The leader-follower relationship is based on expectation. The leader is expecting the follower to perform his or her task and the follower expects the leader to give him or her the expected reward.
The leader-follower relationship strength is influenced by the follower's heart.	The leader-follower relationship strength is influenced by the leader's behavior.
Transformational leadership appeals to the follower's values.	Transformational leadership appeals to the follower's behavior.
The leaders are looking the follower's development.	The leaders are looking for the follower's good evaluation.
Followers are motivated by pride and self-esteem.	Followers are motivated by promotion, pay and similar rewards.
The leader-follower relationship is a long-term one.	The leader-follower relationship is a short-term one.

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Leaders and followers are committed to goals.	Leaders and followers are compliant with rules and objectives.
The leader has character and competence.	The leader has rank and position.

Note. Based on Bass, Avolio, Jung, and Berson (2003) and "Managerial Leadership: A Review of Theory and Research," by G. Yukl, (1989), *Yearly Review of Management, 15*, (2), 251-289

Bass (1985) suggested that transformational and transactional leaderships were different dimensions, meaning that a person can be a transformational and transactional leader as shown in Table 1. On the basis of this suggestion, Bryman et al. (1988) suggested that the transformational type of leadership might develop from the transactional one, but not vice versa. Researchers have suggested further that the transformational leadership is a special type of transactional leadership because both leaderships are goal oriented. The best of leadership is both transformational and transactional. Transformational leadership augments the effectiveness of transactional leadership; it does not replace transactional leadership (Waldman, Bass, & Yammarino, 1990).

A review of the definitions Bass (1990b) used to describe the components of transformational leadership and transactional leadership shows a similarity in the terminology used to distinguish between leadership behaviors that are task-oriented and relations-oriented, between the dichotomous constructs of leadership versus management, and between the concepts of autocratic versus democratic leadership. Transformational leadership behaviors include instilling pride; giving respect, trust, and personal attention; and coaching and advising. These tend to be linked to almost identical traits in those who are identified as leaders.

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In contrast, transactional leadership behavior includes exchanging rewards for effort, promising rewards for good performance, and recognizing accomplishments. These behaviors are linked to traits identified in managers. Similar links can be made with the terminology related to autocratic and democratic styles. This is important because many theorists believe that individuals are either relations-oriented or task-oriented, autocratic or democratic, transformational or transactional, leader or manager; in short, one cannot be both (Blake, Shepard, & Mouton, 1964; Burns, 1979; Davis, 1984; Drath & Palus, 1994; Fiedler, 1967).

The findings support that notion, although whether this is true of the nature of individuals or their particular circumstances is less clear. It could be that some individuals may change their leadership styles given the right opportunity. Nevertheless, the findings suggest it is not likely that an individual leader is both transformational and transactional at the same time.

The difference comes from the methods used to motivate people and the goals that were set (Hater & Bass, 1988). Thus, one model is based on the leader's power to inspire followers and the other is based on the leader's creativity regarding the reward system. Transformational leaders inspire and motivate others by "providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work" (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p. 2). The spirit of the team is "aroused" while "enthusiasm and optimism are displayed" (Bass, 1998, p. 5). The goals are usually higher for the first type of leadership, whereas for the second type the goals are more operational. Avolio (1999) suggested that transformational leadership comes to augment the transformational one. Meta-analytical evidence supports the generalizeable findings that transformational leadership is more effective, productive, innovative, and

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satisfying to followers than is transactional leadership (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubrahmaniam, 1996).

It was from the nature of this exchange that several other aspects of the model flowed. Every process has, or should have, a feedback loop as an essential element. The transactional leadership model is no exception. In fact, the feedback loop is essential in that it is through its action that the transaction between the parties is consummated. The contingent nature of the reward, discipline or threat thereof, the nature of the feedback loop and the reaction that is stimulated provide another feature of this model (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

As Judge and Piccolo (2004) explained, "The leader clarifies expectations and establishes the rewards for meeting those expectations" (p. 755). The feedback loop provides the indication and quality of performance being provided in response. If the performance meets expectations, the leader is expected to tender the agreed on reward. The leader has an open course of action in the case of poor performance, "constructive transactions or exchanges" (Judge & Piccolo, p. 755), a process that Bass (1990b) termed *management-by-exception*. The leader can clearly establish expectations at the beginning that are then "use[d] to monitor deviations" (Howell & Avolio, 1993, p. 891) and against which performance triggers the response.

Decades of academic research, as well as numerous empirical investigations, have provided a variety of definitions and theories of leadership. Although no clear and unequivocal meaning exists, the definitions are similar enough to assume that leadership is an attempt to influence and has the power to induce compliance (Wren, 1995).

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The study of leadership began at the dawn of civilization with Egyptian rulers, Greek heroes, and Biblical patriarchs all having leadership as a common trait. Because the focus of leaders varied over time, it has influenced and shaped the development and progression of leadership theories. As Barnett, McCormick, and Conners (2001) reminded us, the nature of and relationships between transformational and transactional leadership require further scrutiny to show attributes and styles.

Cultural and Leadership Attributes

Leadership and organizational culture researchers often refer to leadership and culture as people oriented or task oriented (Bass, 1990a). In their recent study, *Business Strategy, Organizational Culture and Performance Outcomes in China's Technology Industry,* Chow and Liu (2007) identify three types of corporate cultures that can be found in almost any cultural milieu today: bureaucratic, innovative, and supportive cultures, described in Table 3.

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Table 3. *Bureaucratic, Innovative, and Supportive Organizational Cultures*

Culture type	Description
Bureaucratic culture	This type of culture is characterized as hierarchical and compartmentalized. There are clear lines of authority. The work is organized and systematic. Bureaucratic organization is power oriented, regulated, procedural, and hierarchical. It is not suitable to attract and retain creative and ambitious people. The explicit rules and regulations are likely to inhibit idea generation and constrain employees in using various sources of knowledge for developing new products and services.
Innovative culture	This type of culture is exciting and dynamic. It provides a creative place to work, filled with challenge and risk.
Supportive culture	This type of organizational culture is described as trusting, encouraging, relationship oriented, and collaborative. It provides an open, harmonious, and warm place to work. People are friendly and helpful to each other.

Note. From "Business strategy, organizational culture and performance outcomes in China's technology industry," by I. H. Chow and S. S. Liu, (2007), *Human Resource Planning, 30*(2), 47.

There are some other types of organizational cultures that exist in family-owned and operated enterprises. For instance, according to a recent study Stavrou, Kleanthous, and Anastasiou (2005) conducted, family-owned and operated company cultures can be paternalistic, laissez-faire, participative, or professional, as shown in Table 4.

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Table 4 *Family-Owned and Operated Organizational Cultures*

Culture type	Description
Paternalistic	In this setting, relationships are managed hierarchically. The founder or other family leaders retain all authority to make decisions and the key information about operations. Employees are considered untrustworthy; with close supervision by family members, they are assumed to be proactive toward accomplishing the family's wishes.
Laissez-faire	This type of culture is in place when family members turn management responsibility over to trusted employees. In such cases, lack of control by the family over the primary operations of the firm is prevalent, and employees feel that family members abdicate their leadership responsibilities.
Participative	In this setting, the leader encourages employees to be involved in decision making, thus basing relationships on high levels of trust.
Professional	In such cultures, relationships are individualistic. The firm functions on the basis of professional rules and impersonal procedures.

Note. From "Leadership Personality and Firm Culture During Hereditary Transitions in Family Firms: Model Development and Empirical Investigation," by E. T. Stavrou, T. Kleanthous, & T. Anastasiou, (2005), *Journal of Small Business Management, 43*(2), 187-89.

Last, Jandeska and Kraimer (2005) identified two other types of organizational culture: male and collectivistic, as shown in Table 5.

Table 5. *Masculine and Collectivist Organizational Cultures*

Culture type	Description
Masculine culture	The masculine organizational culture dimension reflects the more traditional workplace—one, men created, maintained, and controlled since its inception. Masculinity captures the extent to which the organization values men more than women. It is associated with stereotypical male traits such as independence, internal competition, self-promotion, overt ambitiousness, decisiveness, aggressiveness, and the establishment of status and authority. This code of conduct in masculine cultures, although recognizable to males, can be completely alien to females and thus, would be considered less hospitable toward women's careers. For example, an "old-boy network" excludes women from centers of influence and valuable sources of information, often trivializing or ignoring their contributions. Even women in senior roles in large corporations find themselves "on the outside looking in" when it comes to information sharing and access to the inner circle, in which decisions are made. Women characterize such a culture as exclusionary and claim that upper management often lacks awareness of the barriers it creates to their assimilation and advancement.
Collectivistic culture	The collectivistic culture dimension emphasizes cooperation, harmony, and subordination of individual priorities to those of the larger group. Collectivistic culture captures the extent to which the organization is team-oriented and values the contributions of all employees, recognizing the impact of full use on productivity. Research has found that employees in collectivistic cultures tend to identify with their work groups based on a sense of moral duty.

Note. From "Women's Perceptions of Organizational Culture, Work Attitudes and Role-Modeling Behavior," by K. E. Jandeska, and M. L. Kraimer, (2005), *Journal of Managerial Issues, 17*(4), 461-62.

Cultural Aspects of Organizational Leadership

Managers are positioned as the superiors of relationships in the corporate workplace. As superiors, they are expected to provide leadership for their respective subordinate employees. Given that individual managers differ in their culture, beliefs, values, and attitudes, one should expect that they would demonstrate different styles of leadership. In addition, since leadership involves a specified leader and followers, each leadership orientation can be construed from the perspectives of both leaders and followers.

Hofstede (1994) highlights the importance of understanding leadership styles from at least a dyadic perspective: "… managers derive their raison d'être from the people they manage; culturally, they are the followers of the people they lead, and their effectiveness depends on the latter" (p93).

Researchers, such as Hofstede, have made a career out of examining the fundamental differences between various cultural dimensions. According to Hofstede (2007),

> [F]or those who work in international business, it is sometimes amazing how different people in other cultures behave. We tend to have a human instinct that "deep inside" all people are the same—but they are not. Therefore, if we go into another country and make decisions based on how we operate in our own home country—the chances are we'll make some very bad decisions. (p. 2)

Although the fact that cultures have different organizational styles is certainly not an earth-shattering revelation, it does underscore the need to take these factors into account when discussing organizational leadership.

Leadership in various parts of the world will inevitably involve different approaches than exist in the United States, Europe, Australia or elsewhere, but some

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commonalities can be said to exist across the board in effective organization no matter

what the cultural milieu. For instance, Tannenbaum (2003) suggested that truly great

organizations possess core values and core purposes that remain stable over the long

term, although their day-to-day operating values (i.e., practices, strategies, tactics,

processes, structures, and methods) tend to undergo change on a routine basis. According

to Tannenbaum,

> If vision is the picture we want to create and if mission is the reason why the
> organization exists, then core values answer the question: "How do we act—what
> are the norms of behavior that define our culture?" Inevitably, one of the factors
> that make significant change difficult is discontinuity between core and operating
> values and norms. (p. 20)

Therefore, there is a distinct relationship between what core values and operating norms

and organization's leadership desires and the type of culture that will emerge. In this

regard, Balmer and Greyser (2003) pointed out that there were two basic concepts

involved in the cultural aspects of leadership in organizations:

> The relation of culture or any other aspect of an organization to the concept of
> identity is both an empirical question (does the organization include it among
> those things that are central, distinctive and enduring) and a theoretical one (does
> the theoretical characterization of the organization in question predict that culture
> will be a central, distinctive, and an enduring aspect of the organization. (p. 80)

Core values of great organizations in almost any cultural milieu will possess the

following characteristics, all of which have been shown to be essential to the healthy

growth of organization:

1. Shared core values and purpose ultimately define every individual's
   membership in the organization.

2. Core values define the desired goal or end state of the culture of the
   organization.

3. People have a fundamental need to belong to something of which these
   individuals can feel proud.

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4. Shared core values fulfill the deepest needs of every person and create a committed workforce.

5. Core values cannot be determined; these values must be an authentic extension of your personal values.

6. Core values are instilled in an organization not by what is said but by what is done (Tannebaum, 2003).

Core values should be the focus of cultural studies at the national level, although organizational practices should be the focus at the organizational level (Denison, 2003). According to Denison,

> One of the main virtues of culture is that it increases the predictability of the actions of others in situations in which available choices are equivocal in terms of economic reasoning. The concept has two quite different meanings: one refers to a "positive" culture, while the other refers to a "cohesive" culture. (p. 119)

The first meaning concerns the content of the norms and values, and the latter has to do with the uniformity with which the norms and values are held (Denison). Stavrou et al. (2005) advised leader behavior is not only complex and multidimensional, but also contingent on the overall system in which leaders operate. Furthermore, Stavrou et al. stated, "In succession planning, the personality characteristics of leaders who leave office (successes), as well as those who take over (successors), become of interest" (p. 187).

The rocky road Southwest Airlines experienced during the absence of Herb Kelleher was evidence of this observation. For instance, following Kelleher's absence for health-related problems, the successor continued Kelleher's approach to leadership, but because the successor did not have the charisma and loyalty Kelleher enjoyed, his efforts were doomed from the outset. In this regard, Trottman (2003) pointed out that, "some employees say that newer hires just don't get how special the culture is," and cited a

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long-term employee who noted: "Southwest treats its employees so well and really takes care of them' (p. A1).

At one point, the human resources managers at Southwest resorted to attempts to make working at the airlines like it had been when Kelleher was leading the company: "Much of the advice for avoiding overload recalled Mr. Kelleher's emphasis on fun. Workers will be taught to value 'kid spirit' by taking 'joy breaks,' such as staging yo-yo contests or hopscotch games in the office" (Trottman, 2003, p. A1). It is not surprising that these initiatives were not as successful as the human resources managers had expected (Trottman).

According to Messick and Kramer (2005),

> Currently there is strong consensus that leaders have significant impact on organizational culture, often long after they have passed away (e.g., organizations such as Disney, University of Virginia, Hewlett Packard, etc.). In addition, numerous studies suggest that a critical role of the organizational leader involves guiding the ethical behavior of the employees. (p. 309–310)

One of the Messick and Kramer's more interesting findings was that the moral or immoral actions of a living leader had the greatest influence when such actions were taken early in the leader's career. By contrast, after leaders died, these same actions resulted in the greatest influence when they were accomplished later in the leader's career.

Messick and Kramer (2005) cited two possible lessons for business leaders that could be discerned from these findings:

1. Leaders may benefit personal reputations and perceived effectiveness by ensuring that their early career moral actions are widely known.

2. These findings suggest that the ideal time for leaders to increase the level of philanthropic activity, or at least the public relations emphasis on such

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activity, is toward the end of the leaders' career: "In this way, a leader's positive legacy will be cemented long after he or she is gone" (p. 310).

Not all leaders can be a Kelleher, Disney, or Patton, and charismatic leaders have a distinct advantage over their transactional counterparts. For instance, Alvesson (2002) maintained:

> The bearer of charisma enjoys loyalty and authority by virtue of a mission believed to be embodied in him . . . this is a bit difficult in business life, as the mission (ultimately to make profit) may be less capable of making the pulse beat quicker for most persons in an organization. (p. 110)

Although charismatic leaders might have an edge, it is possible for almost anyone to become a more effective leader if some intuitive logic is applied to the problem and an effort is made to learn the culture (Alvesson, 2002). For instance, Storey (2004) suggested that,

> Effective leadership development requires a systems approach combining formal training, on-the-job coaching, and developmental assignments in a mutually reinforcing way. This is achieved by closely linking leadership development to organizational culture and business goals. Individuals and organizations find that the line between work and learning is becoming blurred. Learning is part of getting work done; it is both an input and an output. (p. 310)

There is also a need for organizational leaders to make good on their promises by linking employee empowerment with real values rather than superfluous rewards such as certificates of appreciation and employee of the month awards. One of the core values of great organizations is that the organizations are characterized not by what they said but by what they did.

In this regard, Messick and Kramer (2005) emphasized that,

> Leaders, generally have the authority to change group procedures, re-assign roles, or resolve conflicts. One effective method for building trust and motivation is for the leader to provide "artifacts" of autonomy that represent faith in the group's ability—for example, allowing group members to attend continuing education or

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skill development courses, doing away with time cards, or allowing participation
in the re-evaluation of reward systems. (p. 155)

Although a company's leader has the responsibility and authority to accomplish these

goals when less-empowered managers might not be, he or she is not able to accomplish

much in most organizational settings without a cadre of top high-ranking employees to

help them.

In this regard, Landau, Ward, Amazon, Sonnenfeld, and Agle (2007) observed

that,

The chief executive officer (CEO) of an organization is generally held
accountable for the firm's performance. However, the actual management of the
firm is often shared among the top management team (TMT). The TMT is a small
group of influential executives at the apex of the organization and is responsible
for setting priorities, analyzing the environment, formulating strategies, and
directing implementation. (p. 11)

These responsibilities frequently involve decision processes that were

unstructured, complex, and ambiguous; Lankau et al.'s work to date indicated that the

characteristics of the team and its members can greatly affect the outcomes of such

decision processes (Lankau et al.,2007).

Considered together, the aforementioned suggests that the top leadership of an

organization highly influences its culture, and workers play a reciprocal role by helping

them achieve the organization's goals and collectively maintaining a competitive

atmosphere. The extent that an organizations leadership and its followers embrace the

same vision and core values is the extent that everyone involved will want to keep the

organization viable. I discussed these issues further in terms of how these processes can

benefit the larger society in which organizations compete.

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Relationship between Organizational Leadership and Society

According to Mastroianni (2005), there is an important dimension underlying organizational cultures that exists along an orientation continuum, with varying degrees of institutional or occupational orientation acting as influential factors in how leaders and followers perceived the work being accomplished and the importance of the organizational goals. The extent that these institutional orientations serve the community (e.g., police and firefighters) is the extent to which such orientations benefit the society in which they exist. In this regard, Mastroianni reported:

> The institutional orientation is conceptualized as rooted in a calling to serve higher ideals represented by a shared vision of an organization, rather than in individual self-interest. The individual with an occupational orientation, on the other hand, approaches his or her work as a job, to be retained or abandoned based largely (though perhaps not solely) on a calculus of self-interest. (p. 76)

Companies that promote an organizational culture that is conducive to employee growth, development, and advancement will likely enjoy a number of benefits that encourage commitment to the organization and increase the level of institutional orientation. In the recent study, *Organizational Commitment, Human Resource Practices and Organizational Characteristics*, Fiorito, Bozeman, Young, and Meurs (2007) reported, "Organizational commitment persists as a primary variable of interest in studies of employment, organizations, and allied fields. Numerous studies have shown that organizational commitment predicts important variables, including absenteeism, organizational citizenship, performance, and turnover" (p. 186).

