Leadership in Western and Asian countries: Commonalities and differences in effective leadership processes

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LEADERSHIP IN WESTERN AND ASIAN COUNTRIES: COMMONALITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP PROCESSES ACROSS CULTURES

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While the phenomenon of leadership is widely considered to be universal across cultures, the way in which it is operationalized is usually viewed as culturally specific. Conflicting viewpoints exist in the leadership literature concerning the transferability of specific leader behaviors and processes across cultures. This study explored these conflicting views for managers and professional workers by empirically testing specific hypotheses which addressed the generalizability of leadership behaviors and processes across five nations in North America and Asia. Confirmatory factor analyses provided evidence for conceptual and measurement equivalence for all six leader behaviors employed in the study. The findings showed cultural universality for three leader behaviors (supportive, contingent reward, and

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charismatic), and cultural specificity for the remaining three leader behaviors (directive, participative, and contingent punishment).

INTRODUCTION

It has become an axiom among international researchers that effective management and leadership processes must reflect the culture in which they are found (Ayman, 1993; Smith & Peterson, 1988). Unique cultural characteristics such as language, beliefs, values, religion, and social organization are generally presumed to necessitate distinct leadership approaches in different groups of nations—popularly known as culture clusters (Hofstede, 1993; Jackofsky, Slocum, & McQuaid, 1988; Ronen & Shenkar, 1985; Triandis, 1993a). Researchers who adhere to this culture specific position often cite the individualistic nature of the United States as support for the argument that leadership theories developed in the United States are limited in their applicability to different cultures (Adler, 1991; Hofstede, 1980, 1993; Smith & Peterson, 1988; Triandis, 1993b). Some recent writers have pointed out, however, that universal tendencies in leadership processes *also* exist—the culture universal position (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Dorfman & Ronen, 1991; Fahr, Podsakoff, & Cheng, 1987; Wakabayashi & Graen, 1984).

Bass (1990) has shown that both of these two perspectives—culture specific versus culture universal—have demonstrated validity for practitioners and researchers alike. Construct development and research methods employed, however, often differ between those researchers who subscribe more to the culture specific approach than those who acknowledge the possibility of culture universals. The culture specific perspective, which is consistent with an "emic" or insider approach to construct development (Berry, 1980), reflects the view that certain leadership constructs and behaviors are likely to be unique to a given culture. In-depth emic studies that are culture specific provide descriptively rich information about how leadership constructs are enacted in those cultures. In support of this position, Smith et al. (1989) found that the specific expression or enactment of basic leader functions of mid-level managers vary according to cultural constraints. At the executive level, research also indicates that successful CEO's often employ leadership styles consistent with society's cultural values (Jackofsky, Slocum, & McQuade, 1988).

The culture universal position, in contrast, is consistent with an "etic" or outside imposed perspective that certain leadership constructs are comparable across cultures. In order to explore the universalist position, an etic methodology is employed whereby comparative studies are carried out among various cultures to empirically test potentially generalizable leadership hypotheses. In support of this "universalist" position, researchers have reported findings that show commonalities in leadership patterns across widely varying cultures. For instance, a literature review by Smith and Peterson (1988) showed the general leader behavior patterns of task and relationship oriented behaviors, which have been prominent in many U.S. leadership models, were effective in studies of collectivist cultures. *Our approach in this study employed both the emic and etic perspectives—emic culture-based predictions were developed regarding the incidence and impact of etic dimensions of leaders' behavior within a theoretically sound contingency model of leadership.* Thus the overall thrust of the research project reported here was to extend contingency theories of leadership to include national culture as an important situational variable.

Leadership Theory

Until recently, the major focus of leadership research in the United States has been on contingency theories that have attempted to specify the organizational circumstances under which particular leader behavior patterns are most effective (cf., Fiedler & Garcia, 1987; Indvik, 1986; Vroom & Jago, 1988). A careful reading of the leadership literature and recent summaries demonstrate that much has been learned by contingency theory researchers (Fiedler & House, 1988; Indvik, 1986; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). These researchers have shown that situational factors play a critical role in determining when a particular leader behavior is most effective. Contingency leadership theories thus provide an appropriate theoretical framework for this study because they were designed primarily to test leadership impacts in different situations and contexts. The primary contextual variable in this study is national culture.

We attempted to avoid the universalist bias of simply testing a specific U.S. made theory abroad (Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991). Instead, we chose two well known contingency models—House's Path-Goal Theory and Yukl's Multiple Linkage Model—and we created a syncretic model of leadership based on these two theories. Behling and McFillan (1993) have described syncretic models as combining and integrating similarities among existing models. Admittedly, our syncretic model was developed within a "Western" context. Yet the leadership constructs employed in our model have been employed in leadership models by non-Western researchers (e.g., Misumi & Peterson, 1985b; Sinha, 1980) and have been studied in some cross-cultural contexts (reviewed by Dorfman, 1996). Our objective at this stage was to develop a model with variables and processes that had sound theoretical and research bases as well as potentially wide application across cultures.