Jandeska and Kraimer (2005) stated:

Organizational commitment is defined as an employee's affective attachment to the organization. Employees who are treated well by the organization tend to be more committed to the organization. Highly committed employees will define

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their job obligations more broadly and flexibly, making themselves more likely to engage in citizenship behaviors" (p. 461).

An organizational culture that encourages this type of commitment among its employees will also find that employees are more willing, regardless of predisposition, to engage in behaviors that promote the functioning of the organization because of the vested interest the employees have in seeing the organization do well. In studies to date, researchers have found that organizational commitment is associated with positive citizenship behaviors (Jandeska & Kraimer, 2005). Organizational commitment can be characterized by three related factors:

1. A strong belief in the organization's goals and values.

2. A willingness to exert extra effort on the organization's behalf.

3. A strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Fiorito et al., 2007).

Many major companies are making extra efforts today to promote green (environmentally sound) activities in major ways, frequently spending more on the promotional activities than on the community or environmental initiatives involved. Nevertheless, companies that are perceived to be giving something back to the community in which they operate have a tactical and strategic advantage over those that do not. In this regard, companies that provide employees with opportunities to work in the community through organizations such as Habitat for Humanity can reap the dual benefits of gaining increasing public recognition for their enlightened attitudes as well as helping employees become more institutionally oriented over occupational orientation.

In the essay, "The Relation between Trust in the Supervisor and Subordinate Organizational Citizenship Behavior," Deluga (1995) reported:

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Pro-social organizational behaviors include helping activities aimed at benefiting or assisting another individual. These behaviors may be part of the individual's formal job requirements (in-role) or activities that exceed the stated position specifications. Extra-role behaviors are crucial for organizational effectiveness, because organizations cannot anticipate with perfect accuracy all those activities essential for reaching objectives. (p. 1)

One type of extra-role behaviors is organizational citizenship behavior that Deluga defined as "Individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (p. 2). There have been different types of OCBs associated with organizational effectiveness, including altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship, as shown in Table 6.

Table 6 *Types of OCBs*

Type of organizational citizenship behavior	Description
Altruism	This behavior incorporates spontaneous behaviors that help a specific individual with an organizationally germane task, difficulty, or issue. Altruism includes willfully helping the organization's customers and vendors.
Courtesy	This behavior embodies those subordinate discretionary behaviors directed at skirting work-related problems, particularly as the problems affect others. Courtesy is evident when the subordinate provides advance notice concerning decisions that affect colleagues' work. In contrast to altruism, which refers to helping behavior focusing on existing dilemmas, courtesy concentrates on the prevention of problems.
Conscientiousness	This behavior describes subordinate discretionary role behaviors that go beyond minimal role requirements. The conscientious subordinate adheres to a personal code of appropriate conduct. For example, conscientiousness is demonstrated when a subordinate still attends work when a socially acceptable excuse is readily available (e.g., a minor cold). In contrast to altruism, in which assistance is provided to an individual, the consequences of conscientiousness are more global.
Sportsmanship	This behavior characterizes the subordinate who avoids complaining and agreeably tolerates the annoyances that are an inevitable part of any employment setting. Sportsmanship is exhibited when a subordinate refrains from petty griping about parking inconveniences.
Civic virtue	This behavior refers to subordinate discretionary behaviors that indicate a sincere caring and involvement in the political life of the organization. Civic virtue is evident when a subordinate attends meetings, reads internal mail,

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Type of organizational citizenship behavior	Description
	and responsibly offers constructive suggestions that can benefit the overall organizational well-being.

Note. OCBs = organizational citizenship behaviors. From "The Relation between Trust in the Supervisor and Subordinate Organizational Citizenship Behavior," by R. J. Deluga, (1995), *Military Psychology, 7*(1), p. 1–3.

According to Jandeska and Kraimer (2005),

OCBs are discretionary behaviors that are neither mandated nor compensated by the organization. It includes those behaviors that contribute to maintaining an organization's social system and indirectly benefit the work group or organization as a whole. (p. 462)

Just as more people in the late 1990s sought to use networking to succeed, Jandeska and

Kraimer suggested that companies that encouraged their employees to participate in

community-based initiatives would stand to gain across the board. In this regard,

Jandeska and Kraimer noted:

Theoretically, citizenship behaviors are thought to improve an organization's functioning by "lubricating" its social machinery and contributes to the development of social capital in organizations. Research has in fact found that the average level of employees' organizational citizenship behaviors is positively associated with organizational performance and work group performance. (p. 462)

Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) indicated there remains a dearth of timely

studies that verify the relationship between OCBs and an organization's effectiveness.

Podskoff and Mackenzie advised:

Organizational citizenship behavior derives its practical importance from the premise that it represents contributions that do not in here in formal role obligations. The presumption is that many of these contributions, aggregated over time and persons, enhance organizational effectiveness. [However], this presumption rests more on its plausibility than direct empirical support. (p. 134)

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Based on this research, these authors identified several possible reasons helping, sportsmanship, and civic virtue might be positively related to work group or organizational effectiveness as shown in Table 7.

Table 7 *Potential Reasons OCBs Influence Work Group and Organizational Performance*

Reason	Examples
OCBs may enhance coworker productivity.	Employees who help coworkers "learn the ropes" may help them become more productive employees faster.
	Over time, helping behavior spread best practices throughout the work unit or group.
OCBs may enhance managerial productivity.	If employees engage in civic virtue, the manager may receive valuable suggestions or feedback on his or her ideas for improving unit effectiveness.
	Courteous employees, who avoid creating problems for coworkers, allow the manager to avoid falling into a pattern of crisis management.
OCBs may free resources for more productive purposes.	To the extent employees' help each other with work-related problems is the extent that managers do not have to; consequently, managers can spend more time on productive tasks, such as planning.
	Employees that exhibit conscientiousness require less managerial supervision and permit the manager to delegate more responsibility to them.
	The extent that experienced employees help train and orient new employees reduces the need to devote organizational resources to these activities.
	If employees exhibit sportsmanship, it frees managers from spending too much time dealing with petty complaints.
OCBs may reduce the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions.	A natural by-product of helping behavior is that it enhances team spirit, morale, and cohesiveness, thus reducing the need for group members (or managers) to spend energy and time on group maintenance functions.
	Employees that exhibit courtesy toward others reduce intergroup conflict; thereby diminishing time spent on conflict management activities.
OCBs may serve as an effective	Exhibiting civic virtue by voluntarily attending

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Reason	Examples
means of coordinating activities between team members and across work groups.	and actively participating in work unit meetings helps effort coordination among team members, thus potentially increasing effectiveness and efficiency.
	Exhibiting courtesy by touching base with other team members or members of other functional groups in the organization reduces the likelihood of problems that would otherwise take time and effort to resolve.
OCBs may enhance the organization's ability to attract and retain the best people by making it a more attractive place to work.	Helping behaviors may enhance morale, group cohesiveness, and the sense of belonging to a team, all of which may enhance performance and help the organization to attract and retain better employees.
	Demonstrating sportsmanship by rolling with the punches and not complaining about trivial matters sets an example for others, and thereby develops a sense of loyalty and commitment to the organization that may enhance employee retention.
OCBs may enhance the stability of organizational performance.	Picking up the slack for others that are absent or who have heavy workloads can enhance stability and reduce variability of the work unit's performance.
	Conscientious employees are more likely to maintain a consistently high level of output, thus reducing variability in a work unit's performance.
OCBs may enhance an organization's ability to adapt to environmental changes.	Employees who are in close contact with the marketplace volunteer information about changes in environment and make suggestions about how to respond to them; it helps an organization adapt.
	Employees who attend and actively participate in meetings may aid the dissemination of information in an organization, thus enhancing its responsiveness.
	Employees who exhibit sportsmanship by demonstrating a willingness to take on new

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Reason	Examples
	responsibilities or learn new skills enhance the organization's ability to adapt to changes in its environment.

Note. OCBs = organizational citizenship behaviors. From "Impact of Organizational Citizenship Behavior on Organizational Performance: A Review and Suggestions for Future Research," by P. M. Podsakoff and S. B. MacKenzie, (1997), *Human Performance, 10*(2), p. 134.

Current and Future Trends

Based on the foregoing, one can conclude that some organizations view those employees who participate in OCBs more favorably and reward them more than nonparticipating counterparts (Jandeska & Kraimer, 2005). As noted, however, employee commitment existed along a continuum, and employees have a variety of reasons for participating in OCBs.

According to Jandeska and Kraimer (2005),

Some individuals might be predisposed towards helping others. Research has found that people who are characterized as conscientious and with positive affect engage in more citizenship behaviors. It has also been acknowledged that individuals may engage in organizational citizenship behaviors to enhance their image in the organization. Finally, based on social exchange theory, research has found that employees who are treated well by their organizations will reciprocate by engaging in organizational citizenship behaviors. (p. 462)

For example, Jandeska and Kraimer pointed out that organizational support and organizational fairness were linked with employees' OCBs. The researchers concluded, "One important work attitude underlying all of these reasons to engage in organizational citizenship behavior is that the employee is committed to the organization" (Jandeska & Kraimer, p. 462). Therefore, to the extent to which an organization's leadership can inculcate this sense of organizational commitment, will likely be the extent to which

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employees engage in such OCBs because the employees' interests will be more closely aligned with those of the organization.

<center>Discussion</center>

In the scholarly arena, the importance of understanding organizations from a cultural perspective is increasing. It was also clearly revealed from previous studies that one can not understand the problems of organizations without considering the existing values and norms of the same. Therefore, the behavior and attitudes of people shape organizational norms and values.

Although it is beneficial for an organization's leadership to espouse community involvement and citizenship promotion activities, these techniques will only serve the greater social good when they are directly linked with how closely aligned the employees' interests, values, and desires are with those of the organization. In the United States and other societies, individualistic traits are more highly prized and organizations may be more tolerant or receptive to workers who are consciously indifferent by making suggestions, pointing out inefficient processes or identifying corrupt practices. The same cannot be said for other cultures; however, in which such activities would likely result in a worker's immediate termination or even worse.

Truly great leaders in individualistic societies, defined as those who possess an innate sense of what it takes to get others to achieve a common organizational goal while balancing the needs of the larger society in which they operate, make such approaches look easy and ensure they are profitable at the same time. By sharp contrast, (Hofstede,

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1997) collectivist societies, such as those that exist in Asia, will likely be more interested, at least in the short term, in promoting corporate gains over OCBs.

The enormous environmental catastrophes that await China and have characterized the Soviet Union's push to join the international community are evidence that truly great leaders in different cultures approach situations differently. Li and Tsui (2002) advocated both performance and change, over the long term; however, leaders in China will likely come to recognize that promoting OCBs is good business because these types of behaviors ensure the survival of the company and its employees. Gummer (1987) suggested management must pay more attention to organizational culture, including organizational ideals, norms, and values because management and leaders will then have a greater chance to foster organizational effectiveness. Companies that do not embrace organizational culture by developing and understanding the importance of culture will fail to achieve organizational effectiveness (Nanus, 1992; Smith & Kleiner, 1987).

Another multicultural attribute includes international corporate mergers and organizations with a newly multicultural work force including local people and expatriates. It is important for management to have the ability to manage multicultural organizations effectively. Leaders must be able to understand an employee's religion, values, norms, and working habits. Lack of cultural reference point's means global corporate leaders will not only be ineffective, but the corporation will also fail to make the most of its merger and to sustain enough growth to compete effectively (Apfelthaler, Muller, & Rehder, 2002; Smith & Kleiner, 1987).

Newman and Nollen (1996) concluded that financial performance is better in European and Asian work units of multicultural companies because such companies

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practice and adopt the local culture. Such a strategy can foster organizational effectiveness because adapting local cultural values then can become an asset to the organization; therefore, culture could and should influence organizational effectiveness (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Newman & Nollen, 1996).

When U. S. companies AOL and Time Warner merged, the cultures of each organization were different. AOL had an entrepreneurial new media culture, whereas Time Warner had an old media market culture. The merger ultimately failed because of a lack of management strategies for dealing with existing multiculturalism and failing to develop and implement new cultural strategies. Therefore, researchers postulated that in multicultural companies, domestic or foreign, organizational effectiveness is achieved only if management and leaders take the initiative to bridge different cultural values and norms to enhance effectiveness (Apfelthaler, Muller, & Rehder, 2002).

Over the last 25 years, scholars and practitioners have recognized that diversity has an effect on society at large, as well as in the work environment (Koonce, 2001; Stark, 2001). To achieve organizational effectiveness in multicultural organizations, organizations must develop a corporate diversity strategy aligned with their policies, procedures, and systems. Organizations must engage different strategies for recruiting, appraisal, development, and reward systems to be effective multicultural organizations (Friday & Friday, 2003).

Block (2003) stated, "If we are to succeed in our efforts to build healthy, sustainable organizations, we must continue to invest in the development of cultural leaders who understand and respect the people that are the heart of their success" (p. 332). Therefore, having a better understanding of the organizational culture allows the

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coordinating manager to tailor leadership strategies that create a positive impact in a worker unit's performance.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I provided a review of the relevant peer-reviewed and scholarly literature concerning organizational culture, beginning with various definitions, followed by a discussion of cultural aspects of organizational leadership. An assessment of the relationship between organizational leadership and society was followed by a general discussion. Some of the more salient findings included how leaders in different cultures might view OCBs in accomplishing their fundamental organizational goals.

The research showed that there is a direct relationship between how developed a nation has become and the ability of its organizations to encourage the aforementioned behaviors among its workers. Developing nations may not enjoy the luxury of giving back to the community because they do not yet have anything to give. Therefore, researchers also suggest that just as organizational commitment exists along a continuum, so too does the ability of a company's leadership to promote OCBs in its employees.

As Hayton et al. (2002) pointed out,

> Culture is defined as a set of shared values, beliefs, and expected behaviors. Deeply embedded, unconscious, and even irrational shared values shape political institutions as well as social and technical systems, all of which simultaneously reflect and reinforce values and beliefs. (p. 33)

Culture is an important dimension of organizational success and leadership effectiveness not only at a national level but also globally. Leaders who promote and shape organizational culture can enhance organizational performance. Inclusiveness of the new

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millennium multicultural workforce increases effectiveness and performance; hence, leaders who embrace employees' cultural values may have a more positive outcome. If culture is the fuel for leadership success, then effective leaders must continue to embrace diversity in their organizations.

Leadership and organizational culture researchers frequently refer to leadership and culture as people-oriented or task-oriented (Bass, 1990a) styles. As the definitions of organizational culture focus on either values or behaviors—for example Williams, Dobson, and Walters (1989) emphasized the role of cognition, whereas Deal and Kennedy (1982) defined culture as "the way we do things around here" (page) —the available measures concentrate on the two different manifestations of culture. Rousseau (1990) integrated these approaches, suggesting that organizational culture has a number of layers, two of which are behavioral norms (the way people should behave) and organizational values (the things that are highly valued) and that these layers are characterized by a core theme. As a consequence, some corporate culture test constructors have focused on values and others on behaviors.

Regardless of the definitions and theories of leadership styles and culture, the literature is contradictory. Leadership theorists argue that leadership styles largely contribute to organizational and societal cultures, whereas culture theorists argue that values and behaviors make up culture. The concepts of leadership style, organizational and societal cultures, and linkages among the three, are still relatively new to academic literature. Leadership, organizational, and societal cultures are all conceptually viable and are essential to the development and strategy of the whole system. I examined the relationships among the concepts in this research.

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Moreover, it is also clear that one cannot learn organizational or societal culture without bearing in mind the societal values and norms. Because organization is a part of society and people are the ones who develop the culture. People enter organizations with their values, attitudes, and preferences acquired through socialization. On the basis of these theoretical discussions, the researcher designed this research by taking into account the aforementioned facts. The theoretical model of this study was developed to evaluate the current state of the relationship between two variables: corporate culture and leadership style. Furthermore, I took a comparative approach by assessing the situation in supervisory and subordinate staff levels in the organization. Based on each organization's performance, the impact of such an association of these two variables was determined.

In Chapter 3, I discussed the research methods of the study. The chapter includes the purpose of the study, the research design, research settings, the target population, procedures, instruments, and data collection and analysis. There is agreement in the literature (Maritz, 1995; Bass, 1997) that leadership is a critical factor in the success or failure of an organization; excellent organizations begin with excellent leadership, and successful organizations reflect their leadership.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The preceding chapters introduced and reviewed the literature pertaining to organization culture, societal culture, and leadership styles. In this chapter, I summarized the methodology used in this study. A quantitative method approach entails quantitative techniques of data collection and analysis. The research findings and analysis sought to provide practical solutions and recommendations rather than test, support, or develop a theory or hypothesis.

Tierney's (1991) organizational culture framework guided the exploration of the research setting and also the analysis of findings. In this chapter, I discussed the method in the following order: design of the study, selection of participants, data collection, data analysis, validity and reliability, and research limitations.

Harding (1987a) referred to "methodology [as] a theory and analysis of how research does and should proceed" (p. 3). Research can be described as the tools and techniques employed to gather evidence, information, and data. Researchers' methods must exhibit more than a curiosity about the past, for the chronological ordering of events alone does not explain relations. The researcher must turn to the method to investigate and represent this phenomenon.

The examination of background information was important because it assisted in identifying characteristics and factors contributing to relationships between leadership and acculturation. Following widespread research on the topic of transformational and transactional leadership, the researcher identified an appropriate instrument called the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1997).

In particular, the study aimed at asking the respondents to identify those leadership behaviors that reflect their leadership style, using the MLQ (5X, Leader Form, Self-Rated) Bass and Avolio (2000) developed. To explain the design of this study, I addressed the following essential components of the methodology: research questions, research design, sampling plan, data collection procedures, and data analysis.

<center>Research Design of the Study</center>

Research design is the strategy, plan, and structure of conducting a research project (Leedy, 1997). As previously stated, I employed a quantitative method approach. Quantitative data was collected via a questionnaire that was disseminated to participants. The primary data collection method, which was quantitative, included a two-part questionnaire with a Likert-type styled survey component. Quantitative research is also used to generate hypotheses and develop theories (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1969).

I used quantitative methods to explore the relationships between leadership and culture. I interpreted the data obtained through quantitative descriptive methods to systematically formulate processes that explored and described participants' responses. This data provided a meaningful explanation of how leaders lead and the relationship

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between leadership and subordinates. This type of approach enables theory testing and confirmation (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Cook & Campbell, 1979).

Horna (1994) believed that quantitative research designs are best used to describe and explain social facts that can be investigated through the use of methodologies of deductive logic to explain natural sciences. Likewise, Creswell (2003) believed that quantitative methods are primarily used to test or verify theories or explanations identify variables to study, relate variables in questions or hypotheses use standards of validity and reliability and employ statistical procedures.

Also, "A quantitative approach is one in which the investigator primarily uses post positivist claims for developing knowledge . . . and collects data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data" (Creswell, 2003, p. 18). Postposititivism refers to thinking after positivism and questions whether facts and information are absolutely true (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). Likewise, Easterby-Smith (1991) recognized that positivism uses quantitative and experimental methods to test hypothetical-deductive reasoning to understand and explain a phenomenon.

Research Method

Several characteristics of quantitative research provided evidence that this method is compatible and well-suited to answer the research questions I proposed. I used an a priori statistical power analysis in this dissertation research to determine whether a sample of 129 participants, consisting of 23 supervising coordinators and 106 secondary school cafeteria managers was appropriate.

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Participants signed consent forms that assured them of confidentiality and advised them to contact the researcher at any time during or after the study to clarify any questions or concerns. Thoroughly discussing the design of the study and commenting on potential threats to validity allowed readers to come to the same conclusion as the researcher with ease and with few or no questions of substantiation (Creswell, 2003).

Data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) ® for Microsoft Windows®. T-tests were used to investigate whether differences between the samples and variables were significantly different as measured through the MLQ. All participants of the study completed a demographic questionnaire. The questions asked included basic information about age, gender, ethnic background, career, demographics, management level, and tenure. Transactional leadership was assessed through use of the MLQ. This tool is composed of 45 descriptive statements that assess leadership behaviors.

All items also included a user-friendly 5-point scale in which *Not at all* is equal to 0 points while *frequently, if not always* is equal to 4 points. The MLQ has 5 subscales reflecting transformational leadership and 3 sub-scales reflecting transactional leadership. The scales measured were contingent reward, active management-by-exception, passive management-by-exception, transactional leadership, and non-transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2000).

I used descriptive and exploratory correlational designs to describe the types of leadership styles and organizational culture of the sample. A quantitative research methodology was adopted for undertaking this research. The data collection process was detailed in this chapter. As noted previously, the research methodology for this study was

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to a large extent positivist (quantitative), which implies that the research process was largely deductive. Several characteristics of quantitative research employed the MLQ. The independent variable in this study was leadership styles as measured by the MLQ.

According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2001),

Before planning the details of a study, researchers usually dig into the literature to find out what has already been written about the topic they are interested in investigating. Both the opinions of experts in the field and other research studies are of interest

In fact, a comprehensive review of the literature represents the first step in almost any research endeavor. Other social researchers have provided some useful guidance concerning how best to shape the literature review and what outcomes can be expected if conducted correctly. In this regard, Wood and Ellis (2003) identified the following as important outcomes of a well-conducted literature review:

1. It helps describe a topic of interest and refines either research questions or directions in which to look.

2. It presents a clear description and evaluation of the theories and concepts that have informed research into the topic of interest.

3. It clarifies the relationship to previous research and highlights where new research may contribute by identifying research possibilities which have been overlooked in the literature.

4. It provides insights into the topic of interest that are both methodological and substantive.

5. It demonstrates powers of critical analysis by, for instance, exposing taken for granted assumptions underpinning previous research and identifying the possibilities of replacing them with alternative assumptions.

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6. It justifies any new research through a coherent critique of what has gone
    before and demonstrates why new research is both timely and important.

Likewise, Silverman (2005, p. 300) suggested that a literature review should aim
to answer the following questions:

1. What do we know about the topic?

2. What do we have to say critically about what is already known?

3. Has anyone else ever done anything exactly the same?

4. Has anyone else done anything that is related?

5. Where does your work fit in with what has gone before?

6. Why is your research worth doing in the light of what has already been done?
    (p. 300)

Last, Gratton and Jones (2003) pointed out that a critical review of the timely

literature is an essential task in all research. Gratton and Jones stated:

> A literature review is the background to the research, where it is important to
> demonstrate a clear understanding of the relevant theories and concepts, the
> results of past research into the area, the types of methodologies and research
> designs employed in such research, and areas where the literature is deficient. (p.
> 51)

The primary themes that emerge from the review of the literature helped to interpret the

MLQ findings.

Description of the Study Approach

My primary objective in this study was to develop and examine the initial

reliability estimates and validity estimates of data collected to develop a new leadership–

management culture model and a comprehensive measure of organizational culture in

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workplace. A secondary objective of the study was to understand the role multiple elements of organizational culture play in a high level foreign-born work environment.

A correlation design with survey methodology was used to measure and accomplish these goals. In the following section, I described the study population, study measures, and data analysis procedures.

In the present study, I used a quantitative study approach instrument to address the issue in the problem statement and to achieve the above-stated research aims and objectives. Culture is what happens when people get together. It tells us how to behave and agree.

Culture starts with leadership which, when reinforced with the accumulated learning of the organizational members, is a powerful (albeit often implicit) set of forces that determines human behavior. Most studies of leadership focus on how a person identified as a leader is behaving or interacting with a group of subordinates. In some cases, this group of subordinates is so large that it comprises an entire organization.

The organizational culture is the character of the corporation and is made up of several components, some of which are directly observable and others of which are based on beliefs, values, and underlying assumptions. Together, these form the foundation of an organization's management system and practices.

Understanding the culture of a team, organization, or country can make a significant difference when the objective is to evaluate and change stakeholders' minds. The leadership model portrays transactional leadership as contingent reinforcement, as a form of promises and rewards or threats and disciplinary actions (e.g., contingent reward in the MLQ). Therein, the relationship of the MLQ and the style of leadership model

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exhibited by the Department of Food and Nutrition at the School Board suggested an almost identical leadership behavior that supports the use of the MLQ instrument for this research described study.

Instrumentation and Measurements

Regarding the measurement of cultures, Hofstede (1991) advocated the development of cultural dimensions as ways of describing, measuring, and comparing cultures. Culture dimensions are defined as core axis around which significant sets of values, beliefs, and practices cluster (Dimmock & Walker, 2000). The dimensions and attributes must be measured to determine degree of likeness and distinction. The MLQ measures the transformational–transactional distinction and reflects a sophisticated understanding of leadership that is supported by extensive research in the general leadership literature.

Testing involved the use of a questionnaire with participants completing self-ratings on the MLQ, answering questions relating to satisfaction, and how they preferred to develop their leadership and followership. The questionnaire was voluntary, securely delivered, and discretely collected when completed.

The purpose of the questionnaire was to differentiate between transformational (effective) and transactional (less effective) leaders and to identify:

1. Participants' perception of their effectiveness as a leader;

2. Participants' overall satisfaction with their work environment;

3. Participants' preference when learning leadership;

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4. Participants' consciousness of processes conducive to developing mental models;

5. Participants' level of leadership experience; and

6. Participants' degree of behavior awareness and self-monitoring.

Participants completed a total of 45 survey questionnaire using the 5-point Likert-type as shown in Figure 1.*Figure 1*. 5-point Likert-type.

Not At All	Once In a While	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently, If Not Always
0	1	2	3	4

A copy of the questions is included in the Appendixes (D and E). Permission was requested and obtained for the reproduction of the MLQ5x inventory questions (copyrighted by Bass & Avoli) for research purposes.

To determine if the action implemented resulted in changes, transform had to be measured. For the results to be accepted, the measurement instrument(s) must be one accepted by, in this case, experts in the scholarly research arena. The researcher had two choices: the Competing Values Framework (CVF) and the MLQ. For this research the MLQ is preferred and was used as the survey instrument (Appendix E).

By definition, CVF is one method of testing and supporting the understanding of the working environment and at the same time, matches the culture of individuals and organization to the operational climate. Whereas MLQ is the instrument that will score full range leadership, implying that a given leader will manifest some aspects of

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transformational and transactional styles, and will have an overall profile that tends more toward one or the other.

A comparison of the attributes of both instruments is presented for ease of understanding value and selection support:

Table 8 Comparison of CVF and MLQ

Category	CFV	MLQ
Functionality	The criteria for the CVF are grouped together along three value dimensions: (a) organizational focus, (b) control versus flexibility, and (c) relative concentration on means (such as good planning) or ends (such as achieving productivity goals). These dimensions reflect fundamental dilemmas: means versus ends, flexibility versus control, and internal stability versus external orientation (Rainey 2003, p. 146).	The MLQ measures a broad range of leadership (transactional) types from passive leaders and leaders who give contingent rewards to followers, to leaders who transform their followers into becoming leaders themselves. The MLQ identifies the characteristics of a transformational leader and helps individuals discover how they measure up in their own eyes and in the eyes of those with whom they work (Bass & Avolio, 1997).
Perceived strengths	The CVF provides valuable insights into the effectiveness of public organizations, especially on the point that the criteria are multiple, shifting, and conflicting (Rainey, 2003). The CVF survey, known as the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument, allows an organization to profile what quadrant they are strongest in and to decide if it would be better to cultivate strengths in another quadrant, such as CVF research shows that organizations who can balance their competing values by growing strength in each quadrant tend to outperform other organizations over the long-term (Denison & Mishra,	The MLQ is capable of measuring the extent to which leadership is individually considerate, providing the follower with support, mentoring, and coaching (Bass 1998, p. 5). Established reliability (Bass). In addition, the MLQ: 1. Differentiates effective and ineffective leaders at all organizational levels; 2. Assesses the effectiveness of an entire organization's leadership; 3. Is valid across cultures and types of organizations; 4. Is easy to administer, requires 15 min. to complete; 5. Has been extensively researched and validated; 6. Provides the best relationship of

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	1995).	survey data to organizational outcome; and
		7. Has become the benchmark measure of transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio). The data developed from the MLQ to date highly correlate with leadership, effectiveness, performance, and satisfaction (Bass, p. 83).
		In addition, the feedback of MLQ results can also be used for mentoring, counseling, coaching, and training; MLQ scores might also be used profitably to identify executives to head new ventures (Bass, p. 84).
Perceived weaknesses	Rainey (2003) cites conflicting criteria concerning CVF. The CVF expresses the values in a highly generalized form and does not address the specific, substantive goals of particular agencies or explicit political and institutional values imposed on all types of organizations.	None identified

Note. CFV = competing values framework; MLQ = multifactor leadership questionnaire.

All being equal in the research, MLQ was the preferred choice over CVF in that the researcher intended to evaluate not only effectiveness, in which CVF has strength, but also differentiating of effectiveness and ineffectiveness at organizational, managerial, and workers levels. MLQ being the benchmark measure of transformational and transactional leaderships rises above CVF to be supported by *p* values.

The *p* value refers to the two-tailed correlation test of hypothesis. The *p* value is the observed significance level of the test. If the observed significance level is less than the chosen significance level (alpha), then the researcher should reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative. Otherwise, there is not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis. The *p* value, which directly depends on a given sample, provides a measure of the strength of the results of a test, in contrast to a simple reject or do not reject. If the null hypothesis is true and the chance of random variation is the only reason for sample differences, then the *p* value is a quantitative measure to feed into the decision-making process.

Data Collection

There are three common methods of data collection, namely: observation, interviews, and questionnaires (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000). Sekaran (2000) suggested that questionnaires were an efficient data collection mechanism provided the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variables of interest. Questionnaires can be administered personally, mailed to the respondents, or electronically distributed depending on the situation (Sekaran, 2000). For the purposes of this research, the researcher used the questionnaire to gather the necessary information.

In general, all data collection is part of the knowledge acquisition phase and knowledge can be collected from specially designed questionnaires. In this regard, the findings of the MLQ administered to the study population of 23 cafeteria supervising coordinators and 106 secondary school cafeteria managers assigned in the Miami-Dade County School District, Florida, were interpolated on the basis of critical review of

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relevant questionnaire outcomes to determine the relationship between leadership styles, organizational culture, and the larger society in which they exist.

This chapter summarized the study methodology. The research methodology for this study was, to a large extent, positivist (quantitative), which implies that the research process was largely deductive. A quantitative method approach entailed quantitative techniques of data collection and analysis. The research findings and analysis provided practical solutions and recommendations rather than test, support, or develop a theory or hypothesis. Tierney's (1991) organizational culture framework guided the exploration of the research setting and also the analysis of findings. In this chapter, I discussed the method in the following order: design of the study, selection of participants, data collection, data analysis, validity and reliability, and research limitations.

I commenced the study with an in-depth literature review focused on the areas of performance, organizational culture and its measurement, and the performance criteria and measurement frameworks for this dissertation. This formed the basis for the development of a conceptual model of the relationship between culture and performance. This framework was refined by in-depth semi-structured interviews, and followed by a district-wide questionnaire survey of managers and other supervisory support management personnel to collect data on specific cultural attributes and performance. Harding (1987a) referred to "methodology [as] a theory and analysis of how research does and should proceed" (p. 3). Research can be described as the tools and techniques employed to gather evidence, information, and data. Their methods must exhibit more than a curiosity about the past, for the chronological ordering of events alone does not

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explain relations. Now I must turn to the collection method to investigate and represent this particular phenomenon.

Population and Data Collection Procedures

"A sample consists of a subset of elements from the population selected according to a sample design, which specifies the rules and operations by which the sample is to be chosen from the population" (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991, p. 145). The census data sampling strategy is appropriate because the researcher will be not attempting to describe a population but rather to examine relationships among variables. According to Leedy (1997), convenience sampling occurs when the sample is chosen according to its availability to the researcher. For the purposes of this research, convenience sampling was used. This type of sampling technique can, however, present various problems in research as it makes no pretence at being representative of the population as a whole. Hussey and Hussey (1997) stressed that bias may occur if samples are chosen deliberately by an individual as this may lead to favoritism.

In terms of possible problems or constraints experienced during the sampling process of this research, the main constraint was that the sampling process was subject to being chosen by the organization. As noted, the population surveyed using the MLQ was 23 supervising coordinators and 106 secondary school cafeteria managers assigned in the Miami-Dade County School District. The method of data collection was based on tested and approved survey questionnaires.

In this research, data came from managerial and non-managerial employees in different responsibility areas. Both paper-and-pencil and online versions (using a free

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survey account at surveymonkey.com, zoomerang.com, or a comparable online survey service) of the MLQ were offered to the prospective respondents and either was allowed to be completed depending on the respondent's personal preferences. An advance postcard was sent to each possible respondent. The purpose of the advanced invitation was to introduce the study, welcome participation, and provide participants with a choice to respond to either a postal survey or an e-mail attachment, which I controlled with survey code identification. Postcards were mailed or emailed according to the participant's address (e.g., postal or e-mail) availability.

Data was collected and stored in compartmented files. Back-up file systems were created in computerized and paper formats. In the computerized form, copies of all documents were saved on a zip-drive disk and CD diskette with a back-up file system on the hard drive of my home computer.

In paper form, copies of all documents were printed, labeled, and filed in a cabinet. Data was processed with an Excel spreadsheet and analyzed by using the aforementioned SPSS statistical analysis package. I used the MLQ Form 5x-Short Self-Starter that Bass and Avolio (2000) created to measure leadership behaviors of administrators, supervisors, and workers. The researchers initially developed the MLQ to measure transformational and transactional leadership; it has been revised several times since 1985. The most recent revision, the MLQ Form 5x, measures a full range of leadership styles (Bass & Avolio). I chose this revision for use in this study for three fundamental reasons: (a) it assesses leadership style and behavior, (b) it has not been used on industries that cater to first line management and middle management in the school environment, and (c) it is uncomplicated for the respondent and the researcher.

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The MLQ Form 5x consisted of 45 items with 12 constructs that measured the following four dimensions: transactional leadership, transformational leadership, non-transactional leadership, and outcomes of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2000). The transactional leadership dimension was classified through three constructs: contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), and management-by-exception (passive). The transformational leadership dimension was classified through five constructs: idealized influence (attributed) idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. The non-transactional leadership dimension was classified through the laissez-faire leadership construct (not considered in this study), which measures absence or avoidance of leadership.

The outcomes of leadership dimension were classified through extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction constructs. The frequency scale for the MLQ 5x range from 0 to 4 (0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*), providing a score average for all the items in the scale, derived by summing the items and dividing by the number of items that make up the scale. The results showed self-perceived leadership style and behavior as a score that indicates how frequently each respondent uses each survey component (Bass & Avolio, 2000).

The MLQ development dates back to 1985, with an initial conceptualization of leadership constructs to measure the constructs of transformational and transactional leadership. These constructs are: charisma, inspirational, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception, and laissez-faire. These leadership constructs emerged from a principal component factor analysis data from 176 military officers (Bass, 1985). However, subsequent research has

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uncovered several factors that provide the MLQ with the necessary revisions to provide

for attributions regarding the leader's transformational style, based on the distinction

between idealized charismatic behaviors and attributions (Bass & Avolio, 2000).

Over the past 5 years, researchers have used the MLQ Form 5x in more than 200

research programs, doctoral dissertations, and master theses around the world (Bass &

Avolio, 2000), and others have used it as an instrument in a variety of settings such as

education, business, and the military (Avolio, 1999). The researchers developed the MLQ

5x based on criticisms about the construct validity of previous revisions (e.g., MLQ Form

5r; Bass & Avolio, 2000). Bass & Avolio examined the factor structure of the MLQ Form

5x with a total of 3,786 respondents and 14 samples to validate and cross-validate the

MLQ Form 5x and to reveal generalizabity.

The survey items were developed from several sources: (a) series of factor

analyses that provided the best convergent and discriminant validities (Avolio & Bass,

2000); (b) partial list squares analysis, used to select inclusion in the MLQ 5x; (c) review

of the most recent literature to distinguish charismatic from transformational leadership

for selection of new items; and (d) recommendations from six scholars in the field of

leadership to modify items on the conceptual model of the full range of leadership

(Avolio & Bass, 1991).

Researchers have used the MLQ 5x with a wide variety of organizations including

businesses, schools and universities, and the military (e.g., U.S. Government Research

Agency, Business Firm, Nursing School, Political Organization, and Army; Bass &

Avolio, 1990). The replication analysis conducted on these samples demonstrate that the

MLQ provides a reliable and valid measure of leadership behavior of transformational

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and transactional factors that fit with the purpose of the study, particularly under the dimensions of outcomes of leadership in a self-rated perception of individual experiences. All respondents were assured of their anonymity prior to participating in the MLQ and were advised they were free to withdraw from participating at any point. Mailed surveys did not require a consent form. Rather, they required an information sheet regarding the survey (see Appendix B).

Returning the survey was considered to imply consent; thus, the survey was voluntary (Bickman & Rog, 1998). The study did not foresee any risk in the respondents volunteering information because participants' information was to remain confidential. Furthermore, participants' personal information was not and will not be available to their superiors.

Although no compensation was offered for completing the survey, all respondents can request a copy of the final study results. In this section, I provided the following: a synopsis of the selected current instrument, a summary of instruments' selection, and constructs and definitions of the study instruments. Through an analysis of the constructs measured by the instrument and the potential validity and reliability for the sample, I identified the instrument best suited for the scope of the study as shown and described in Table 8.

In addition to validity and reliability, I identified the instrument factors of suitability, readability, ease of use, and connection to the purpose of the study as well as the scope of the sample. In addition, other factors such as similarities of range, instrument development, and practicality of length were taken under consideration when choosing

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among the aforementioned instruments. I presented the instrument used in this study in Appendixes (D and E).