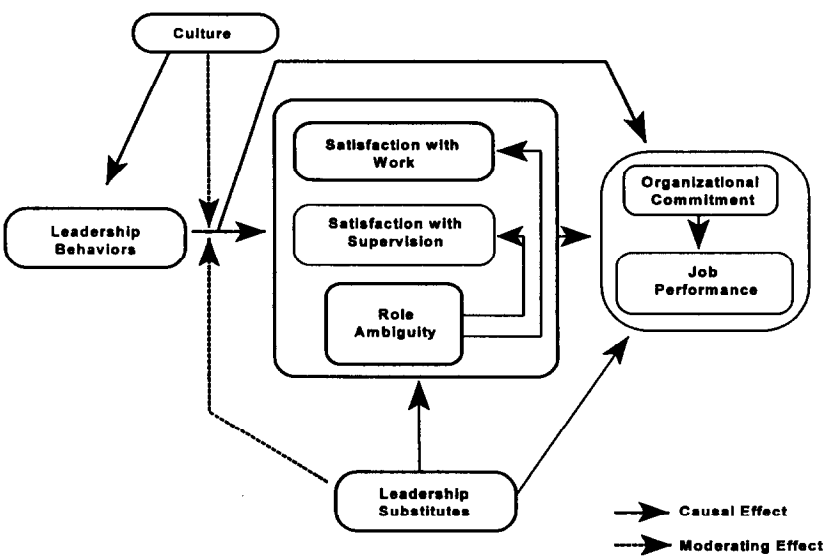

Figure 1. Theoretical Model of Leadership Processes

House's Path-Goal Theory of Leadership is a midrange theory designed to predict subordinates' motivation, satisfactions, and performance (House, 1971). In addition to an extensive research base in the United States (Indvik, 1988), it has been found useful in leadership research in different cultures (Al-Gattan, 1985; Dorfman & Howell, 1988). Yukl's Multiple Linkage Model (1994) is a meta-theory that is designed to predict work group performance. Although the complexity of the Multiple Linkage Model makes it difficult to test in its entirety, it is probably the most comprehensive contingency theory developed to date (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). In addition to being carefully developed by excellent scholars, these two models possess several characteristics that make them attractive as the basis for a model of leadership behaviors in different cultures. First, both models include etic leader behaviors that can be identified and described in all the cultures studied. Second, the leader behaviors have been widely researched in the United States and to some degree in other cultures. Third, both models incorporate mediator variables to help track the causal impacts of leadership behaviors on outcomes. Fourth, these models systematically incorporate situational moderator variables in their predictions. A weakness of these and other contingency models is that they neglect to include culture as a key type of moderator variable. Figure 1 describes the syncretic leadership model used in this study. This model is briefly described, followed by a justification of the relationships depicted in the model.

Figure 1 shows the leadership process as a set of causal leader behavior variables that impact followers' job satisfaction and role ambiguity—representing mediators in this model. The mediators are the most immediate results of a leader's behavior. Organizational commitment and job performance are outcome variables in the model. Job satisfaction and role ambiguity are shown affecting organizational commitment (Williams & Hazer, 1986) as well as job performance. Although the satisfaction-performance relationship in the U.S. literature is not strong, recent meta-analysis research indicates that the relationship is positive, and when using the best satisfaction measures (e.g., Job Descriptive Index), correlations are approximately in the .30 range (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Ostroff, 1992).

To our knowledge, the link between satisfaction and performance has not been investigated systematically in non-Western countries. Job performance and commitment are also directly affected by leader behaviors (because this model does not attempt to include an exhaustive list of mediators). Finally, job performance is influenced by organizational commitment. Leadership substitutes moderate leadership effects and have direct effects on mediators and outcome variables. (We have chosen not to test for "substitutes for leadership" in this project because of the complexity of our study due to the multiplicity of data sets.) Culture is also an overall moderator of leadership effects and is shown to have a direct effect on the behaviors exhibited by leaders.

Viewing leader behaviors as causal variables is consistent with contingency leadership theories and most cross-cultural leadership research (Misumi & Peterson, 1985a, 1985b; Smith & Peterson, 1988). The actual leader behaviors used in this study are *directive, supportive, participative, contingent reward and punishment, and charismatic* behaviors. Each of these has shown potential importance in cross-cultural research, have been claimed by researchers to be universally important across cultures, and/or are used by managers and management trainers abroad (Al-Gattan, 1985; Ayman & Chemers, 1983; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass & Yokochi, 1991; Bond & Hwang, 1986; Dorfman, 1996; Dorfman & Ronen,

1991; Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Fahr, Podsakoff, & Cheng, 1987; House, 1991; Misumi & Peterson, 1985b; Sinha, 1980). Showing culture as a causal variable affecting the level of leader behaviors is consistent with existing models of cross-cultural management (Bass, 1990; Negandhi & Prasad, 1971), and its role as a moderator in Fig. 1 is implicit in much cross-cultural leadership research (Misumi & Peterson, 1985b; Smith, Peterson, Bond, & Misumi, 1992).

A test of our syncretic model represents what Earley and Mosakowski (1996) refer to as a *pseudo-etic* approach to cross-cultural management research. Although this term has historically been pejorative in its connotation, they recommend this approach as appropriate for comparative research where "quasi-universal constructs" are developed, placed in a "carefully constructed theoretical model" and then tested for their universal (cross-cultural) validity. Earley, et al. (1996) also note that researchers should thoroughly understand the cultures they study to assure that the model and constructs have potential significance in new contexts. Clearly, results indicating similarities and differences between cultures are only useful to the extent that they are integrated within a theoretical framework and also make sense within the specific culture under study (Earley & Singh; 1995). The following section provides cultural descriptions of each country included in this study. These descriptions focus on cultural dimensions and national characteristics that are related to the type of leadership norms most prevalent in each country.

FIVE COUNTRIES

Five countries in the Asian-Pacific Basin were studied—Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, Mexico, and the United States. The five countries were chosen for two reasons. First, they are major players in a growing economic bloc called the Asian-Pacific Basin. Second, they represent considerable cultural variation on numerous dimensions such as individualism/collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, degree of industrialization, paternalism, and Eastern versus Western attitudes toward work and authority (Hofstede, 1991; Ronen & Shenkar, 1985). Our goal was to obtain two samples of respondents from North America (United States and Mexico) and match these samples with the three major ethnic cultures in the Asian-Pacific Rim. Because of their cultural variation and the current interest in business issues in the Pacific Rim, we believe these cultures are theoretically and practically valuable contexts in which to test the transferability of general dimensions of leadership behavior.

Leadership in Japan

Japan is the second largest trading partner with the United States, and it may be a unique culture within the Pacific Rim, being higher in masculinity and uncertainty avoidance and only medium on collectivism in comparison to South Korea and Taiwan (Dorfman & Howell, 1994; Hofstede, 1991). Confucianism in Japan requires respect and obedience to leaders who have historically responded with highly paternalistic attitudes toward their subordinates, expressed by *mendou* ("I think about you; I will take care of you"). Japanese organizations are extremely hierarchical and are rigidly organized (Chen, 1995), yet helping and caring for followers and being involved in their personal lives is expected of Japanese managers (Whitehall & Takezawa, 1968; Bass, Burger, et al., 1979). The

Japanese *sempai-kohai* mentor relationship system reinforces a close personal bond between supervisors and subordinates (Chen, 1995).