In addition, I presented detailed information of the instrument and why it was selected. The instrument was selected because it was easily connected to the theoretical framework of this study. The theoretical framework for the study addressed qualities of leadership style and their approach to the task (e.g., individualism or collectivism). The instrument demonstrated continuity in the conceptual framework of this study by measuring leadership and styles.

Treatment and Intervention

If it was deemed that the relationship between culture and leadership was lacking, what remediation would suffice? In line with organizational cultures, implicit leadership theories in non-Western societies involve more performance and future orientation as well as other universalistic attributes such as charisma and supportive behavior. Organizational leaders are expected to be sensitive to local cultures and traditions, yet become initiators of change.

This combination could be quite challenging for leaders. Thus, manager training programs and academic theorists would need to increasingly involve a combination of universalistic dimensions with culture specific manifestations of these attributes and keep local traditions in mind, which is not an easy task to accomplish. In sum, the gathering of quantitative and qualitative data from multiple sources demonstrated the extent of congruity and consistency between the researchers' and key informants' evaluations and allowed researchers to triangulate the facts (Patton, 1999).

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Data Analysis

A detailed discussion of the data analysis procedure was presented here. At this stage, the data analysis procedure was conducted through survey measures, such as standardized scales and indexes. Responses were used to cross-tabulate data, and then analyzed using a SPSS® quantitative computer or Excel®. Statistical analysis of the data was performed using the following methods: (a) descriptive analyses to describe the sample, (b) frequency distributions to show the numbers and percentages of people or items that fall into categories, (c) median and mean to measure any central tendency, (d) standard deviation to see the extent of the data lumped or spread out around the mean, and (e) factor analysis to determine the scales for the MLQ.

The statistical data derived from the administration of the MLQ was analyzed using SPSS® Version 11.0 (Student Version) or Excel® software spreadsheets. Quantitative data analysis included an independent-samples *t*-test procedure, which compared the means for two groups of cases. For this test, the population (23 cafeteria supervising coordinators and 106 secondary school cafeteria managers) was randomly assigned to two equal groups of 53, so that any difference in response is due to the treatment (or lack of treatment) and not to other factors.

Data analysis also included an analysis of variance (ANOVA; significant difference between groups) if deemed applicable, to provide sum, number of cases, mean, standard deviation, and other relevant comparisons. According to the SPSS user's guide, ANOVA is "a method of testing the null hypothesis that several group means are equal in the population, by comparing the sample variance estimated from the group means to that estimated within the groups" (Nickerson, 2000). The generalizability of the ordinary

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ANOVA (usually referred to as the fixed-factors ANOVA) is limited to specific categories of the independent variable (factor) used in the analysis. The results of these statistical analyses were presented in tabular form, with a graphic representation of the data and a narrative interpretation of the results.

Culture is among the most stabilizing and influential forces in an organization; it is critical to organizational effectiveness (Almond, 2003), and according to Berrio (2003), it has been linked to organizational performance or leadership. The size of an organization plays an important part in establishing its culture (Stein, 2004). Small organizations can possess a unique culture versus large organizations because large organizations can be viewed as a conglomerate of smaller subcultures (Stein). For example, at The Miami Dade County School District, total workforce is more than 47,000. However, in the Department of Food and Nutrition of 3,124 workers, there are 23 supervising cafeteria coordinators and 106 secondary school cafeteria managers with different cultural backgrounds.

This ideal multicultural workforce creates the opportunity for employees to be more closely associated by sharing their cultural values, and as such, it creates a more suitable working environment in which employees strive toward the same common organizational goals and objectives, like sharing information across the organization to increase performance. However, large organizations with many subcultures find it more difficult to create one unique culture. It can be difficult to change, adopt, and learn other cultures, although one subculture could dominate when compared with smaller subcultures (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Hofstede, 1998).

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Field Tests to Establish Viability of Data Collection Procedures

According to Tindal and Haladyna (2002), in studies that use various primary

research techniques, field testing is essential to determine the validity of the data

involved. As these authors noted, "In most cases, it is through field testing that the

majority of evidence concerning validity becomes available" (p. 445).

Due to the narrow focus of investigations that use a critical review of the literature

research methodology, such as these, it is unlikely that field testing will duplicate

previous research conducted unless the researchers used identical search terms and

research sources as the current study. Nevertheless, analysis of concepts such as the

relationships among organizational culture, societal culture, and leadership style using a

literature review in support of the quantitative approach is congruent with numerous

social researchers (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2001; Neuman, 2003; Wood & Ellis, 2003).

As Gratton and Jones (2003) pointed out,

Most research projects will contain an element of secondary research in
establishing and evaluating the types of data that have been collected in previous
research projects in the area as part of the literature review. (p. 8)

Tests to establish the validity and reliability of quantitative data are important to

determine the stability and quality of the data obtained. However, there is no single,

coherent set of validity and reliability tests for each research phase in case study research

available in the literature. Moreover, comparable to the approach Tindal and Haladyna

(2002) used, the present study examined each separate piece of literature to identify

reliability and validity considerations, thereby supporting and adding to the overall

validity and findings of the present study.

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An important issue in reaching closure is knowing when to stop adding cases. In an ideal situation, researchers should stop adding cases when they have reached theoretical saturation (Eisenhardt, 1989). Theoretical saturation is the point at which incremental learning is minimal because the researchers are observing phenomena seen before (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In practice, however, theoretical saturation often combines with pragmatic considerations to dictate when case collection ends. It is not uncommon for researchers to plan the number of cases in advance.

Research Limitations

All research including have limitations to consider. First, the researcher must be conscious of his or her biases and assumptions and their impact on the research process. This is important to consider because the researcher is the primary instrument of data collection and analysis.

As Merriam (1998), explained, "The investigator as human instrument is limited by being human—that is, mistakes are made, opportunities are missed, personal biases interfere. Human instrument(s), are as fallible as any other research instruments" (p. 21).

Quantitative methods are rarely appropriate for research on values in culture. Survey research cannot capture the richness, complexity, and depth of value questions. It pays no attention to levels of meaning, nuances in language, or lived values. Experimental research abstracts values, valuing, and sexuality education from their social, institutional, and relational contexts. Experimental designs are also undergirded by epistemological assumptions that are difficult to reconcile with research on values; they now point to the importance of values (Darling & Mabe, 1989).

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By stating upfront my personal biases and assumptions I articulated, to some extent, the manner in which I viewed the research process, especially data collection and analysis. I assumed the participants who took part in this study were not only representative of the greater population and provide data that was relevant to answering the proposed research questions, but that the participants represented across-section of all local cultures of a majority of the geographical areas. I also assumed that the established sampling criterion proved sufficient to select participants that were information rich.

Both surveys and experimental designs demean and de-contextualize an area of human experience organically linked to meaning-making and irreducibly context dependent. As Mishler (1979) wrote:

> Science is neither a cure nor a palliative for alienation. Nonetheless, it need not add to other alienating forces in the society. A better fit between our research methods and our phenomena of interest, the context dependence of human meaning and action, might be one step toward a non-alienating science. (p. 18)

Validity and Reliability

Validity refers to the extent to which a measure reflects what it purports to measure (Babbie, 2004). When evaluating or formulating a specific instrument, reliability and validity are two of the most important aspects to be considered (Booth, 1995). Reliability and validity are the statistical criteria used to assess whether the research provides a good measure (Whitelaw, 2001). Reliability refers to the dependability of a measurement instrument, that is, the extent to which the instrument yields the same results on repeated trials (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Reliability is concerned with the consistency of the particular instrument, whereas validity is concerned with systematic or

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consistent error. Three fundamental methods are accepted for assessing the reliability of a measurement scale: test-retest, internal consistency, and alternative forms (Booth, 1995). The foremost ways to estimate the validity of the measurement are content validity, concurrent validity, and construct validity (Booth, 1995).

The MLQ has been tested for reliability and validity in a number of settings (Pruijn & Boucher, 1994). Yammarino and Bass (1990) proved the MLQ's content and concurrent validity. Bass and Avolio (1997) also demonstrated the MLQ's construct validity. The MLQ's reliability has also been proven on many occasions through test-retest, internal consistency methods, and alternative methods (Bass & Avolio, 1997). The results of these test-retest studies indicated that the MLQ reliably measured the components of transformational, transactional, and non-transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1997). The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients Pruijn and Boucher calculated substantiate the MLQ's reliability. Bycio, Hackett and Allen (1995) conducted a factor analysis on the various transformational and transactional leadership variables; their findings provided further evidence of the MLQ's reliability.

Organizational culture is linked to organizational effectiveness and is presumed to create the mental, emotional, and attitudinal states that precede and affect employee performance (Robertson, Callinan & Bartram, 2002). Research should be properly designed to ensure that it is internally and externally valid. Research is internally valid when the constructs are measured in a valid way and the data that is measured is accurate and reliable. The analysis should be relevant to the type of data collected and the data should adequately support the final solutions (Mouton & Marais, 1994). The researcher followed these principles. According to Christensen (1997), external validity is the extent

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to which the results of research can be applied to and across different persons, settings, and times.

In their description of their research methodology used to evaluate various studies from a broad range of sources, Chandler and Lyon (2001) noted, "Validity refers to the establishment of evidence that the measurement is actually measuring the intended construct. Measure(s), can be reliable without being valid, but cannot be valid without being reliable" (p. 101). As to reliability, Chandler and Lyon reported, "Reliability refers to the consistency and stability of a score from a measurement scale" (p. 101). In this regard and in earlier research, even for the less accepted CVF instrument, the reliability and validity of the MLQ has been well established (Stevens, 1996).

> The MLQ has a number of interpretable features. Indeed, its primary weakness lies in its broad interpretability. What "credible, believable, plausible" means to one individual may have a different meaning to another? The difficulty compounds when we attempt to rate this characteristic of the document on a 1–7 scale. However, the workability of this model has been demonstrated in several arenas and its interpretability, while difficult, is also strength. (Stevens, 1996, p. 71)

Combined, these features of the MLQ instrument suggest that its use can be reasonably expected to provide some useful insights into the managers' perceptions of the organizational effectiveness of the Miami-Dade County School District along three dimensions.

<center>Ethical Considerations</center>

Ethical standards for case study research are continuously studied and debated. Flinders (1992) identified four types of ethical perspectives that arise in case study research: utilitarian, deontological, relational, and ecological. Utilitarian ethics judge the morality of a researcher's decisions and actions by considering the consequences.

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Utilitarian ethics are difficult to apply in case study research because it is difficult to predict the consequences of a case study while it is in progress. In deontological ethics, researchers judge the morality of their decisions and actions by referring to absolute values, such as honesty, justice, fairness, and respect. Flinders (1992) observed from a deontological perspective that deception violates basic values of treating others fairly and with respect.

In relational ethics, researchers judge the morality of their decisions and actions by the standard of whether decisions reflect a caring attitude toward others. Relational ethics require that the case study researcher be a sensitive, engaged member of a participants' community rather than a detached observer. In ecological ethics, researchers judge the morality of decisions and actions in terms of the participants' culture and the larger social systems of which they are part. Thus, whereas the other three ethical perspectives consider each case study participant as an individual, ecological ethics considers the participant as a member of a larger cultural and social system. Flinders (1992) maintained that for the ecological perspective, the researcher was to consider the larger implications of local decisions and actions. Flinders used an ecological perspective as she researched the biographical information and the emerging feminist themes gleaned from the experiences of the past presidents and informants.

An additional consideration is the institutional review board, which is a necessary component in research study.

> An institutional review board (IRB) is a group of individuals who are authorized by an institution to determine whether research studies by colleagues affiliated with the institution comply with institutional regulations, professional standards of conduct and practice and the human–subjects provisions of the Code of Federal Regulations for the Protection of Human Subjects. (Gall, Gall, Borg, 2003, p. 66)

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Most institutions require proposed research projects, including those conducted in educational settings, to undergo an IRB review and sufficient training. I took and completed such training as shown in Appendix A. The IRB may expedite the review process for an educational research study because the risks to participants are typically minimal. Adequate protection for research participants must satisfy the IRB committee. However, "even if an IRB approves a proposal, it cannot take away the rights of an individual to be informed of the study's purpose and to freely choose to decline participation without penalty" (Gall et al., 2003, p. 69).

By direct application, as shown in Appendix J, this study was authorized by the IRB committee at Capella University in Minneapolis, Minnesota. Researchers must inform each participant about what will occur during the research study, the information to be disclosed to the researcher, and the intended use of the research data that is to be collected. Adults, as participants, must give their consent. Informed consent is an agreement between the researcher and human participants. Informed consent assures that participants or informants will retain their autonomy and "judge for themselves what risks are worth taking for the purpose of furthering scientific knowledge" (Howe & Dougherty, 1993, p. 19).

Access to information is vital and demands a critical and cautious approach. I used public domain data, no approval required, to fulfill the requirements of the Capella University Institutional Review Board. To demonstrate an understanding of the need to gain appropriate approval to be able to complete the study, I prepared the letter so styled, as shown in Appendix B; which not only serves as an invitation to participate in the study

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but also as a consent form. Because of the study design, all other ethical considerations are equally considered.

When leaders conduct themselves, they communicate through their actions. These actions help build relationships and shape organizational culture. Leaders also guide implementation of the shared vision, rather than relying exclusively on the actions of empowered followers. One common guiding action is to teach: "A great leader is usually a great teacher" (Parnell, 1988, p. 2). These leaders provide opportunities for their followers to learn and grow. They mentor or coach their followers. As noted, the relationship remains friendly and informal. The leaders treat subordinates as equals, while providing encouragement for their personal and professional development. They see their role as servant leader and seek to serve their followers, as well as other stakeholders. Leaders also guide by engaging in moral reasoning and principled judgment, as well as teaching these ideas to their followers.

Symbolic actions provide guidance for others; an indirect but powerful means of teaching. Transforming leaders are strong advocates of staff development activities, often using them as rewards for accomplishments. Scholarship provides a means of teaching as well. These leaders are scholars in their own right, but also promote scholarship among followers.

An understanding of organizational culture is clearly important to the study of institutional transformation, because transformation "alters the culture of the institution by changing select underlying assumptions and institutional behaviors, processes, and products" (Eckel, Hill & Green, 1998, p. 3). At the same time, organizational culture and cultural change can be used as a means of preparing an environment for transformation, a

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yardstick for assessing whether or not a transformational change has actually taken place, and a means of achieving the desired results of an innovation. Last, the success of any transformational effort may depend on the extent to which practitioners address issues of institutional culture in their strategic planning.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I provided an overview of the study approach and the data-gathering methodology. In the following chapter, a description of the quantitative synthesis methods used will be followed by results of the study with recommendations and further research on related subject matter.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS AND PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

Introduction

In this chapter, I present a recapitulation of the MLQ instrument's questions together with an analysis of the corresponding responses received. The purpose of this study was to examine the opinions, attitudes, and perceptions of individuals in leadership positions to develop a leadership–management culture model that can be adapted as standard operating procedure in an organization with multicultural attributes. The findings in this chapter were based on data analyses related to the questions adapted using the well-tested MLQ instrument to guide and frame the research process in this study.

A cross-sectional survey was the main source used to collect data. I mailed the survey instrument to all (supervisors) or administrators and subordinate cafeteria managers or (workers). I distributed 129 surveys and 110 (85.5%) were returned completed and were used in the survey data results. Surveys that were returned not completed in their entirety were not used in this research project.

For presentational purposes, chapter 4 will be presented to report the internal consistency and reliability of the survey instrument as measured and outlined in the methodology in chapter 3. Also covered in this section was the internal consistency and reliability of the survey instrument, as determined by the data collected during the actual survey. In addition, this chapter covered categorical variables, both independent and dependent. Demographic characteristics, including gender, ethnicity, country of origin,

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preferred or native language spoken, and educational background were measured numerically and graphically. I analyzed each question on the survey.

Frequency tables and bar charts were used to graphically depict the data results. Last, results for the continuous scaled variables ranged from 0 to 4 (0 = *not at all*; 1 = *once in a while*; 2 = *sometimes*; 3 = *fairly often*; and 4 = *frequently, if not always*), were displayed in descriptive statistics and histograms. The display data obtained from the surveys were analyzed quantitatively in support of the proposed hypotheses.

As noted in chapter 3, my intention was to present data in respect to *t*-test and ANOVA, but upon further review, outcomes presented a different view. In support of *t*-test or ANOVA, regression analysis did not provide any further insights beyond the summary data derived from the MLQ scoring guidelines and the percentile analysis that have been developed question by question.

For the convenience of the readers, the hypotheses and null hypotheses are restated below and were used to guide the direction of the research:

Ho: There is a quantifiable relationship between culture and leadership style.

Ha: There is not a quantifiable relationship between culture and leadership style.

These hypotheses are not all-conclusive in the sense that there exists a high probability of their acceptance. Cultural or cross-cultural research often produces contradicting results, and both culturally contingent and universalist perspectives provide strong results along with some supporting evidence.

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Nevertheless, the hypotheses have been styled and formulated in such a way that the probability of their being true can be judged as slightly higher than the probability of their not being true. In any case, in this type of research, both confirmation and disconfirmation of a particular position are equally interesting, equally important, and represent an equally significant contribution to the body of knowledge.

The hypotheses and null hypotheses are important and relevant to accomplish the objective of the study. The objective of the study was to determine the extent that a company's management fails to fully understand and appreciate its workers' unique culture is likely the extent to which the company's leadership style will be ineffective in achieving its organizational goals; hence, the need to specifically include and measure unique culture attributes.

The standard error of the difference indicates the representativeness of a difference as an estimate of the corresponding difference in the population, under the assumption that the sample is unbiased. A small standard error indicates that the population value is similar to the sample value.

A p value is a measure of how much evidence a researcher has against the null hypothesis. The smaller the p value, the more evidence a researcher has. One may combine the p value with the significance level to make a decision on a given test of hypothesis. In such a case, if the p value is less than a threshold (usually .05, sometimes larger, like 0.1 or smaller, like .01) the researcher rejects the null hypothesis.

Data gathered from the survey questionnaires included demographics (Part I of the survey, Appendix D) such as gender, ethnicity, educational background, and employment of the respondants. Exploratory testing indicated that participants rated

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themselves higher on the MLQ scales than their followers' rating of them. However, as the research involved comparisons of individuals' perceptions rather than demonstrated behaviors, the data was considered to be an accurate representation of participants' ideas. Simon (2006) recommended that the researcher include a section on the data demographics, such as explaining the age, gender, or relevant related data on the population.

<center>Studies</center>

As noted in the preceding chapter, this study used the MLQ instrument (copyright permission provided in Appendix C) which was reproduced with an analysis of the responses received. This researcher points out in Attachment C, permission was granted for the inclusion of up to five sample items. However; the entire instrument now minimized was available for committee's review, as well as any other related supporting documents and instruments.