The ideal leadership model in Japan comes from early village leaders who were skillfully unassertive and who led by implicit consensus, nonverbal communication, and indirect discussions ("Too much talk was bad"). Japanese managers typically outline general objectives, make vague group assignments, and generally let subordinates use their own approaches to achieve overall objectives. The phrase *omakase* ("I trust you, you can do it") reflects this approach. Although only medium on collectivism, Asian scholars describe the Japanese as placing strong emphasis on group harmony and collective (not individual) responsibility (e.g., Hayashi, 1988). The Japanese tendency for collective decision making and extensive consultation through the *ringi* system of decision making is also well noted (Chen, 1995). We expect these complex forces to cause *supportive and participative* leadership to be highly impactful, and *directive* leadership to be impactful to some extent in Japan.

An emphasis by managers on equality of all group members also supports group harmony, which is usually considered more important than making money or overall productivity (Bass, 1990). Individuals are not singled out in Japan for praise or criticism ("The nail which sticks out gets pounded down"). Compliments and criticism are usually directed at the group; individual criticism is not conveyed openly, but may be directed at the individual after the workday is over. *Leader contingent punishment* behavior is therefore predicted to have no positive impact and may have a negative impact in Japan. However, since leader contingent reward behavior has been found impactful in other Asian cultures (Fahr, et al., 1987) and since Japanese leaders do control recognition and symbolic exchanges with followers (often shown over long periods through promotions and/or added responsibilities), *leader contingent reward* behavior is predicted to have a positive impact on followers in Japan.

Charisma is important for top level managers in Japan, who represent a symbol of respected authority and may be called "mini-emperor." The main functions of senior management in Japan include establishing an overall theme, developing strategy, and engaging in high-level external relations (Morgan & Morgan, 1991). Other managers in Japanese organizations are considered part of their group, not separate from the group as is often the case with charismatics. Japanese managers also do not view themselves as risk takers, another characteristic often attributed to charismatic leaders (Bass, 1985). We therefore expect *charismatic leader behaviors* to have little or no impact in this Japanese sample of middle managers and professionals. Based on the considerations discussed above, we present the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1. In Japan, directive, supportive, contingent reward and participative leader behaviors will positively affect mediators and/or outcome measures; contingent punishment will have no positive impact, and may have a negative impact on the same criteria. Charismatic leader behaviors will have no significant effects.

Leadership in South Korea

South Korea continues to develop rapidly and represents an important manufacturing competitor to the United States and Japan. Its high collectivism and medium/high

uncertainty avoidance make it culturally akin to Taiwan (Dorfman & Howell, 1994; Hofstede, 1991). South Korea is perhaps more heavily influenced by Confucianism than other Asian countries. The Confucian code of ethical behavior includes maintenance of harmonious relationships and trust as the basis of business activities. A social order emphasizes respect and obedience to senior individuals, who, in turn, assume responsibility for the well being and future of the young. Absolute loyalty to the ruler (or company president) is required (Steers, Shin, & Ungson, 1989). These factors result in leaders who assume a personal interest in the welfare and development of followers and who emphasize group harmony and smooth, conflict-free interpersonal relations (Steers, et al., 1989). While harmony *(inhwa)* is desirable, it is based on inequality among those of differing rank, power, and prestige (Alston, 1989). Thus, followers' responsiveness to their leaders is heavily reinforced by strong Confucian mandates of respect and obedience to leaders who maintain and care for their followers. Combining these values with generally vague job descriptions and training results in leaders with considerable power to direct activities. Based on these observations, we predict *supportive and directive leadership* to be highly impactful in South Korea.

Centralized planning and control and strong directiveness are clearly evident in the *chaebols*, which are large diversified companies, primarily owned and managed by founders and/or family members, which dominate South Korean business. Perhaps because of highly centralized and formalized organizational structures, key information is normally concentrated at the top organizational levels in South Korea. Top-down decision making style is typical with subordinates taking a passive role in communications (Chen, 1995). Although a recent survey reported South Korean executives expressing the importance of an "environment for voluntary participation," subordinates have difficulty in expressing views contrary to those of their supervisors. We predict, therefore, that *participative leadership* will have little or no impact in South Korea.

There is a clear emphasis on collective, rather than individual, achievement in South Korea (Hofstede, 1980; Steers, et al., 1989) and differentiating rewards among individuals is believed to disturb the needed harmony. These factors argue against leader contingent reward behavior in South Korea. However, the contingent reward scale used in this study measures social rewards only (e.g., compliments and recognition). A survey of executives showed that South Koreans prefer recognition to tangible rewards (Hayashi, 1988), and leader contingent reward behaviors have been found impactful in other cultures characterized by Confucianism (Fahr, et al., 1987). We therefore expect *leaders' contingent reward behavior* to have a positive impact in South Korea. In contrast, because negative feedback may undermine harmonious relations, managers often evaluate subordinates leniently and will temper criticism if the individual puts forth reasonable effort (Chen, 1995). The combination of trying to preserve the internal peace and harmony of others (*kibun*) and not conveying bad news or news someone does not wish to hear leads us to predict that *leaders' contingent punishment behavior* will have no impact in South Korea.

South Korean corporations are highly entrepreneurial in spirit. Successful South Korean entrepreneurs enunciate a clear and convincing vision of their business goals to obtain government-assisted loans and, like Chairman Kim of Daewoo, they aggressively pursue their vision. The charisma of Chairman Chung of Hyundai was evident when he personally inspired subordinates to believe in their new (and eventually successful) shipbuilding

venture, in spite of expert opinion that it would fail. Family ownership, importance of personal loyalty, and combined ownership/management of South Korean companies suggest that charismatic leadership should be impactful in South Korea. We offer the following summary hypothesis for South Korea:

Hypothesis 2. In South Korea, directive, supportive, charismatic, and contingent reward leader behaviors will positively affect mediators and/or outcome measures; contingent punishment and participative leader behaviors will have no significant impacts.

Leadership in Taiwan

Taiwan reflects the prosperous "overseas" Chinese culture found in many areas of the Pacific Rim. Hofstede (1980) also reported the Chinese to be very high on collectivism and Dorfman and Howell (1988) found them high on both collectivism and paternalism. The Confucian norm of deference to rank (*wu-lun*) is strong, with followers preferring clear-cut directions from kind, "human hearted" leaders (*jen*) who care about followers (Redding, 1990; Hsu, 1982). Most overseas Chinese business and management practices are based on the family business model—even large scale business operations usually follow this cultural norm. According to Redding (1990), the managerial philosophy can be summarized by the word "patromonialism"—indicating themes such as paternalism, hierarchy, familialism, mutual obligation, personalism and connections. Ingratiation of leaders (providing compliments, conformity in opinions and behavior, gift giving) is common by followers and is called *enhancing others' face*. Hsu (1982) found that Chinese subordinates prefer a leadership style where the leader maintains a harmonious considerate relationship with followers while being directive. Hsu (1982) found that leader initiating structure correlated positively with Chinese followers' job satisfaction and that subordinates preferred leaders who define clear-cut tasks for each member of the group. We therefore expect *supportive and directive leadership* to be highly impactful among the Taiwanese workers sampled.

In a comparative study of beliefs about management behavior, Redding and Casey (1976) found Chinese managers distinctly more authoritarian and autocratic than Western managers, especially regarding sharing information with subordinates and allowing them to participate in decision making. Open discussion about decision making processes tends to be viewed as a challenge to the leader's authority and is therefore not done (Redding & Casey, 1976). Subordinates typically assume the leader has considered all relevant factors prior to making a decision. A large power distance is maintained by the boss (Chen, 1995). One Chinese executive pointed out a weakness in Chinese organizations that very little input is obtained from employees. We therefore expect *participative leadership* to have no positive impact in Taiwan.

In Chinese organizations, control is achieved through conformity, nepotism and obligation networks (*guanxi*), not through performance contingent rewards and punishments (Redding & Wong, 1986). Judgment of a person's worth is based on loyalty rather than ability or performance against objective criteria (Chen, 1995). Chinese culture urges avoidance of confrontation which is sometimes considered uncivilized behavior. Preserving others' face in social encounters is important so supervisors usually do not point

out others mistakes directly. They typically use vague or moderate language to protect the face of those being criticized. Fahr, Podsakoff, and Cheng (1987) found that punishment behavior of any kind has significant dysfunctional effects on subordinate performance in Taiwan. In contrast to punishing behaviors, recent studies of overseas Chinese (Fahr, Podsakoff, & Cheng, 1987) indicate that performance contingent rewards may play a positive role in Chinese organizations. We therefore expect *leaders' contingent punishment behavior* to have a negative impact in our Taiwanese sample, but *leaders' contingent reward behavior* will have a positive impact.

Redding (1990) has pointed out that managerial leadership among overseas Chinese is primarily transactional, not charismatic. Subordinates are expected to exhibit loyalty, diligence, conformity and behaviors that enhance the superiors' face. This psychological contract governing the superior-subordinate relationship is a direct reflection of the Confucian family social structure which is based on filial piety (*hsiao*). The loyalty and devotion of subordinates derives from cultural dictates, not from an inspirational charismatic leader. However, leaders at the very top of an organization may create a vision that inspires followers. One example was Mao Tse Tung, who also endeavored to replace the Confucian social structure with a socialistic structure, but overseas Chinese have not generally accepted the socialistic structure. And the individuals in our Taiwanese sample are supervisors, middle managers and professional workers—not top level managers. We therefore expect that *charismatic leadership* will have no significant impact on followers in the Taiwanese sample. The following hypothesis summarizes our predictions for Taiwan:

Hypothesis 3. In Taiwan, directive, supportive, and contingent reward leader behaviors will positively affect mediators and/or outcome measures; contingent punishment will have a negative impact on mediators and/or outcome measures. Participative and charismatic leader behaviors will have no significant effects.

Leadership in Mexico

Mexico's high collectivism, paternalism, power distance, and masculinity seems to resemble the Asian culture cluster more than its neighbor the United States (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Hofstede, 1991). Its Spanish/Indian history of authoritarian and omnipotent leaders has been enacted via the autocratic *patrón* and compliant follower roles which pervade Mexican society (Riding, 1985). Mexican society today still functions through relationships of power where status differences predominate. Mexico is also highly paternalistic (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Farmer & Richman, 1965), and the compliant role of subordinates reinforces the strong directive leader. High collectivism and paternalism in Mexico encourages a caring, supportive type of leadership. Kakar (1971) and Ayman and Chemers (1983) found supportive leadership to have positive impacts on the attitudes of Mexican workers. We thus expect both *directive and supportive leadership* to be highly impactful in Mexico.

The authoritarian tradition in Mexico still resists incursions of Western liberalism, including seeking input from all levels for decision making. Participative leadership, as practiced in Western Europe and North America, requires individualistic followers,

trusting relationships between managers and followers, and a firm structure for participation (Hofstede, 1980; Riding, 1985). None of these conditions are present in Mexican culture which is highly collectivist, nontrusting, and elitist without a history or framework for wide participation in organizational processes. Marrow (1964) reported that participative leaders in Latin America were viewed as weak and caused increased turnover as followers deserted a leader they deemed destined to fail. We therefore predict that *participative leadership* will not be impactful in Mexico.

Leaders' contingent reward and punishment behaviors seem well suited for individualistic cultures like the United States, not collectivist cultures like Mexico. However, recall that Mexican society functions through relationships of power and influence. In organizations, control of rewards and punishments are major reflections of one's power. Bass (1990) concluded that leaders' contingent punishment behavior was impactful in high power distance cultures. However, qualitative research with focus groups in Mexico (conducted as part of GLOBE leadership project; House, et al., 1994) revealed that the prototypical "good leader" will not offend or embarrass others but will maintain respect and interact with others in a culturally sensitive manner (*simpatico*). These limited, and somewhat contradictory observations, lead us to expect *leaders' contingent reward* to have positive impacts but *contingent punishment behaviors* to have no significant impact on followers in Mexico.

Mexican history is filled with revolutionary charismatic leaders whose names are continuously honored and celebrated. Current political leaders often adopt key Mexican charismatics from the past as "spiritual" advisors (Riding, 1985). These historical figures are strongly masculine and possess a high degree of power. Bass (1990) predicted that charismatic leadership would be especially impactful in collectivist cultures. We therefore expect *charismatic leadership* to have a strong impact on Mexican followers. The following hypothesis is based on the information presented above:

Hypothesis 4. In Mexico, directive, supportive, contingent reward, and charismatic leader behaviors will positively affect mediators and/or outcome measures. Participative leadership and contingent punishment will have no significant effects.

Leadership in the United States

The United States is culturally unique in comparison to the other countries sampled in this study. Hofstede (1980) described the United States as highly individualistic, low on power distance and uncertainty avoidance, and medium on masculinity. Dorfman and Howell (1988) reported the United States as medium on paternalism. These cultural factors make the expected leadership impacts somewhat distinct for the U.S. sample. Also, in contrast to the other cultures sampled for this study, there are clearer lines of leadership research in the United States from which to make predictions.