Because I used an established instrument, instrument testing was not necessary (Sproull, 2004). I performed statistical analyses on the data using SPSS and Excel software. Again, Chronbach's alpha reliability was applied to measure the survey questionnaire items. Based on the analysis of the statistical data derived from the survey instrument and an interpolation of the literature review findings (in Appendixes E and F), results, synthesis and evaluative action plan was provided, followed by relevant recommendations, and a summary of the chapter.

All participants were individually asked if they were able and willing to participate in the survey. Before being given the questionnaire, I assured each respondent

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of their anonymity when participating in the MLQ, and they were advised that they were free to withdraw from participating at any point.

All participants were informed that the questionnaire was intended to describe their leadership style as they saw and perceived it to be. I requested they answer all items on the answer sheet. If an item was irrelevant, if they were unsure, or did not know the answer, they were instructed to leave the item blank.

Each was given 45 descriptive statements as listed on the MLQ questionnaire as shown in Appendixes (D and E). Respondents were instructed to judge how frequently each statement fits them. Last, they were told that the word *others* may mean peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors or all of these individuals.

The raters, whether a worker or supervisor, was asked to indicate (Rater) the level to which the questionnaire was directed (being rated), and the results are accordingly shown in Figure *2*.

Important: Which best describes you as a *rater* (required for processing):

I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating:	23
The person I am rating is at my organizational level:	0
I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating:	87
I do not wish my organizational level to be known:	19

Figure 2. Raters' levels.

Participants: Raters and Leaders

Of the 129 targeted participants (raters and leaders) surveyed, 23 (21%) were supervisors or administrators and raters above managers; 87 (79%) were managers or workers and raters below supervisors; and 19 (15%) were others who either chose not to respond, felt the questionnaire was defective, or cared not to be known, as shown in Figure 3. Of the 129 questionnaires, 110 (85%) were acceptable to the study.
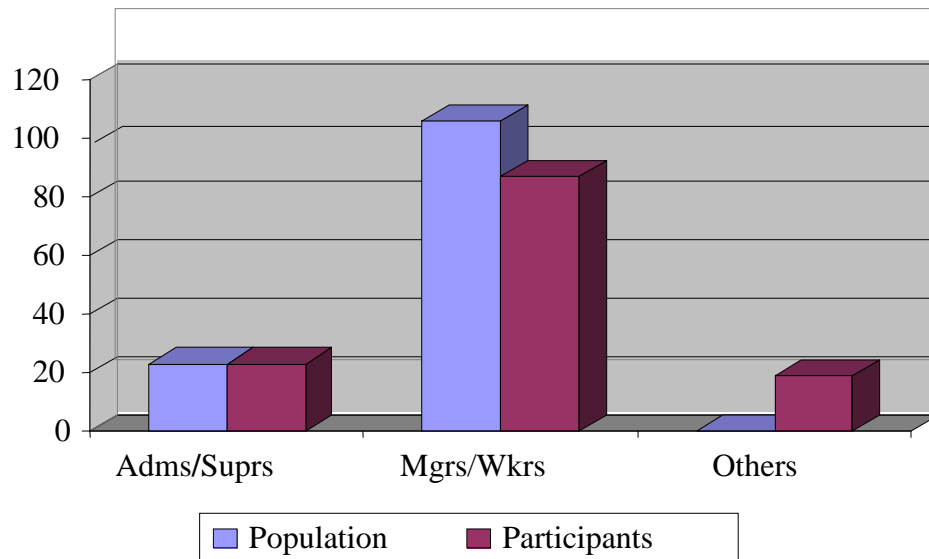
Figure 3. Population as Compared With Participants

Of the 110 acceptable responses, which were composed of 23 (21%) supervisor or administrators and 87 (79%) managers or workers as shown in Figure 4:

Administrators or Supervisors: 23

Managers or Workers: 87

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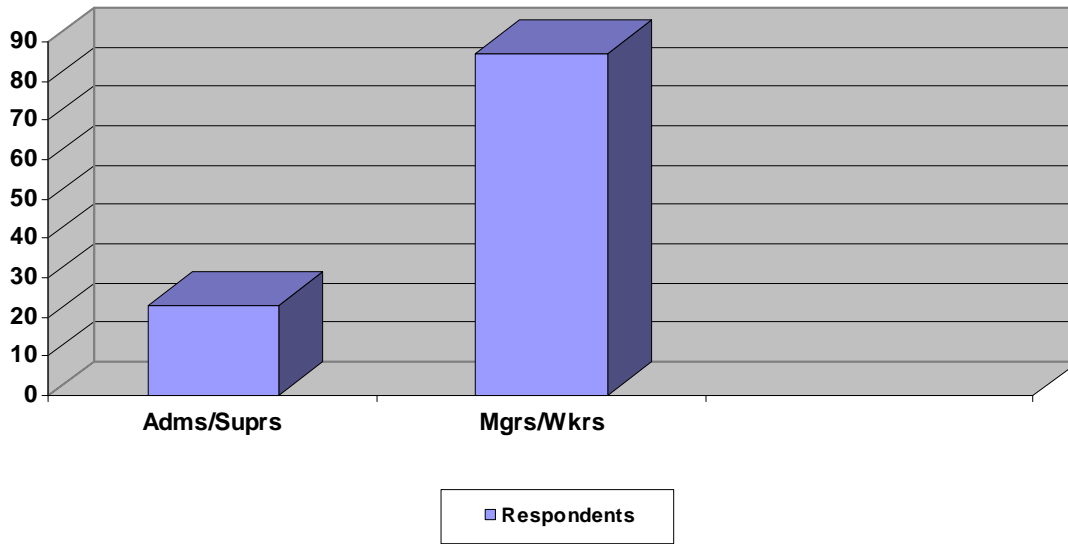
Figure 4. Percentage of administrators and managers.

Of the 110 acceptable responses, 12 (11%) were male and 98 (89%) were female

as shown in *Figure 5*.

Male: 12

Female: 98
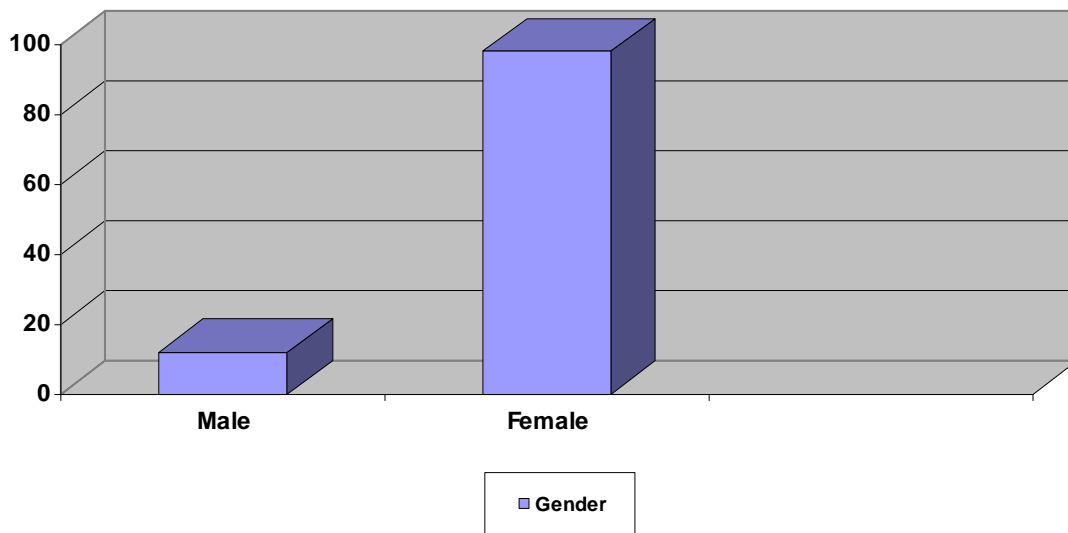
Figure 5. Percentage of male and female participants.

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Of the 110 acceptable responses, 21 (16%) were White 67 (52%) were Hispanic,

20 (16%) were African American and 2 (2%) were Others, as shown in Figure 6.

White: 21

Hispanic: 67

African American: 20

Other: 2
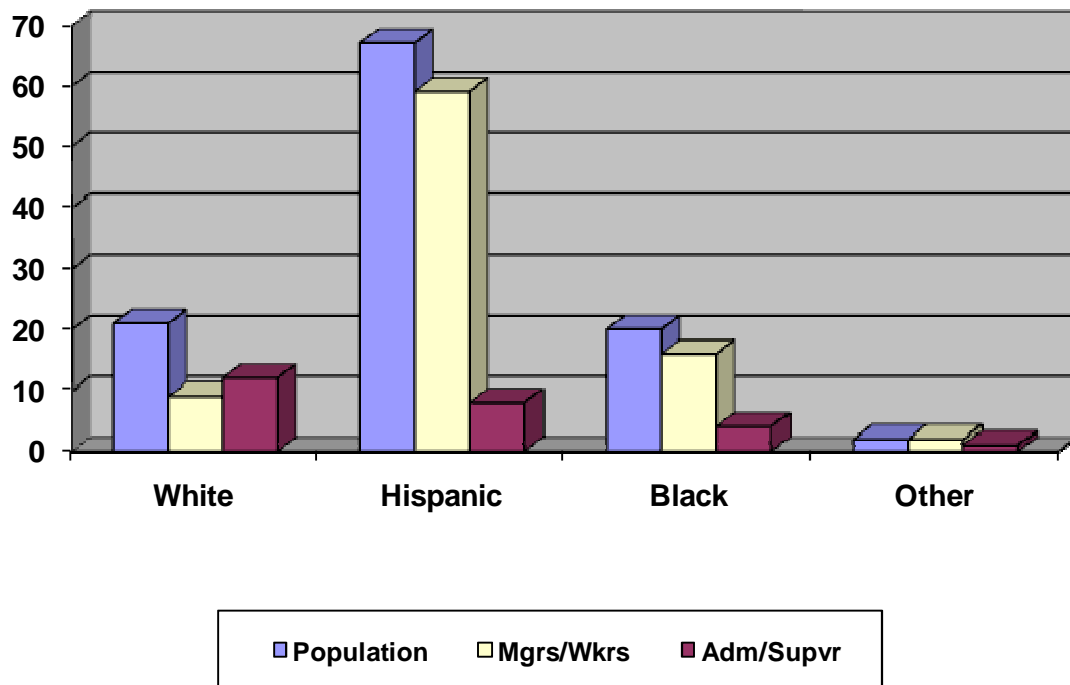
Figure 6. Participants' ethnic background.

To have knowledge (and not graphed) of the educational level of the participants;

of the 110 acceptable responses, 91 (83%) had at least six college credits, 12 (11%) had

bachelor degrees, 3 (3%) had masters degree, and 4 (4%) had other qualifications.

Some college: 91

Bachelors: 12

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Masters: 3

Other: 4

      To have knowledge (and not graphed) of the country of origin of the participants;

of the 110 acceptable responses, 23 (21%) were North American, 65 (59%) were South

Americans, 20 (18%) were African American and Caribbean, and 2 (2%) were Others.

North America: 23

South America: 65

Others - Europe, except Africa and India: 2

Caribbean, Africa and India: 20

    Of the 110 acceptable responses, 31 (24%) spoke English, 67 (52%) spoke

Hispanic, 10 (8%) spoke French and 2 (2%) spoke Others. as shown in Figure 7
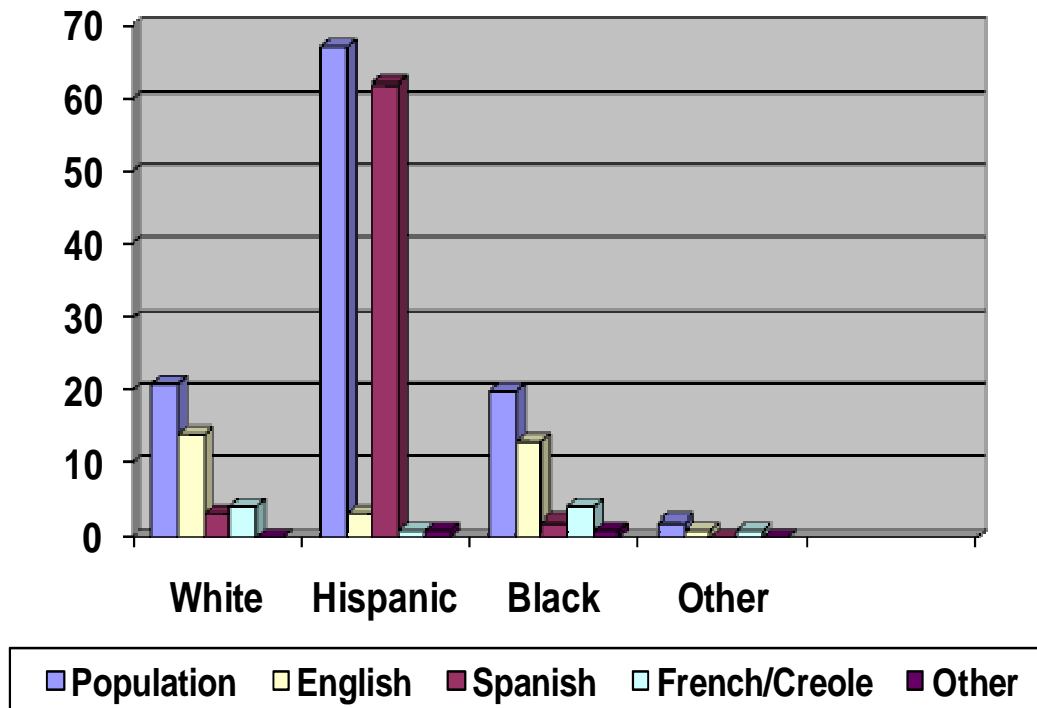
Figure 7. Participants' Country of Origin.

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Of the total response represented, Hispanic was the dominate group and was concentrated in cultural or ethnic and educational attributes, as was determined from Appendix D. The results of the review of relevant literature concerning organizational culture and the results of the MLQ administration suggested that most people wanted to do a good job and were willing to go the extra mile in the workplace when called upon; however, there were some important personal considerations involved in the analysis as well that must be taken into account.

Simon (2006) supported this assertion, and I presented the result of each test in statistical format and with tables and charts using section titles related to each hypothesis. Simon further posited that if the null hypothesis is not rejected, this does not lead to the conclusion that no associations or differences exist, but instead that the analysis did not detect any associations or differences between the variables or groups. In the following section, Figure 9 shows a summary of the results of the select MLQ questionnaire outcomes.

Upon compiling the responses of both sets of participants, it was noticed as depicted in chapter 4, Figures 6 and 7 Appendices (J and L) that most were of Hispanic origin. The researcher brings to the attention of the readers of this research that not only are all participants are required to speak and write English in addition to the fact of having a minimum of six (6) college credits to serve in any of the workers (manager) positions.

With that revelation, the researcher will most definitely recommend that MLQ – Spanish version be re-distributed to ensure accuracy and validity of the responses.

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Results, Synthesis and Evaluative Action Plan

As noted in the introductory chapter, the present study was guided by a hypothesis

and null hypothesis that are reiterated below and answered in the concluding chapter

using the general guidance, as shown in Table 9.

Table 9. *P Values*

p value	Interpretation or outcome
$p < 0.01$	Very strong evidence against H_0
$0.01 <= p < 0.05$	Moderate evidence against H_0
$0.05 <= p < 0.10$	Suggestive evidence against H_0
$0.10 <= p$	Little or no real evidence against H_0

This interpretation is widely accepted, and many scientific journals routinely publish

papers using such an interpretation for the result of test of hypothesis.

Ho: There is a quantifiable relationship between culture and leadership style.

Ha: There is not a quantifiable relationship between culture and leadership style.

According to the MLQ scoring key,

The MLQ scale scores are average scores for the items on the scale. The score [is] derived by summing the items and dividing by the number of items that make up the scale. All of the leadership style scales have four items, Extra Effort has three items, Effectiveness has four items and Satisfaction has two items. (Bass & Avolio, 1995, p. 1)

Multiple correlation analysis was conducted, with a 0.05 significance level, to test the

hypotheses as previously listed and now described.

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The first hypothesis measures whether transformational leadership is positively correlated with organizational commitment. Five dimensions of transformational leadership were included in the first hypothesis: charismatic, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration leadership clearly shown in Appendix H. Results showed these behaviors to be slightly positively correlated with the organizational commitment. The idealized influence leadership behavior was correlated most strongly with employee organizational commitment.

The second hypothesis measured whether transactional leadership was positively correlated with organizational commitment. Four dimensions were included: (a) contingent reward, (b) active management-by-exception, (c) passive management-by-exception, and (d) laissez-faire leadership. However, a very weak positive correlation to organizational commitment was found with active management-by-exception and passive management-by-exception. Contingent reward and laissez-faire leadership behaviors were found to be slightly positively correlated with the organizational commitment. The realms are shown in the tables and figures in Appendixes F, G, H and I.

In response to the statement, "I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts," the average supervisor response was 3.7 compared with 3.5 for the workers surveyed. The responses to the statement, "I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate" were likewise close, with 3.6 of supervisors and 3.4 of workers. There was also a very slight difference recorded for the respective responses to the statement, "I fail to interfere until problems become serious," with 0.4 of supervisors and 0.5 of workers. The responses to the statement, "I focus attention on irregularities,

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mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards," were identical for both groups at 3.8.

There were some significant differences in the responses to the statement, "I avoid getting involved when important issues arise," however, with a 0.7 recorded for supervisors compared with just 3.6 for workers. By contrast, the responses to the statement, "I talk about my most important values and beliefs," found a lower level of congruence with 3.2 reported for supervisors compared with 3.9 for workers. Both groups recorded low scores in response to the statement, "I am absent when needed," with slightly lower responses for supervisors at 0.4 compared with 0.8 for workers. There were almost identical responses reported in response to the statement, "I seek differing perspectives when solving problems" for supervisors and workers, with 3.4 and a 3.5, respectively. Supervisors, however, reported slightly lower responses to the statement, "I talk optimistically about the future," with 3.3 compared with 3.6 for workers.

In response to the statement, "I instill pride in others for being associated with me," supervisors also recorded a slightly lower response rate at 3.4 compared with 3.8 for workers. Workers also showed a significantly higher response to the statement, "I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets," with a 3.7 compared with just 2.4 for supervisors. Just as neither group appeared to want to be absent when needed, both groups were viewed as being proactive and recorded very low scores in response to the statement, "I wait for things to go wrong before taking action," with 0.2 recorded for the supervisors and 0.1 for the workers. Workers recorded slightly higher responses to the statement, "I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished," with a 3.9 compared with 3.7 for supervisors.