Supportive leadership has shown consistently strong positive relationships with followers' satisfaction and organizational commitment as well as moderate to strong relationships with followers' role ambiguity and performance in the United States (Indvik, 1986). These findings may reflect the moderate masculinity and low power distance scores for the U.S. culture. Directive leadership has also been important in U.S. organizations,

with meta-analyses reporting strong positive relationships with measures of follower satisfaction and role ambiguity and moderate positive relationships with follower performance (Podsakoff, Tudor, & Schuler, 1983). Yet, these impacts are heavily moderated by many organizational and individual follower characteristics (Yukl, 1994). Kerr and Jermier (1978) suggested that workers who are highly experienced, educated and professional will have less need for traditional directive leader behaviors in carrying out their job tasks. This may be particularly true of the managerial/professional sample in this study. Smith and Peterson (1988) and Hofstede (1980) pointed out that the extremely high individualism in the United States strongly supports participative management processes. For these reasons, we expect *supportive and participative leadership* to have a high degree of impact, but *directive leadership* to have no significant impact on followers in the U.S. sample.

Rewards and punishments contingent on individual performance also reflect the high individualism and high achievement motivation that characterizes U.S. workers (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982). Podsakoff and his associates (1992) have consistently demonstrated positive effects for contingent reward behavior in the United States. Leaders contingent punishment behavior has also demonstrated positive impacts on follower attitudes in several U.S. samples. *Leader contingent reward and punishment behaviors* are therefore expected to have positive impacts in the U.S. sample, although contingent reward will likely have the strongest impact.

Much of the leadership research conducted in the United States in the last decade has focused on charismatic leadership. Numerous books and empirical studies have demonstrated its importance and prevalence at all levels in U.S. organizations (Bass, 1990). The high achievement orientation of U.S. workers, especially managers and professionals, will also likely cause followers to respond well to charismatic leader behaviors. We thus expect *charismatic leader behavior* to be highly impactful in the U.S. sample. The following hypothesis summarizes our predictions for the United States.

Hypothesis 5. In the United States, supportive, contingent reward, contingent punishment, participative, and charismatic leadership will positively affect mediators and/or outcome measures. Directive leadership will have no significant effects.

Table 1 presents the hypothesized leadership effects in each culture along with brief justifications for the various predictions with each leader behavior.

METHOD

Field studies were conducted in each of the five countries to test the hypotheses. The research samples consisted of a total of 1598 managers and professionals of large multinational or national companies located in the United States, Mexico, and the Asian-Pacific Basin. The United States, Mexican, and Taiwanese samples consisted entirely of managers and professionals working in electronics manufacturing operations. Large manufacturing organizations were studied because they represent the primary avenue for economic growth for the Asian-Pacific countries, and they provide intense market competition for U.S. manufacturers. Focusing on managers and professionals allowed us to

Table 1
Hypotheses Regarding Impacts of Leaders Behaviors in Five Countries

Leader Behaviors	*Japan*	*Korea*	*Taiwan*	*Mexico*	*United States*	*Rationale for Predictions*
Directive Leadership	Signif.	Signif.	Signif.	Signif.	Non-signif.	Leader directiveness is impactful in countries with medium to high power distance beliefs (Mexico is high; Korea, Japan, and Taiwan are medium to high). This is reinforced in Korea and Taiwan by strong Confucian beliefs in respect and obedience to leaders and in mexico by a rigid social structure. Japan also has medium/high power distance, and research shows performance emphasis by leaders helps guide workers' commitment to organizational goals. In the United States, high individualism and low power distance are reinforced by strong beliefs in participation, suggesting that directive leadership will have little impact in the U.S. sample.
Supportive Leadership	Signif.	Signif.	Signif.	Signif.	Signif.	Leaders are expected to show concern for followers in all cultures. Support is consistently a part of U.S. leadership models; paternalistic beliefs in Mexico, Japan, Taiwan, and Korea all encourage leader support in these countries.
Leader Contingent Reward	Signif.	Signif.	Signif.	Signif.	Signif.	The individualistic nature of contingent reward behavior seems counter to highly collectivist beliefs in Korea, Taiwan, and Mexico. However, empirical research consistently shows this leader behavior to be important across cultures. Japan is medium on collectivism but Japanese leaders have much control over recognition and symbolic exchange with subordinates. Individualistic nature of United States reinforces contingent reward behavior.
Leader Contingent Punishment	Non-signif. (or negative)	Non-signif.	Signif. (Negative)	Non-signif.	Signif.	High individualism in the United States supports follower expectations for contingent punishment. Japan is medium on collectivism and power distance, but preserving group harmony and saving face in Japan, Taiwan, and South Korea argue against individual punishment. Yet, the strong authoritarian style of supervisors and hierarchicalism in South Korea make predictions about contingent punishment difficult. In Mexico, contrasting forces also operate regarding this leader behavior. High power differences in society argue for the potential impact of this leadership behavior; however, leaders must always maintain respect, dignity for others, and operate in a culturally sensitive manner (simpatico).

Participative Leadership	Signif.	Non-signif.	Non-signif.	Non-signif.	Signif.	High individualism (including the desire to impact organizational processes), low power distance and history argue for participation in the United States. The reverse of these factors argue against participation in Korea, Mexico, and Taiwan. Japan is medium on individualism and power distance but its industrial history since WWII emphasizes high involvement in decision making.
Charismatic Leadership	Non-signif.	Signif.	Non-signif.	Signif.	Signif.	High U.S. individual achievement motivation argues for strong impacts of charismatic leadership. Collectivism in Korea, Taiwan and, to some extent, Japan, runs counter to individual achievement ("no one stands out") and may oppose charisma. Mexico is high in power distance and masculinity with a history of charismatic leaders. In Korea, however, the organizational structure (combined ownership/management) and importance of personal loyalty suggests that charisma might be important at mid-level ranks.

Note: All significant effects are positive unless otherwise indicated.

provide some control for job duties and responsibilities across the cultures. The organizations were matched closely in terms of technological sophistication, organizational goals and structure. The majority of the Japanese and South Korean samples were also engaged in complex manufacturing operations. All respondents were highly skilled and educated, with the majority of each sample having college degrees.