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There were almost identical responses to the statement, "I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose," with 3.8 and 3.85 recorded for the supervisors and workers, respectively. Supervisors recorded a discernibly lower response to the statement, "I spend time teaching and coaching" than did the workers, with a 2.4 compared with a 3.2, respectively. There was a high level of congruence for the two groups in response to the statement, "I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved," however, with a 3.9 for supervisors and a 3.8 for workers. In response to the statement, "I show that I am a firm believer in 'If it ain't broke, don't fix it,'" the supervisors recorded a 2.6 as compared with a significantly higher rate of 3.9 for the workers.

Both groups recorded high—and almost identical—levels of response to the statement, "I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group," with 3.9 of supervisors and 4.0 of workers. There were identical response rates recorded for the statement, "I treat others as individuals rather than just a member of a group" at 3.8 each. The responses to the statement, "I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action" also reflected a high degree of proactivity, with a 0.4 for the supervisors and a 0.1 for the workers. There was also a high degree of congruence for the responses to the statement, "I act in ways that build others' respect for me," with a 3.9 for supervisors and a 3.8 for workers.

There were some stark differences in the responses to the statement, "I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures," however, with 3.0 of supervisors as compared with just 0.2 of workers. Supervisors had a

slightly higher response rate to the statement, "I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions," with 3.8 as compared with 3.5 for workers.

Keeping with the adage that to err is human, both groups had very low response rates to the statement, "I keep track of all mistakes," with 0.3 for supervisors as compared with 0.1 for workers. It was interesting to note that both groups had identical response rates to the statement, "I display a sense of power and confidence" 3.4 each. Notwithstanding the identical responses to the foregoing statement, there were some significant differences to the statement, "I articulate a sense of power and confidence" with 3.7 for supervisors and 1.9 for workers.

In response to the statement, "I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards," supervisors recorded 3.0 as compared with a slightly higher response rate for the workers of 3.5. There were also some significant differences in the responses to the statement, "I avoid making decisions," with 0.5 for supervisors as compared with just 3.3 for workers. There was a high level of congruence, however, in the responses to the statement, "I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others, with 3.8 and 3.9 for supervisors and workers, respectively. The responses to the statement, "I get others to look at problems from many different angles," were also very close at 3.7 for supervisors and 3.4 for workers. Likewise, the responses to the statement, "I help others to develop their strengths" also showed a high level of congruence with 3.3 for supervisors and 3.5 for workers.

There were identical and relatively high response rates recorded for both groups in response to the statement, "I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments," with a 3.9 each. There were also identical and relatively low response rates

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for the statement, "I delay responding to urgent questions," with 0.3 for both groups, again reflecting a high level of proactivity. The workers recorded a slightly higher response rate to the statement, "I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission," with 3.7 as compared with 3.3 for supervisors. There were almost identical response rates recorded for the statement, "I express satisfaction when others meet expectations," with 4.0 for supervisors and 3.9 for workers. In addition, there were almost identical response rates recorded for the statement, "I express confidence that goals will be achieved," with 3.6 and 3.5 for supervisors and workers, respectively.

The supervisors recorded a slightly higher response rate to the statement, "I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs," however, with 3.7 as compared with the workers' response rate of 3.4.

In response to the statement, "I use methods of leadership that are satisfying," the supervisors recorded 3.7 as compared with a slightly higher rate of 3.9 for the workers. The supervisors, however, recorded a significantly higher response of 3.4 as compared with 2.0 for workers in response to the statement, "I get others to do more than they expected to do." The response rate for the workers was slightly higher for the statement, "I am effective in representing others to higher authority," with 3.9 as compared with 3.7 for supervisors.

Likewise, workers recorded a slightly higher rate of 3.7 to the statement, "I work with others in a satisfactory way" as compared with 3.3 for supervisors. The supervisors, however, recorded a slightly higher response rate to the statement, "I work with others in a satisfactory way" with 3.9 as compared with 3.4 for workers. Likewise, supervisors

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recorded a slightly higher response rate to the statement, "I heighten others' desire to succeed" with 3.9 as compared with workers' response rate of 3.4.

The response rate for supervisors for the statement, "I am effective in meeting organizational requirements" was significantly higher, however, at 4.0 as compared with 2.0 for workers. Workers also recorded slightly lower response rates in response to the statement, "I increase others' willingness to try harder with 2.6 as compared to 4.0 for supervisors. Last, the supervisors also recorded lower responses to the statement, "I lead a group that is effective" with 4.0 as compared with 2.9 for workers.

MLQ Outcome Variances

For this study, a rating of one or two was considered to indicate a responsibility of low importance and a rating of three or four to specify a responsibility of high importance to the department. This analysis provided some interesting results. First, none of the responsibilities had meaningful ratings below three, indicating that all of the responsibilities were of high importance to the department. Thus, perceptions indicate that all of these responsibilities require a great deal of attention; and the few low ratings are intentional and with restraint much.

Effectiveness of leadership, among other things, is characterized by the abilities to motivate people, build relationships and influence outcomes. The behavior that is modeled by the leader and the top management profoundly shape and thereby determine competency level of their juniors. Transformational leader as compared to transactional leadership has a major impact on the quality and efficiency level of their subordinates (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; and Bycio, Hackett and Allen, 1995).

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Research included two leadership styles, transformational (Inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration and charisma) and transactional leadership (contingent rewards and management–by-expectation). What distinguishes these 'Transformational' leaders from transactional leaders is their relatively greater passionate commitment to a new vision for the organizations' future and their ability to share that vision. Transformational' leaders arouse heightened awareness and interests in the group or organization, increase confidence and strengthen concerns for existence to concerns for achievement and growth which lead to the development of competencies among the lower levels (Vaishali & Kumar, 2001).

Apart from competencies the appropriate personality job fit also contributes to the performance, satisfaction and motivation level of the employees. But each organization depending on the nature of work may need a desired personality type to suit its culture or visa versa. Gerald (1998) stated that opportunities for individuals to shape organizational culture are increased by the fact that certain personality types tend to cluster into disciplines and fields of employment. This is clear as seen by differences in responses between supervisors and workers depicted in (Appendixes I and J).

Specifically to MLQ questionnaire (Appendixes I and J), response 5, there were some significant differences of 2.9 to the statement, "I avoid getting involved when important issues arise"; response11, for "I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets," with a 3.7 compared with just 2.4 for supervisors difference of 1.3. As previously noted, supervisors recorded a discernibly net lower response of .8 to the question 15, "I spend time teaching and coaching" than did the workers, with a 2.4 compared with a 3.2, respectively There was a high level of

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congruence to response difference of 1.3 to the question 17, "I show that I am a firm believer in 'If it ain't broke, don't fix it,'" the supervisors recorded a 2.6 as compared with a significantly higher rate of 3.9 for the workers. There were also some significant differences in the responses to the statement 28, "I avoid making decisions," with 0.5 for supervisors as compared with just 3.3 for workers, which shows complete reliance and trust and inherent authority bestowed upon the supervisor.

There were some stark differences in the responses to the statement, "I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures," however, with scores of 3.0 for supervisors as compared with just 0.2 for workers resulting in a 2.8 difference, indicating the expectation of close supervision and management of resources. Notwithstanding the almost same response to the foregoing statement, there were some significant differences to the statement, "I articulate a sense of power and confidence" with 3.7 for supervisors and 1.9 for workers, a 1.8 difference; hence the complete reliance and trust and inherent authority bestowed upon the supervisor .The supervisors, however, recorded a significantly higher response of 3.4 as compared with 2.0 for workers in response to the statement, "I get others to do more than they expected to do," which most definitely support employee and worker loyalty.

The response rate for supervisors for the statement 43, "I am effective in meeting organizational requirements" was significantly higher, however, at 4.0 as compared with 2.0 for workers. Workers also recorded much lower response rates in response to the statement 44, "I increase others' willingness to try harder with 2.6 as compared to 4.0 for supervisors. Last, the supervisors also recorded higher responses to the statement 45, "I lead a group that is effective" with 4.0 as compared with 2.9 for workers. Cultural

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influence is not only effective but it give support to the style of leadership; transactional at its best

Just as important, the results suggest that, contrary to the common dichotomy in the literature, worker empowerment and worker dependence are not opposite to each other; they complement each other. Furthermore, since both dependence and empowerment were positively related to transformational leadership and particularly to the developing aspects of such leadership, our results suggest that, contrary to the common assumption that different types of leadership lead to followers' dependence and empowerment, the same leadership behaviors may be associated simultaneously with both dependence and empowerment supported by MLQ questions 8, 19, 29, 34 and 43. Of all 45 questions 73% of all questions were rated within one-half point up or down range by both supervisors and workers.

No participant self-identified as having management-by-exception (active or passive) or laissez-faire. Therefore, the researcher cautions against generalizing the findings and conclusions of this study with other organizations or supervisors in the public or private sectors. As noted in Appendix I, the data indicated that all participants fell into the self-identified high-level leadership styles of transformational and transactional (contingent reward). This study may reflect findings that were related only to these types of management and worker styles and may be absent of any findings related to organizations that have leaders who identify themselves as transactional leaders who use the lower-level styles of management-by-exception (active and passive) or laissez-faire.

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Transformational leadership is comprised of several components, including (1) Intellectual Stimulation, (2) Inspirational Motivation, (3) Idealized Influence, and (4) Individualized Consideration. Transactional leadership is comprised of (1) Contingent Reward and (2) Management-by-Exception. Transformational leadership is generally characterized by a set of attitudes and behaviors that are relatively motivating, relational, and team-oriented as a primary means to achieve workplace and performance goals. It is manifested in leadership via intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, idealized influence, and individualized consideration (Bass and Avolio 1994).

The primary leadership focus of this dissertation revolves around transformational leadership. However, as cited above, leaders can also enact and exude transactional leadership styles as well. Hence, both leadership styles merit some attention. The existing literature has neither addressed nor substantiated the differential influences of transformational and transactional leadership within the collective domain of culture and relationship quality.

Nevertheless, the *augmenting influence* value associated almost exclusively with transformational leadership, does merit some investigation about whether and to what extent transformational leadership imparts greater augmenting influence on relationship quality than does transactional leadership. The dimensions of transformational leadership -- idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration – have been cited above. The dimensions of transactional leadership – contingent reward and management-by-exception – will be discussed below to convey a gist of contrasts between the two leadership styles examined here

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Transactional leaders, versus transformational leaders, are more likely to implement a contingent reward style with their followers. As cited above, transactional leadership can be characterized by authority based on bureaucracy or position. Hence, it follows that leaders are endowed by organizational structural to set work standards and clarify tasks for their subordinates. Contingent reward reflects the leader's ability to affect followers' compliance per work standards and clarified tasks by using sets of associated conditional rewards and punishments.

Transactional leaders, versus transformational leaders, are more likely to implement management-by-exception styles with their followers. Following the view of bureaucratically endowed authority noted above, leaders are responsible for managing the performance and other behaviors of their followers. Transactional leadership can be marked by active or passive management-by-exception. In the former case, leaders actively monitor completion of tasks for mistakes or shortcomings, and, in turn, implement corrective actions to prevent problems during task performance. In the latter case, leaders implement corrective actions, as in the former case, but only after a task have been completed.

Given the relational-oriented, outcome-enhancing tendencies of transformational leadership, it has been regarded as an instrument to help followers overcome operational obstacles, reconcile problems, and deal with threats to success (Bass and Avolio 1990). As clarified above, cultural differences may comprise such operational obstacles or relational problems. Also noted above, transformational leadership is conceptually endowed with an exclusive *augmenting influence* not had by transactional leadership.

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Lowe and Kroeck (1996) explained the effectiveness of the MLQ in evaluating leadership styles. They found the construct of *Charisma* was consistently the strongest variable associated with leader effectiveness among MLQ scales in every size of organization studied and attributed this result to employee perceptions that charismatic leaders are confident and effective. Similarly consistent across studies, *Individual Consideration* was strongly associated with subordinates' perceptions of effectiveness. Interestingly, the study revealed that *Management-by-Exception* and *Contingent Reward* Leadership showed significant differences depending on the size and type of organization and the type of effectiveness.

Research conducted across organizations of diverse sizes indicated that lower level organizational leader behavior is more important than once thought (Lowe and Kroeck, 1996), and transactional leadership is a necessary component for managers at all levels (Tosi, 1982). The MLQ has proven to be an excellent tool for measuring the outcomes of leadership effectiveness, satisfaction, and the ability to inspire others to exceed expectations. Therefore, the MLQ might be a valuable tool for teaching leaders and customer service managers (Avolio & Bass, 1998; Barling, Webber, & Kelloway, 1996; Dvir, 1998).

It should be noted that other studies continue to determine the validity of studying leadership theories and scales like the MLQ (Conger, 1999; Shamir, 1999). Therefore, organizations should continue to update their skills, knowledge, and familiarity with available instruments in order to effectively lead and evaluate leadership and organizational effectiveness.

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As is evidenced by the breadth of research on the topic, leadership is a very complex phenomenon. It can be argued that leader behavior is impacted by the traits and skills of the leader, the traits and behaviors of the followers, the complexity of the situation, and numerous other variables, some of which may be currently unidentified.

One of the prominent theories used to explain effective leadership is that of the transactional-transformational leadership continuum. Transformational leadership focuses on inspiring followers to set aside self-interest and seek the betterment of the organization; in contrast, transactional leadership focuses largely on the effort-reward exchange between followers and leader. In athletics in general, and in junior college athletics specifically, transformational leadership is essential for success. As budgets and human resources diminish and the need to do more with less increases, leadership able to transform and inspire individuals to act in organizations' best interests will be vital.

In conclusion, leadership research will continue to be a priority in the service industry setting, as it is in other organizations. Currently, the conclusions reached are unclear or, oftentimes, contradictory. However, as the research continues, we will begin to gain a clearer understanding of the role of leadership and its impact on subordinates in the sport enterprise. Cross-cultural leadership research has great potential for advancement of our understanding of leadership, and its antecedents and consequences.

Recommendations

The purpose of this research project was to examine relationship between culture and leadership by measuring opinions, attitudes, and perceptions to develop a leadership–management culture model; that can be adapted as standard operating procedure in an

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organization with evident multicultural attributes. To accomplish this, a quantitative

research methods approach was used. Specifically, the researcher examined the opinions

and perceptions of worker and supervisor participants to:

1. Identify the relationship, to the extent that it exists, between organizational culture and societal culture;

2. Identify what leadership styles have been deemed most effective in terms of achieving organizational goals while balancing the workers' needs;

3. Identify relevant cross-cultural issues that may affect leadership styles in an increasingly multicultural society; and

4. Determine how leadership styles vary from culture to culture around the world.

A summary of the MLQ results was presented in the this chapter and combined

with the results of the review of outcomes concerning organizational culture, suggested

that most people want to do a good job and are willing to go the extra mile in the

workplace when called on. There were some important personal considerations involved

in the analysis as well, that must be taken into account. There were, not surprisingly,

some fundamental differences between the responses of the cafeteria managers and the

administrators or supervisors concerning individual perceptions of fairness, effectiveness,

and leadership attributes, but the majority of both types of respondents expressed a sense

of being effective on the job and being capable of accomplishing their assigned

responsibilities in a timely fashion.

The researcher therefore recommends that the MLQ be re-administered on a

periodic basis and the results compared with these benchmarks to determine if the

recommendations provided in Chapter 5 achieve the desired effect and to identify

opportunities for improving the leadership climate in these cafeterias.

Chapter Summary

Data gathered from the survey questionnaires also included demographics, such as gender, ethnicity, educational background, and employment of the respondants. In this chapter, a percentile analysis of the 45 questions contained in the MLQ followed by a presentation of the results in tabular and graphic forms of the synthesis of various realms that the MLQ developed based on the guidance contained in the MLQ scoring guidelines were presented. A recapitulation of the MLQ results was presented in the concluding chapter together with a summary of the research, an assessment of the implications of these findings, and additional recommendations for the organization under consideration.

Overall, respondents' perception of their managers' leadership behavior tended to be one of the following: charismatic, idealized influence, or intellectual stimulation (as shown in Appendix I). In general, employees were willing to put in a great deal of effort, beyond that normally expected, to help their company be successful. For raters (workers) participants, lower scores indicated a less acceptance of leadership style toward supervising leaders while higher scores indicated a more positive attitude toward supervisors in leadership positions.

In chapter 5, the researcher discusses the recommendations based on the findings of the research project and the research questions that framed this study.

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CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction and Discussion

The purpose of this study was to identify the responsibilities that supervisors indicated as most important to their departments and the satisfaction of with their current leadership skills as related to the responsibilities. This goal was met, and areas for leadership development were identified. The MLQ determined the degree a leader was rated as a transformational leader by analyzing scores obtained for each of the Four I's, (Idealized influences, Inspirational motivation, Intellectual stimulation, and Individualized consideration) (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

This researcher sought to determine whether the pertinent traits and attributes that characterize effective leaders in various societal settings such as; feel trust, loyalty, and respect effected leadership styles. Additionally, as introduced in the problem statement, the researcher intended to determine the extent that a company's management fails to fully understand and appreciate its workers' unique culture is likely the extent to which the company's leadership style will be ineffective in achieving its organizational goals.

The purpose of this study was to identify the relationship, to the extent that it exists, between organizational culture and societal culture; identify what leadership styles are most effective in terms of achieving organizational goals while balancing the needs of the workers involved; identify relevant cross-cultural issues that may affect leadership styles in an increasingly multicultural society; and determine how leadership styles vary

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in cultures around the world based on the larger society in which they exist.

This chapter provides a discussion of the research, its implications for organizational executives, and recommendations concerning the relationship between organizational culture and the larger societal setting in which such organizations compete. A summary of the major aims and objectives of the study is followed by an analysis of implications for leaders today, recommendations for organizations, and areas of future research.

The MLQ survey data were aggregated and analyzed using an Excel spreadsheet. Percentile analyses of the frequency of individual responses were provided for each of the MLQ questions with the corresponding results provided in tabular and graphic form in the preceding chapter, and depicted in Appendixes F, H and I. This approach was congruent with Neuman (2003) who advised, "Researchers measure variation in three ways: range, percentile, and standard deviation. . . . Percentiles tell the score at a specific place within the distribution" (p. 337). A narrative summary of the results was provided in the following.

Summary of Aims and Objectives

In sum, the research questions, aims, and objectives of the study achieved the following goals:

1. Identify the relationship, to the extent that existed, between organizational culture and societal culture.

2. Identify what leadership styles have been deemed most effective in terms of achieving organizational goals while balancing the needs of the workers involved.

3. Identify relevant cross-cultural issues that may affect leadership styles in an increasingly multicultural society.

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4. Determine how leadership styles vary in cultures around the world based on the larger society in which they exist.

I found that the interplay between culture and leadership existed because it was both the leader and worker as stakeholders who created the culture as inferred from the survey and depicted in Appendixes H and I.

Limitations of Research Designs

The results of this study indicated there were significant relationships among leadership styles, organizational culture, and organizational effectiveness outcomes. The leader or manager population size and mix became an intended limitation in determining the ethnic differences between loyalty, leadership styles, and organizational effectiveness outcomes.