Japan. The Japanese sample was composed of a total of 202 male Japanese nationals, approximately 65% were engaged in manufacturing and 35% were engaged in financial and banking industries. The average age was 42 years, 70% completed college, and the average years of experience were 20 years. Most of the sample represented middle and upper-middle level management.

Taiwan. The Taiwan sample consisted of 428 Taiwanese nationals working for a large U.S. multinational corporation engaged in electronics manufacturing. Seventy-eight percent were male with an average age of approximately 35 years. More than 75% completed college and the average work experience was 11.6 years. A majority of the employees had worked for the same company for more than 6 years and most were at middle or lower levels in the organization.

South Korea. The South Korean sample consisted of 401 South Korean nationals working for several national and multinational South Korean corporations called *Chaebols.* Approximately 60% were employed in electronics manufacturing operations and 40% in financial and banking operations. Eighty-five percent were men with an average age of 32 years. All were professionals and/or managers and 83% were college graduates. The mean amount of work experience was more than 5 years. Most were middle level positions with a significant percentage in entry level positions with 3 or less years of experience.

Mexico. The Mexico sample consisted of 427 Mexican managers and professionals working in U.S. multinational companies as part of the Maquiladora industry in Mexico. The Maquiladora, often called the "twin-plant" industry, is a form of production sharing. Components manufactured in one country such as the United States, South Korea, or Japan are shipped to and assembled in Mexico. Eighty-eight percent of the Mexican sample were male and the average age was 28 years. The Mexican employees had 7.9 years of work experience and two-thirds were college graduates. Most of this sample worked at middle and upper-middle organizational levels.

United States. A total of 140 managers and professionals comprised the U.S. sample. Respondents originated from throughout the United States and were assigned to work in southwestern operations of several international electronics manufacturing firms. Eighty-seven percent were male, they were about the same age as the Japanese sample (mean = 41.5 years) and had a comparable level of work experience (mean = 14.5 years). Fifty-five percent were college graduates and they worked at middle and upper-middle levels in their organizations.

Sample Comparisons. Although the samples were quite homogeneous, some differences were apparent. Respondents from the most industrialized nations, United States, and Japan were older and had more years of experience than those from South Korea, Taiwan, and Mexico. The U.S., Mexico, and Taiwan samples were most closely matched in terms of type of industry and sophistication of manufacturing operations. To ensure that within-sample variations for Japan and South Korea were not substantial, we compared subsamples from the banking and manufacturing sectors—biographical, attitudinal, and

leadership behavior differences were small and insignificant. Also, a supplementary analysis controlling for differences in age and experience (by partialling out these effects) showed that these two factors did not influence the results in this study. A complete analysis of differences may be obtained from the authors.

Measures

The variables included in this study can be classified as predictors, mediators, and outcomes. Biographical data was also collected from all participants.

Biographical Data

Respondents' age, gender, country of citizenship, religion, education, position, functional department, and years of work experience were assessed in the initial part of the questionnaire.

Predictors—Leadership Behaviors

The following six patterns of leadership behavior were measured:

1. Directive—clarifying performance expectations and assigning tasks. This was a modified version of the scale developed by Schriesheim (1978) for use in Path-Goal Theory testing.
2. Supportive—indicating a concern for the welfare of subordinates; showing warmth, respect, and trust. This scale was also developed by Schriesheim (1978).
3. Contingent Reward—developed by Podsakoff and Skov (1980), this scale assesses the degree to which leaders provide praise, positive feedback, and recognition contingent on high performance.
4. Contingent Punishment—voicing displeasure and providing negative feedback contingent on poor performance. This scale was also developed by Podsakoff and Skov (1980).
5. Charisma—inspiring and developing confidence among followers, setting challenging goals, and encouraging high expectations. This scale was modified from scales developed by House (personal communication, 1987) and Yukl (1982) to encompass many of the dimensions in current models of charismatic leadership.
6. Participation—consulting with, asking for suggestions, and obtaining information from subordinates for important decisions. This scale was also modified from scales developed by Yukl and House, and reflects common interpretations of participative leadership in the management literature.

Mediators and Outcome Variables

Mediators in this study (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992) included satisfaction with supervision and satisfaction with work measured by the Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Role ambiguity, an important employee perception that is influenced by leader behaviors, also served as a mediator (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman 1970). Organizational commitment, assessed through the scale developed by Porter and Smith (1970), served as one outcome variable. This scale clearly corresponds to affective commitment. As a second outcome variable, we were able to obtain job performance data

for the U.S. and Mexico samples through company records. In these organizations, sophisticated multidimensional performance appraisal instruments were used to assess participants' job performance. In the South Korean sample, self-reports of the employees' last job performance rating were obtained. It should be noted that this performance measure for South Korea was not a self-assessment but reflected respondents' recall of the most recent performance appraisal. This performance recall procedure has been successfully used in other recent research (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 1992). Job performance data were not available to the researchers in Taiwan and Japan. Privacy issues were paramount in the Taiwanese organization and comparable performance data simply did not exist in the Japanese organizations. This points out one of the many difficulties in conducting cross-cultural research.

Research Procedure

Interview

Our first goal was to learn as much as possible about the management practices, organizational functioning and leadership styles in the five nations examined in the study. This was obviously not difficult for the U.S. sample because all the authors received graduate education in the United States. The Asian and Mexican researchers involved in the project have extensive contact with national and U.S. multinational companies in their respective countries, and they contributed significantly to our understanding of leadership within their cultures. In order to obtain an intuitive understanding of the overt and subtle aspects of leadership in each culture, we conducted interviews with managers, professionals, and academics in each culture. One or both of the U.S. researchers visited each country involved in the project and conducted interviews with the help of our co-researcher representing that specific country. These interviews provided a validity check on the meaningfulness of the leadership constructs used in the questionnaire.

Questionnaire Translation

Several techniques were used to maximize functional and conceptual equivalence of the translated questionnaires. The original questionnaire was translated into Spanish, Korean, Chinese, and Japanese by one or more bilingual researchers intimately familiar with the work environment in that country. Back translation by a different translator helped identify potential misunderstandings. Finally, pretests clarified most remaining problems and misunderstandings. Obviously, a near-perfect translation does not eliminate all threats to conceptual equivalence of constructs, but it should reduce spurious findings due to inappropriate translation.

Questionnaire Administration

Questionnaires were administered in two primary ways. For the most part, respondents completed the questionnaire during normal work hours in small groups of 10 to 20 people in rooms provided by the company. The researcher described the project, assured respondents of anonymity and confidentiality, and remained with the respondents to answer questions. In Japan and South Korea this preferred method could not be used so respondents were first contacted by one of the researchers and were then mailed or given a sealed packet containing the questionnaire. After completion it was mailed or picked up by

the researcher. Participation was voluntary in all cases, and participation rates varied across samples ranging from 50% to 80% of the available employees.

Analysis Strategy

Recall that we proposed a leadership model (Fig. 1) whereby leadership is a significant causal variable that impacts mediating variables, which in turn impact outcome variables. A strong test of our leadership Hypotheses 1 through 5 was possible by using a three-pronged approach to analyzing the data. First, we used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test whether the measurement properties of the leadership variables were similar for all countries. As Jöreskog and Sorbom (1993) note, testing a specified theory using structural modeling may be meaningless unless it is first established that the measurement model holds. Second, we used structural equation modeling (LISREL VII) to test our leadership model *for each country separately*. In this micro-approach we were able to test the general adequacy of the proposed leadership model for each specific country, and in turn, examine the importance of specific leadership behaviors as they impact followers' satisfaction, commitment, and job performance (where available). This part of the analysis enabled us to focus on the aspects of the model most critical to our research—the impact of leadership within each country. Since we were only able to obtain job performance data for the United States, Mexico, and South Korea, we conducted the LISREL analysis for each country twice (with and without the job performance data) to allow for appropriate comparisons among countries.

For the third prong of our analysis strategy, we again employed structural equation modeling (LISREL VII), but now we *simultaneously analyzed the equivalence of path coefficients among the constructs for all 5 countries*. As noted by Earley and Singh (1995), multisample analysis using structural equation modeling is a particularly powerful statistical technique to analyze complicated data sets obtained in international field research projects. This analysis, suggested by James, et al. (1982), is relatively straightforward. Path coefficients that were estimated freely in the "second prong" discussed above for separate country models are imposed as constraints for specific paths on the other countries; significant differences in model adequacy between the "constrained" and "freely estimated models" indicates that the focal path(s) are not equal across countries. Thus, the overall similarities and differences among the five countries can be tested using this procedure. This part of the analysis was also conducted twice for each country (with and without job performance data).

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses Prior to Model Evaluation

Means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of all measures were computed for each sample (Table 2). Reliabilities for the leadership, mediator, and outcome measures were generally very good (Chronbach alphas in the .80 to .95 range). Approximately one-third of the reliabilities were lower, but still in the acceptable range (.68 to .79). Item/scale correlations were calculated for all leader behavior scales within each sample. In no case did any item correlate negatively with a scale score. These reliabilities and item/scale correlations, along with confirmatory and exploratory factor analyses which are discussed

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities

	Japan			*Korea*			*Taiwan*			*Mexico*			*United States*		
Variables	*M*	*SD*	α	*M*	*SD*	α	*M*	*SD*	α	*M*	*SD*	α	*M*	*SD*	α
Leadership Behaviors															
Directive	4.21	1.13	.68	4.20	1.25	.88	5.33	1.18	.87	4.93	1.52	.87	4.51	1.58	.90
Supportive	4.59	.97	.79	4.27	1.09	.88	4.87	1.19	.86	5.32	1.36	.89	5.08	1.38	.92
Contingent Reward	5.06	1.08	.95	4.53	1.09	.92	4.57	1.45	.94	4.83	1.41	.91	4.47	1.53	.96
Contingent Punishment	4.12	1.21	.76	4.47	1.05	.76	5.28	1.10	.79	5.20	1.39	.80	5.17	1.17	.87
Participative	4.18	1.05	.89	4.26	1.14	.91	4.63	1.37	.93	4.46	1.48	.92	4.70	1.40	.94
Charismatic	4.82	1.01	.87	4.37	1.14	.92	5.07	1.40	.93	4.70	1.35	.90	4.78	1.34	.92
Mediators															
Role Ambiguity	1.83	.56	.80	2.24	.69	.77	1.96	.61	.75	1.73	.53	.70	2.12	.77	.84
Satisfaction with Work	2.09	.53	.79	3.52[a]	.72	.87	2.04	.74	.88	2.33	.49	.75	2.20	.60	.75
Satisfaction with Supv.	2.20	.51	.79	3.08[a]	.77	.93	2.19	.62	.87	2.18	.63	.84	2.26	.80	.83
Outcome															
Org. Commitment	4.87	.75	.75	4.69	1.02	.86	5.39	.88	.86	4.92	1.08	.89	4.92	1.10	.91

Notes: N for Japan = 202; N for Korea = 401; N for Taiwan = 434; N for Mexico = 429; N for U.S. = 140.

[a]Satisfaction with work and satisfaction with supervision for Korea was measured with items from the MSQ that matched the content of items from the JDI.

shortly, provide evidence for cross-cultural coherence of leadership constructs (Smith, et al., 1989). Although not central to the analysis, correlation matrices are provided in the Appendix.

Social desirability (SD), the tendency of individuals to present themselves in a favorable light, may be a particularly troublesome response bias in cross-cultural research (Randall, Huo, & Pawelk, 1993). This potential bias may mask significant relationships between two variables (a suppressor effect), provide a false correlation (a spurious effect), or moderate the relationship between two variables (a moderator effect; Ganster, Hennessey, & Luthans, 1983). The net effect may be to confound the interpretation of research results across cultures. To control for this potential biasing effect, we replicated LISREL analyses by using SD as an exogenous factor to represent response bias within each country. While some changes were evident when modeling SD as an exogenous factor, no conclusions of our study were changed.

Measurement Models

As noted previously when describing the overall analysis strategy, we first used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test whether the measurement properties of the leadership variables were similar for all countries. Two issues are apparent: the measurement model must hold within a specified country and it must be similar across countries. For instance, given that our leadership scales are fairly standard, we might predict that the measurement model will hold for the U.S. sample. However, there may be similarities and differences in the measurement model when applied to cultures that differ markedly from our own. Items not loading similarly across cultures may occur because of inappropriate translation or may have a unique meaning in the comparison culture (Janssens, Brett, & Smith, 1995).