In the following, I clarified the limitations of this study and provided recommendations to solve these limitations, as well as ideas for further research. The extension of the research through the inclusion of other departments or districts was one of two basic ways to enlarge the sample to improve the statistical and explanatory value of the model. This would heighten the cross-sectional value of the research by increasing the size of the sample. A drawback of this method would be that one was likely to compare different districts that may have different characteristics to start with, which would lead to biases in the research.

Organizations have subcultures that display the personality of the individual departments or units. The type of work performed or provided influences the type of leadership style. The MLQ instrument was found to be a weak measurement of leadership

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styles within an organization are largely a reflection of what type of product or service (performance) the organization produces or provides.

Finally, this research revealed the need to develop an instrument that represent a more reliable and valid measure of Transformational Leadership and Transactional Leadership behaviors even though the MLQ was found to be the most widely used instruments and considered the best available for measuring leadership and culture. However, this research suggested that the MLQ measures could be improved.

With respect to the organization studied, the leadership team may want to develop a leadership curriculum that not only fosters leadership but one that is geared to the Hispanic culture, as well as organizational culture and societal cultures. Such a plan could allow the organizations or entities the opportunity to develop global, corporate, or individual (ideal) culture and management could then adapt to these cultures.

Together, the results in this dissertation showed that leadership determined culture in an organization in relatively predictable ways. Moreover, these findings allow theorists, as well as practitioners, in the fields of organizational development, leadership development, and human resource development to have a benchmark as to worker/supervisor cultural perceptions. In the following, I provided a new model or framework for leadership and organizational culture. The relationships of leadership and culture might have been different if percentages for race, age, sex, length of employment, time with immediate supervisor, ethnicity, and educational levels were different. For instance, a different sample (or different demographics) may reveal different findings. Just as well as the concentration of Hispanic supervisors and workers not only

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demonstrated extreme nationalistic traits but extreme similarity in MLQ scores and outcomes (Appendixes J, K and L).

<div align="center">Implications for Future Research and Recommendations</div>

For future research, the other researcher should contribute in dept to specific dimension, such as inspiration, characteristic, intellectual, and individual consideration. The research should investigate particularly to some dimension only, because the result can be applied to the management of the business organizations. The researchers should use multi-variate to consider all concerning factors, and should control intervening variables appropriately, then, they will have some results that are benefit to the modern management technique, and fit the international management.

Now more than ever, the demand for competent, capable leaders who can move organizations forward has peaked. The longevity of leaders will be determined by one's ability to recognize the importance of remaining connected with all stakeholders. Additional research should be conducted by looking at individual departments within an organization. In many organizations, a strong dominant culture is pervasive throughout the organization and across business departments, or even regions. This kind of organization is said to possess a high level of cultural integration (Guest, Hersey, & Blanchard, 1977). However, often the culture in large organizations is not singular or uniform. Organizations can vary widely in terms of the degree of cultural integration and the strength of the subcultures that coexist.

Subcultures may share certain characteristics, norms, values, and beliefs or be very different. These subcultures can function cooperatively or be in conflict with each

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other. In general, subcultures can differ by function, (engineering vs. marketing), by their place in the hierarchy, (management vs. administrators, assistants) by division, by site, or by geographic region and country (Brown & Starkey, 1994).

In addition, this research revealed the need to develop an instrument that represents a more reliable and valid measure of Transformational Leadership and Transactional Leadership behaviors. After a careful review of the literature, the MLQ was found to be a widely used instrument and considered one of the best available leadership instruments for measuring Transformational Leadership and Transactional Leadership behaviors (Butler, Cantrell, & Flick, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1997; Hoover, 1991). However, these results suggest that this measure could be improved.

As noted in chapter 3, the purpose of the use of the MLQ questionnaire was to differentiate between transformational (effective) and transactional (less effective) leaders. The results of the MLQ administration indicated that there was a high level of congruence in the participants' perception of their effectiveness as leaders in their respective settings. As seen in Appendixes H and I, the majority of the respondents could be deemed transformational leaders in many of the MLQ realms, with most adopting a proactive attitude toward organizational goals and motivational issues.

Transformational leadership ratings of immediate superiors and at the same level as the respondents using the MLQ concerning the transformational leadership constructs were as follows:

1. Charismatic and inspirational leadership (the leader envisioned a valued future, articulated how to reach it, set high standards, and set himself as an example that followers identified with and wanted to emulate);

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2. Intellectual stimulation (the leader encouraged followers to question assumptions and look at old problems in new ways to enable the followers to be more innovative and creative); and

3. Individualized consideration (the leader treated each of his or her followers individually recognizing different needs for support and development) (Bass, 2000).

According to Bass (2000),

The individual scores of individual leaders are rated using the MLQ by those above . . . and at the same level in their organization. Empirically, the transformational factor scores correlated with the independently-based effectiveness of leadership, which in most circumstances are positively associated with effectiveness. (p. 18)

One of the constraints in the six realms used for synthesizing the MLQ data, however, was an inability to distinguish transformational and transactional leadership absolutely. In this regard, Bass reported, "Although charismatic and inspirational leadership could not be separated in the [MLQ] factor analysis, conceptually they are seen as two highly correlated but different components of leadership behavior" (p. 18).

The responses to the MLQ also suggested that the majority of the participants were satisfied overall with their work environment, but there were some significant differences reported for some constructs, such as the tendency to avoid making decisions that can likely be attributed to the lack of authority to do so, but may also reflect a tendency to avoid "going out on a limb" whenever possible. There was also a high level of congruence across the board discerned from the MLQ concerning desirable leadership traits and how these operated in the workplace.

The vast majority of the respondents communicated a distinct sense of proactivity and the importance of the accomplishment of organizational goals and the role of leaders in achieving these objectives. The few distinct differences in response rates identified in

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the MLQ administration may also be attributable to language issues that were not taken into account in the statistical analysis but, which might have been an important factor in the varying response rates identified for these individual statements.

Based on the foregoing results, the following recommendations are provided:

1. An organizational culture should be encouraged from the top down to promote employee citizenship behaviors that contribute in meaningful ways to the accomplishment of the organization's mission.

2. Although money continues to rank among the most important aspects of an individual's sense of job satisfaction, other factors such as recognition by superiors and peers, a clearly delineated career path, and equitable treatment in the workplace remain highly significant factors as well. Therefore, it is recommended that existing approaches to the provision of employee recognition initiatives be reevaluated to identify opportunities for improvement including the addition of a periodic survey to determine top performers in the respective cafeteria operations.

3. Implement a cultural diversity awareness initiative that celebrates the existing multicultural aspects of the workplace including periodic language instruction in the most commonly used foreign languages identified.

4. Continue to seek additional funding for increased salaries and benefit packages for managers and administrators or supervisors who demonstrate sustained superior performance.

5. Considering the large number of Hispanic respondents and the unique needs of the organization in question, the researcher recommends a custom survey that captures the precise information outlined in the guiding research questions and provides Spanish-speaking respondents with a Spanish language version to ensure that the survey questions are understood and the responses are comparable.

All employees should feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader. Employees will then be motivated to do more than they originally expected to do (Yukl, 1997).

In conclusion, it is recommended that the findings of this dissertation be regarded as incrementally constructive evidence to support the notions that (1) workers and supervisors relationship dyads are worthy of more scholarly research, (2) individual-manifestations of cultural orientation can be instrumental in learning how service worker employees perceive and interact with one another, and (3) culture and leadership are important factors in producing quality and effective relationships. Of course, these findings, like those of other early integrated studies, should be accepted somewhat tentatively until they are replicated by future studies.

The complexity of leadership against a backdrop of the inadequacy of the measurement system currently in vogue cannot be reduced to the results of a single study by a novice researcher. A great deal of additional study needs to occur with different populations and different methodologies before any reliable conclusions can be drawn as to whether there can be a single "right" leadership style.

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Service support organizations (and organizations of all types) might find the MLQ to be an effective tool for measuring leadership types in training and for grooming future leaders. By evaluating organizational leaders in all types of organizations and across differing levels within an organization, companies can grow stronger by promoting domains where they can be most effective. Likewise, when leaders are assessed with tools like the MLQ; specialized training can be developed and implemented to strengthen each level of need.

In addition, it should be noted that retail organizations could develop specialized training programs, including ones that focus on customer service, based on an assessed need through surveys, mystery shoppers, MLQ testing, and other similar evaluative tools. Reevaluation of information with such organizational assessment tools should be consistent and ongoing for enhancing training programs and employee development and placement.

Organizations may find that they can cultivate growth through the use of assessments and surveys while enhancing proper leadership at all levels of their organizations. Effective leadership style is one of the primary determinants for developing training programs that help employees create an environment where customers become more loyal and satisfied. Consistent, proper training and assessment appear to be essential to organizational success in today's competitive environment. Further research on leadership, training for developing and responding to the needs of individual organizations is highly recommended due to unique organizational cultures and specific clientele dynamics.

For future research, the other researcher should contribute in dept to specific dimension, such as inspiration, characteristic, intellectual, and individual consideration. The research should investigate particularly to some dimension only. The researchers should use multi-variate to consider all concerning factors, and should control intervening variables appropriately, then, they will have some results that are benefit to the modern management technique, and fit the international management.

Additionally, suggestions for further research include examination of rater direction, examination of the interaction of cross-cultural issues, exploration of the causes behind the findings, and the limitations for men that lead in traditionally feminine ways or within predominantly female organizational cultures. Practical applications include examining organizational norms and policies for gender bias as well as developing programs to support the leadership development of both women and men. Women and men must be valued equally for their unique contributions, seen not as competitors, but rather as complementary to the success of the workplace or organization. Until then, communities, organizations, and workplaces will not be tapping into the full leadership potential that exists.

One outcome of my research and findings is that the researched learning scholar was required to demonstrate transformational leadership behaviors, extreme levels of influence, idealized influence, charisma, and intellectual stimulation; this required him to expend significant personal energy to achieve sufficient influence. The scholar's role within his organization demanded that he exhibit sufficient influence to overcome his organization's initial resistance to change. Change has made a difference in the organizational culture.

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Chapter and Study Summary

From the literature review it was suggested that leadership styles, organizational culture, and organization effectiveness outcomes were related. I underscored the importance of supportive managerial behavior. That supportive atmosphere is a universal, highly valued way of leading people, regardless of the cultural environment.

In this respect, people around the globe do have the same values and needs. The ability to develop a one-size-fits-all culture may be limited, and indeed may not even be desirable. However, the kind of cultural analysis undertaken in this research can allow leaders and managers to identify ways to promote the preferred culture of an organization in ways that would meet the needs of individual departments, units or subcultures within that organization, as well as align each with the organizational-wide mission, visions, and strategic plan.

If this research continues to reproduce results to show validity, then any combination of transformational and transactional leadership styles allow leaders and managers to identify ways to promote the preferred culture of an organization in ways that would best meet the needs of individual departments, units or subcultures within any organization. Leaders who exhibit transformational leadership can make workers more responsive and efficient. Organizational and societal cultures are very important components of any organization and need to always be surveyed in great detail.

With respect to the organization studied, the leadership team may want to develop a leadership curriculum that fosters Transformational Leadership and Transactional Leadership as well as Constructive Culture and Defensive Culture. Such a plan could

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allow the departments or units the opportunity to develop their individual (ideal) culture, and management, consequently, will adapt to these cultures.

Together, the results in this dissertation show that Transformational Leadership and Transactional Leadership determine Culture, respectively, within this organization, in relatively predictable ways. Moreover, these findings allow theorists, as well as practitioners, in the field of organizational development, leadership development, and human resource development a new model or framework for leadership and organizational culture.

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APPENDIX A

Organization of the Dissertation

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                        ┌─────────────────┐
                        │   Chapter 1     │
                        │  Introduction   │
                        └─────────────────┘
                                 │
                        ┌─────────────────┐
                        │   Chapter 2     │
                        │Literature Review│
                        └─────────────────┘

┌──────────────┐      ┌──────────────┐      ┌──────────────┐
│Organizational│ ←──→ │  Leadership  │ ←──→ │   Societal   │
│   Culture    │      │    Styles    │      │   Culture    │
└──────────────┘      └──────────────┘      └──────────────┘

┌────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│          Individual  Personal  Culture                 │
└────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘

        ┌────────────────────────────────────────┐
        │              Chapter 3                 │
        │         Research Methodology           │
        └────────────────────────────────────────┘

┌────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│    Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)          │
└────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘

                ┌─────────────────┐
                │   Chapter 4     │
                │    Results      │
                └─────────────────┘

                ┌─────────────────┐
                │   Chapter 5     │
                │ Recommendations │
                └─────────────────┘
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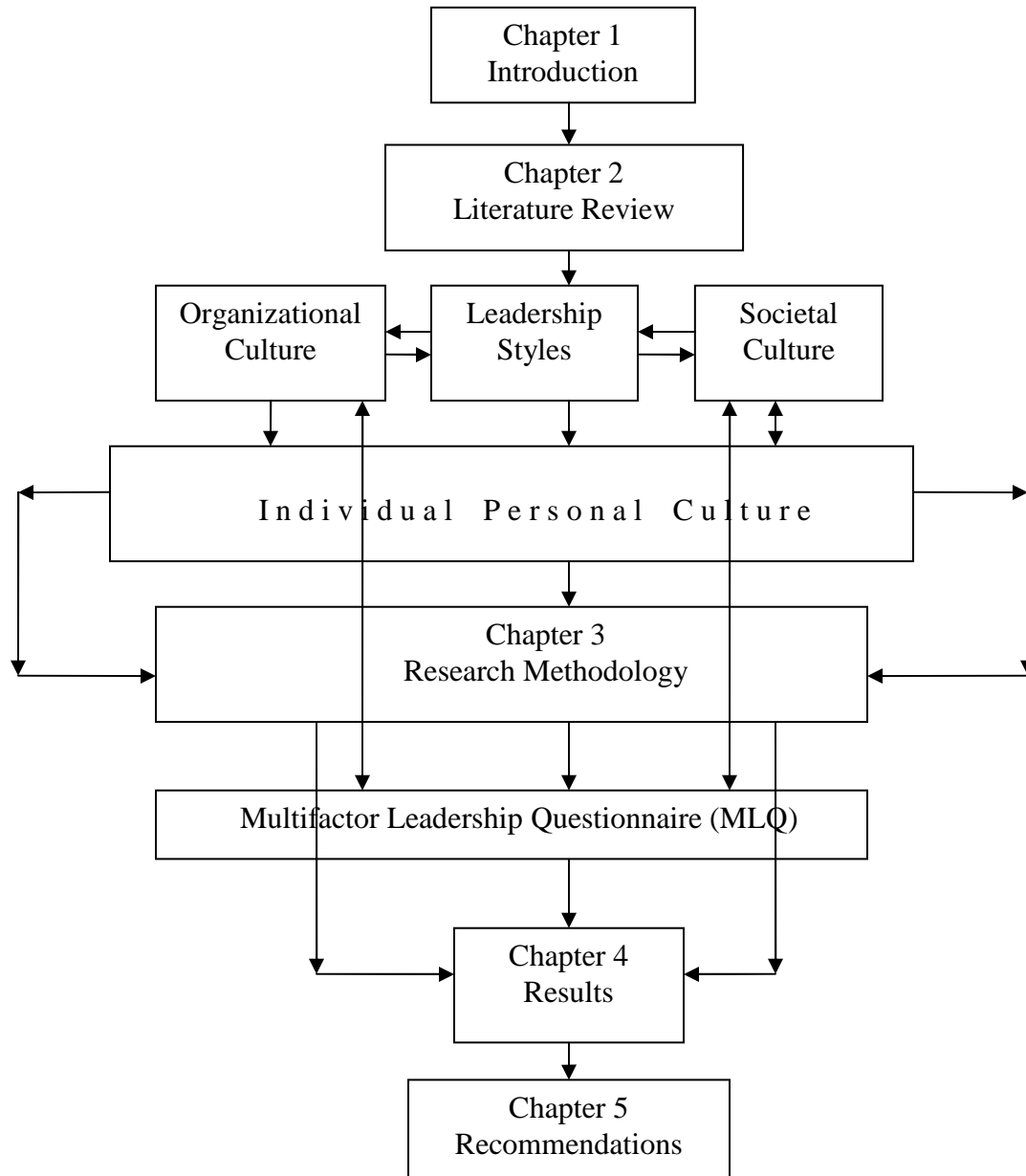
APPENDIX B

Informed Consent Form

The Relationship between Organizational Culture, Societal Culture, and Leadership
Styles

Edward E. Smith, Ph.D. Student, Principal Investigator

Introduction and Purpose:
I am being asked to participate in a research study to determine what relationship exists
between organizational culture and societal culture; to identify what leadership styles
have been identified as most effective in terms of achieving organizational goals while
balancing the needs of the workers involved; to identify relevant cross-cultural issues that
may affect leadership styles in an increasingly multicultural society; and to determine
how leadership styles vary from culture to culture around the world based on the larger
society in which they exist.

Procedure
The researcher will use a critical review of the peer-reviewed and scholarly literature,
conducted to identify relevant issues concerning the relationship between organizational
culture and the larger societal culture in which it exists, to formulate recommendations
for corporate leaders in multicultural settings concerning effective leadership approaches
today.

The content analysis of the interview data will be analyzed. After analysis of the data the
documents, if borrowed, will be returned to rightful owners.

Benefits
There will be no direct benefits to me by participating in this study; however, information
learned from this research may be beneficial to others. The information gleaned from this
study may be useful to help leaders; organizations and industry understand the factors
that influence cultures.

In the proposed study, the researcher expects to identify pertinent traits that characterize
effective leaders in various societal settings.

Risks
There are minimal risks associated with this research project. I understand that there may
be questions that may make me uncomfortable, and if they do, I can refuse to answer

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them. If I must attend to other responsibilities, I can ask the interview to be stopped and rescheduled, or I can refuse to participate.

Voluntary Participant/Withdrawal

Taking part in this study is voluntary. I may choose to not take part in this study, or if I take part, I can later change my mind and withdraw from the study. At any time I can request to review a raw transcript of my interview and alter or remove sections.

Confidentiality

All information collected about me during the course of this study will be kept confidential to the extent permitted by law. A code number will identify me in the research records. Information that identifies me personally will not be released without my written permission; however, the Capella University Institutional Review Board, its agents, and appropriate federal agencies may review my records. Information from this study may be published, but my identity will be kept confidential in any publications.

Questions

If I have any questions in the future or in the case of a research related injury or illness, I may contact Dr. Richard Murphy at (888)-227-3552. If I have any questions about my rights as a research subject, the Capella University Institutional Review Board can be contacted at (888)227-3552).

Consent to Participate

To voluntarily agree to take part in this study, I must sign on the line below. If I choose to take part in this study, I may withdraw at any time. I am not giving up any of my legal rights by signing this form. My signature below indicates that I have read, or had read to me, this entire consent form, including the risks and benefits, and have had all my questions answered. I will be given a copy of this consent form.

_____   _____

Signature of Study Subject   Date

_____   _____

Printed Name of Study Subject   Date

_____   _____

Signature of Investigator obtaining Informed Consent   Date

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APPENDIX C

Permission to Use MLQ Questionnaire

Text Intentionally Reduced
Part of Research Study and for
Researcher's Use Only

MLQ – Researcher's Demographic Add-on

Text Intentionally Reduced
Part of Research Study and for
Researcher's Use Only

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)			
LEADER FORM		No ___	
Would you be willing to participate in a follow-up interview?	Yes	/	No

This questionnaire is intended to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the item blank.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word "others" may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors and/or all of these individuals.

Important: Which best describes you (**required for processing**):

Association to study
a	_____	I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.
b	_____	The person I am rating is at my organizational level.
c	_____	I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.
d	_____	I do not wish my organizational level to be known.

Gender
e	_____	Male
f	_____	Female

Ethnic background
g	_____	White
h	_____	Hispanic
i	_____	Black
j	_____	Other

Educationional level
k	_____	Some college
l	_____	Bachelors
m	_____	Masters
n	_____	Other

Country of origin/birth
o	_____	North America
p	_____	South America
q	_____	Europe, except Africa and India
r	_____	Others, including Caribbean, Africa and India

Preferred language spoken on the job
s	_____	English
t	_____	Spanish
u	_____	French/Creole
v	_____	Other

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Leadership Form   1

APPENDIX E

Multifactor leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) – Rater/Leader Sample, Page 1

Text Intentionally Reduced
Part of Research Study and for
Researcher's Use Only

MLQ

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Rater Form (5x-Short)

Name of Leader: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

This questionnaire is to describe the leadership style of the above-mentioned individual as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.** Please answer this questionnaire anonymously.

IMPORTANT (necessary for processing): Which best describes you?
_____ I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.
_____ The person I am rating is at my organizational level.
_____ I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.
_____ I do not wish my organizational level to be known.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

THE PERSON I AM RATING. . .

		0	1	2	3	4
1.	Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	0	1	2	3	4
2.	Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3.	Fails to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4.	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
5.	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4
6.	Talks about their most important values and beliefs	0	1	2	3	4
7.	Is absent when needed	0	1	2	3	4
8.	Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	0	1	2	3	4
9.	Talks optimistically about the future	0	1	2	3	4
10.	Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her	0	1	2	3	4
11.	Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	0	1	2	3	4
12.	Waits for things to go wrong before taking action	0	1	2	3	4
13.	Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0	1	2	3	4
14.	Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	0	1	2	3	4
15.	Spends time teaching and coaching	0	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX E

Multifactor leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) – Rater/Leader Sample, Page 2

Text Intentionally Reduced
Part of Research Study and for
Researcher's Use Only

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

16. Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved ....O 1 2 3 4
17. Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it." ....O 1 2 3 4
18. Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group ....O 1 2 3 4
19. Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group ....O 1 2 3 4
20. Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action ....O 1 2 3 4
21. Acts in ways that builds my respect ....O 1 2 3 4
22. Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures ....O 1 2 3 4
23. Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions ....O 1 2 3 4
24. Keeps track of all mistakes ....O 1 2 3 4
25. Displays a sense of power and confidence ....O 1 2 3 4
26. Articulates a compelling vision of the future ....O 1 2 3 4
27. Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards ....O 1 2 3 4
28. Avoids making decisions ....O 1 2 3 4
29. Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others ....O 1 2 3 4
30. Gets me to look at problems from many different angles ....O 1 2 3 4
31. Helps me to develop my strengths ....O 1 2 3 4
32. Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments ....O 1 2 3 4
33. Delays responding to urgent questions ....O 1 2 3 4
34. Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission ....O 1 2 3 4
35. Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations ....O 1 2 3 4
36. Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved ....O 1 2 3 4
37. Is effective in meeting my job-related needs ....O 1 2 3 4
38. Uses methods of leadership that are satisfying ....O 1 2 3 4
39. Gets me to do more than I expected to do ....O 1 2 3 4
40. Is effective in representing me to higher authority ....O 1 2 3 4
41. Works with me in a satisfactory way ....O 1 2 3 4
42. Heightens my desire to succeed ....O 1 2 3 4
43. Is effective in meeting organizational requirements ....O 1 2 3 4
44. Increases my willingness to try harder ....O 1 2 3 4
45. Leads a group that is effective ....O 1 2 3 4

Multifactor leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) – Scores

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Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

USE THE FOLLOWING RATING SCALE:
Leader/Rater Form(s)

Key: Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

% Return	
87%	85%

Participants	
20	90

		Average Values	
		(S)upervisors	(W)orkers
1	I provide other with assistance in exchange for their efforts.	3.70	3.50
2	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.	3.60	3.40
3	I fail to interfere until problems become serious.	0.40	0.50
4	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	3.75	3.80
5	I avoid getting involved when important issues arise.	0.70	3.60
6	I talk about my most important values and beliefs.	3.20	3.90
7	I am absent when needed.	0.35	0.79
8	I seek differing perspectives when solving problems.	3.40	3.50
9	I talk optimistically about the future.	3.25	3.60
10	I instill pride in other for being associated with me.	3.35	3.80
11	I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.	2.35	3.70
12	I wait for things to go wrong before taking action.	0.20	0.10
13	I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	3.65	3.90
14	I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	3.75	3.78
15	I spend time teaching and coaching.	2.40	3.20
16	I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.	3.90	3.80
17	I show that I am a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."	2.80	3.90
18	I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	3.85	3.95
19	I treat others are individuals rather than just a member of a group.	3.75	3.75
20	I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action.	0.40	0.10
21	I act in ways that build others' respect for me.	3.85	3.81
22	I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures.	3.00	0.20
23	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	3.75	3.50
24	I keep track of all mistakes.	0.25	0.10
25	I display a sense of power and confidence.	3.40	3.40
26	I articulate a sense of power and confidence.	3.70	1.95
27	I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards.	3.00	3.50
28	I avoid making decisions.	0.50	3.25
29	I consider an individual as having different needs, ability, and aspirations from others.	3.80	3.90
30	I get others to look at problems from many different angles.	3.65	3.40
31	I help others to develop their strengths.	3.25	3.50
32	I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	3.85	3.90
33	I delay responding to urgent questions.	0.25	0.30
34	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	3.30	3.70
35	I express satisfaction when others meet expectations.	3.85	4.00
36	I express confidence that goals will be achieved.	3.60	3.50
37	I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs.	3.65	3.40
38	I use methods of leadership that are satisfying.	3.65	3.90
39	I get others to do more than they expected to do.	3.40	2.00
40	I am effective in representing others to higher authority.	3.70	3.90
41	I work with others in a satisfactory way.	3.25	3.70
42	I heighten others' desire to succeed.	3.90	3.40
43	I am effective in meeting organizational requirements.	4.00	2.00
44	I increase others' willingness to try harder.	4.00	2.60
45	I lead a group that is effective.	4.00	2.85
	Average (S)upervisors / (W)orkers	2.958	2.983

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APPENDIX G

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) – Leadership Styles, Scoring Key Page 1

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MLQ   **Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire**
                  Scoring Key (5x) Short

My Name: _____   Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____   Leader ID #: _____

Scoring: The MLQ scale scores are average scores for the items on the scale. The score can be derived by summing the items and dividing by the number of items that make up the scale. All of the leadership style scales have four items, Extra Effort has three items, Effectiveness has four items, and Satisfaction has two items.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

Idealized Influence (Attributed) total/4 =   Management-by-Exception (Active) total/4 =
Idealized Influence (Behavior) total/4 =   Management-by-Exception (Passive) total/4 =
Inspirational Motivation total/4 =   Laissez-faire Leadership total/4 =
Intellectual Stimulation total/4 =   Extra Effort total/3 =
Individualized Consideration total/4 =   Effectiveness total/4 =
Contingent Reward total/4 =   Satisfaction total/2 =

1.	Contingent Reward 0	1 2 3 4	
2.	Intellectual Stimulation 0	1 2 3 4	
3.	Management-by-Exception (Passive) 0	1 2 3 4	
4.	Management-by-Exception (Active).........................0	1 2 3 4	
5.	Laissez-faire 0	1 2 3 4	
6.	Idealized Influence (Behavior) 0	1 2 3 4	
7.	Laissez-faire 0	1 2 3 4	
8.	Intellectual Stimulation 0	1 2 3 4	
9.	Inspirational Motivation 0	1 2 3 4	
10.	Idealized Influence (Attributed) 0	1 2 3 4	
11.	Contingent Reward 0	1 2 3 4	
12.	Management-by-Exception (Passive) 0	1 2 3 4	
13.	Inspirational Motivation 0	1 2 3 4	
14.	Idealized Influence (Behavior) 0	1 2 3 4	
15.	Individualized Consideration 0	1 2 3 4	

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) – Leadership Styles Scoring Key, Page 2

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mind garden

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

16.	Contingent Reward	0	1	2	3	4
17.	Management-by-Exception (Passive)	0	1	2	3	4
18.	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	0	1	2	3	4
19.	Individualized Consideration	0	1	2	3	4
20.	Management-by-Exception (Passive)	0	1	2	3	4
21.	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	0	1	2	3	4
22.	Management-by-Exception (Active)	0	1	2	3	4
23.	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	0	1	2	3	4
24.	Management-by-Exception (Active)	0	1	2	3	4
25.	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	0	1	2	3	4
26.	Inspirational Motivation	0	1	2	3	4
27.	Management-by-Exception (Active)	0	1	2	3	4
28.	Laissez-faire	0	1	2	3	4
29.	Individualized Consideration	0	1	2	3	4
30.	Intellectual Stimulation	0	1	2	3	4
31.	Individualized Consideration	0	1	2	3	4
32.	Intellectual Stimulation	0	1	2	3	4
33.	Laissez-faire	0	1	2	3	4
34.	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	0	1	2	3	4
35.	Contingent Reward	0	1	2	3	4
36.	Inspirational Motivation	0	1	2	3	4
37.	Effectiveness	0	1	2	3	4
38.	Satisfaction	0	1	2	3	4
39.	Extra Effort	0	1	2	3	4
40.	Effectiveness	0	1	2	3	4
41.	Satisfaction	0	1	2	3	4
42.	Extra Effort	0	1	2	3	4
43.	Effectiveness	0	1	2	3	4
44.	Extra Effort	0	1	2	3	4
45.	Effectiveness	0	1	2	3	4

APPENDI H

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) – Leadership Styles Score Grouping

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Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)
Leader/Rater Form(s)

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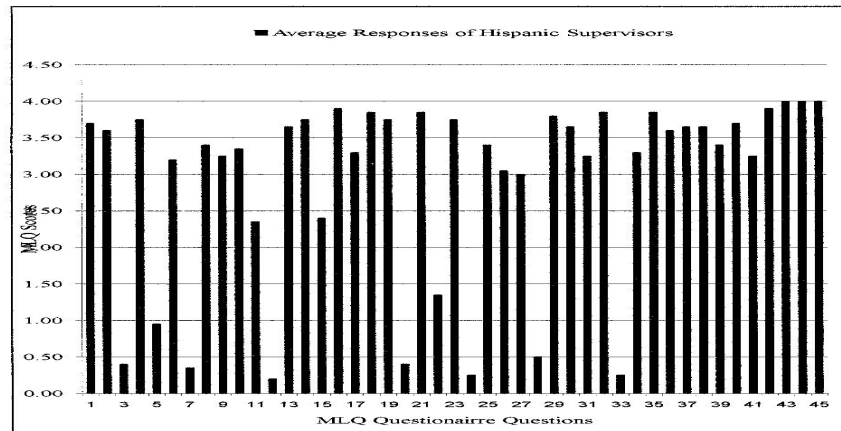*Part of Research Study and for*
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Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) – Leadership Style Scores and Outcomes

Realm	#	MLQ Questions	Average Responses (S)upervisors	(W)orkers	MLQ SCORES (S)upervisors	(W)orkers
	25	I display a sense of power an	3.40	3.40		
	10	I instill pride in other for bein	3.80	3.35		
	21	I act in ways that build others	3.81	3.85		
Idealized influence (attributed)	18	I go beyond self-interest for t	3.95	3.85	3.74	3.61
	6	I talk about my most importa	3.20	3.90		
	34	I emphasize the importance o	3.30	3.70		
	14	I specify the importance of ha	3.75	3.78		
Idealized influence (behavior)	23	I consider the moral and ethic	3.75	3.50	3.50	3.72
	26	I articulate a sense of power a	3.70	1.95		
	9	I talk optimistically about the	3.25	3.60		
	36	I express confidence that goa	3.60	3.50		
Inspirational motivation	13	I talk enthusiastically about w	3.65	3.90	3.55	3.24
	32	I suggest new ways of lookin	3.90	3.85		
	8	I seek differing perspectives v	3.40	3.50		
	2	I re-examine critical assumpti	3.60	3.40		
Intellectual stimulation	30	I get others to look at proble	3.65	3.40	3.64	3.54
	15	I spend time teaching and coa	2.40	3.20		
	31	I help others to develop their	3.25	3.50		
	19	I treat others are individuals t	3.75	3.75		
Individualized consideration	29	I consider an individual as ha	3.80	3.90	3.30	3.59
	11	I discuss in specific terms wh	2.35	3.70		
	1	I provide other with assistanc	3.70	3.50		
	35	I express satisfaction when o	3.85	4.00		
Contingent reward	16	I make clear what one can ex	3.90	3.80	3.45	3.75
	27	I direct my attention toward 1	3.50	3.00		
	24	I keep track of all mistakes.	0.25	0.10		
	22	I concentrate my full attentio	3.00	0.20		
Management-by-Exception (Active)	4	I focus attention on irregulari	3.75	3.80	2.63	1.78
	12	I wait for things to go wrong	0.20	0.10		
	3	I fail to interfere until probler	0.40	0.50		
	20	I demonstrate that problems r	0.40	0.10		
Management by Exception (Passive)	17	I show that I am a firm believ	2.60	3.90	0.90	1.15
	33	I delay responding to urgent (	0.25	0.30		
	7	I am absent when needed.	0.35	0.79		
	5	I avoid getting involved wher	0.70	3.60		
Laissez-Faire Leadership	28	I avoid making decisions.	0.50	3.25	0.45	1.99
					MLQ OUTCOMES	
	39	I get others to do more than t	3.40	2.00		
	44	I increase others' willingness	4.00	2.60		
Extra Effort	42	I heighten others' desire to su	3.90	3.40	3.77	2.67
	45	I lead a group that is effective	4.00	2.85		
	43	I am effective in meeting orga	4.00	2.00		
	37	I am effective in meeting othe	3.65	3.40		
Effectiveness	40	I am effective in representing	3.70	3.90	3.84	3.04
	41	I work with others in a satisfa	3.25	3.70		
Satisfaction	38	I use methods of leadership tl	3.65	3.90	3.45	3.80

APPENDIX J

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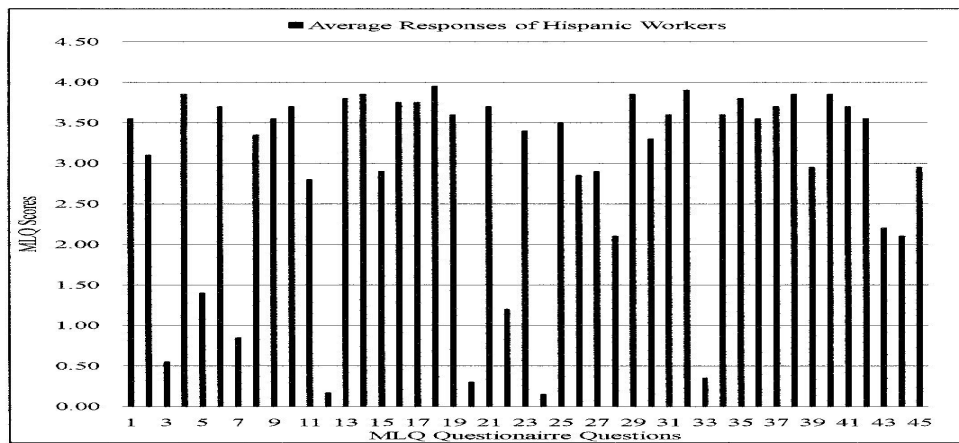*Part of Research Study and for*
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MLQ AVERAGE RESPONSES OF HISPANIC WORKERS
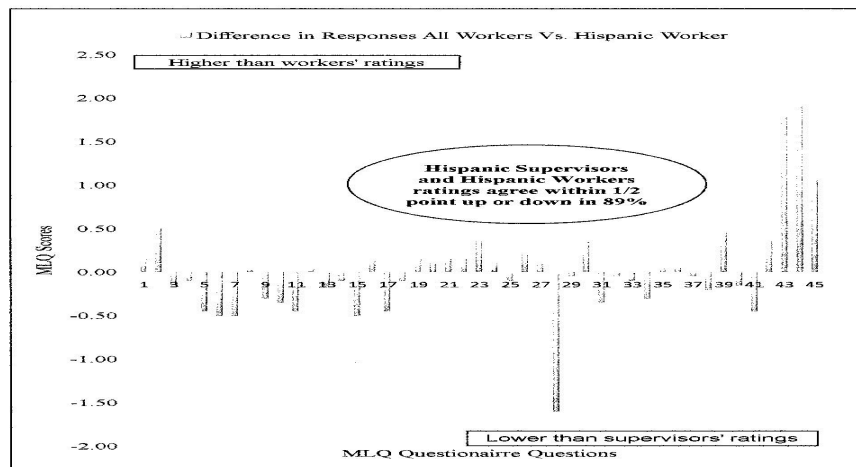
APPENDIX K

MLQ AVERAGE RESPONSES OF HISPANIC WORKERS

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APPENDIX L

MLQ SCORES DIFFERENCES ALL WORKER VS HISPANIC WORKERS

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Difference in Responses All Workers Vs. Hispanic Worker

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Module	Date Last Completed	Exam ID
Assessing Risk in Social and Behavioral Sciences - SBR(ID: 503)	12/6/2007	14393492
CAPELLA UNIVERSITY(ID: 529)	12/6/2007	N/A
Defining Research with Human Subjects – SBR(ID: 491)	12/5/2007	14393318
History and Ethical Principles – SBR(ID: 490)	12/5/2007	14393260
Informed Consent(ID: 3)	11/5/2008	N/A
Informed Consent - SBR(ID: 504)	12/6/2007	14393519
International Research – SBR(ID: 509)	11/5/2008	N/A
Internet Research – SBR(ID: 510)	11/5/2008	20906902
Introduction(ID: 757)	11/14/2007	N/A
Privacy and Confidentiality – SBR(ID: 505)	12/6/2007	14393532
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