Ideally, all leadership items should be included in a single CFA. However, as the number of items becomes large (over 40), a single analysis becomes impractical because the LISREL procedure may not produce a solution. This may be particularly true when using CFA for multiple group analysis as in the present project. Given that we have 51 leadership items, the following compromise was employed. We used CFA for each leadership construct separately in each country, then determined whether the factor structure remained invariant across countries.[1]

Results indicated that the measurement models for 4 of the 6 leadership scales within each country were very good. After careful inspection of the models for the two problem scales, we deleted all reverse scored items. This procedure significantly improved the measurement models for these two scales. All the leader behaviors then showed acceptable convergent validity, with each item being significantly related to its predicted leadership behavior. Ninety three percent of the fit indices (using the modified normed fit index 2 and the Tucker-Lewis Index) exceeded .90 for the within country measurement models. Values close to or exceeding .90 reflect a good fit (Schumacher & Lomax, 1996).

We then conducted a multisample confirmatory factor analysis to test the invariance of all leadership scales across the five countries. A similar approach for testing construct equivalence in cross-cultural research was employed by Riordan and Vandenberg (1994). This was carried out by comparing a multisample measurement model where the factor loadings were freely estimated in each country with another model containing loadings that

were constrained as equal to those of a specific country. Comparison of freely estimated and constrained models showed that the factor loadings were equal across the five countries for five of the six leadership scales. The single problematic scale was for directive leadership. Further analysis identified two additional problem items on this scale. After deleting these items for directive leadership, the resulting measurement models also showed equal factor loadings across the five countries.

The CFA procedure specified above could not provide evidence regarding the discriminant validity of the leadership constructs. To this end, exploratory factor analyses were also conducted on the leadership scales in each country using principal components extraction with varimax rotation. We were satisfied with the discriminant validity for four of the leadership scales within each country—directive, participative, charismatic, and contingent punishment scales approximated the goal of simple structure (Thurstone, 1947). The notable exceptions to an unambiguous interpretation of leadership scales occurred with supportiveness and contingent reward for the Asian samples. Cross loadings of items were more common than is desirable for simple structure. To be consistent with earlier research, the remainder of the analyses included separate leadership support and contingent reward scales.

Model Evaluation for 5 Country Analysis: Individual Causal Models of Leadership Predicting Attitudes and Perceptions

After confirmation of the measurement models, the remaining analysis of the study consisted of two additional phases. We started by determining the viability of the syncretic conceptual leadership model for *each* country analyzed separately (illustrated by Fig. 2).

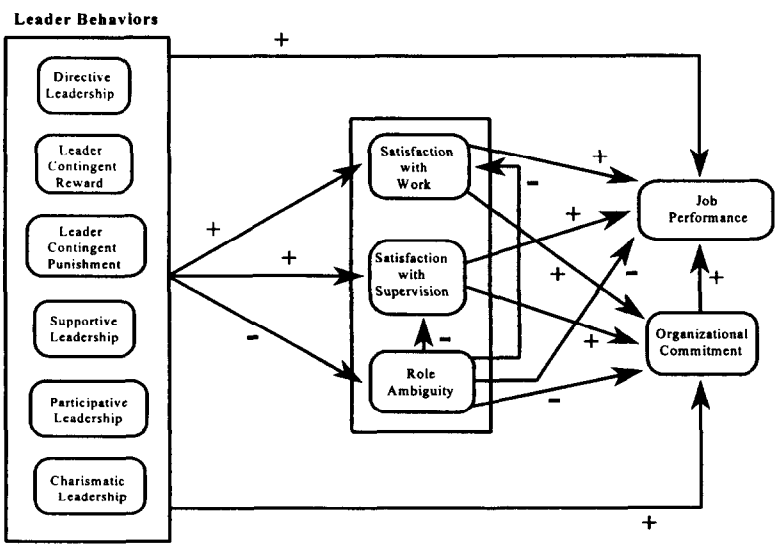

Figure 2. Theoretical Leadership Model

Table 3A
Individual Causal Models for Five Countries Predicting Attitudes and Perceptions

Country	$\chi^2(diff)^a$	*df*	*AGFI*	*RMSR*	*NFI2*	*PFI2*	*TLI*
Japan	23.98	21	.880	.028	.963	.706	.949
Taiwan	16.34	13	.915	.020	.988	.460	.967
Korea	17.09	18	.954	.020	.970	.614	.955
Mexico	37.01[b]	16	.947	.026	.971	.550	.947
United States	21.62	19	.864	.041	.940	.627	.907

Table 3B
Individual Causal Models for Three Countries Predicting Attitudes, Perceptions and Job Performance

Country	$\chi^2(diff)^a$	*df*	*AGFI*	*RMSR*	*NFI2*	*PFI2*	*TLI*
Korea	39.26	27	.943	.030	.955	.669	.936
Mexico	16.87	25	.912	.063	.989	.643	.983
United States	30.57	28	.918	.076	.947	.687	.926

Notes: χ^2 = chi square; *df* = degrees of freedom; AGFI = adjusted goodness-of-fit index; RMSR = root mean square residual; NFI2 = normed fit index 2; PFI2 = parsimonious fit index 2; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index.

[a]χ^2(diff) = the difference in χ^2 values between the accepted "Parsimonious trimmed model" and the original "Theoretical model."

[b]This is the only causal model where we cannot accept the "Trimmed model" based on χ^2 analysis ($p \leq .05$). However, all the other fit indices showed a good fit for the "Trimmed model."

At this stage, we were testing whether the data supported the role of the leader behaviors as causal variables affecting mediators and outcomes and how these relationships were manifested within each culture. A covariance matrix for each country was used as input to LISREL VII (Jöreskog & Sorbom, 1989) for model evaluation. The model parameters were estimated following the procedure used by Williams and Hazer (1986). The following goodness-of-fit indices were used to evaluate the overall fit of each model: Chi-square statistics; the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI); the root mean square residuals (RMSR); the modified normed-fit index (NFI2); the parsimonious-fit index (PFI2); and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). As noted by Williams and Hazer (1986), "these measures represent the difference between the correlation matrix predicted by the model and one actually obtained in the sample" (p. 226).

Recall that the original conceptual model was completely specified in Fig. 2 for structural equation modeling purposes. In general, the results using the fit indices provided *strong* support for the conceptual leadership model tested in each country. As is common practice in testing nested models such as ours, we trimmed each of the "original theoretical models" by eliminating nonsignificant paths and tested the fit of this trimmed model. Results of employing this procedure were *very* good in all countries as indicated by improvements in the parsimonious fit index (PFI2) when comparing the newly trimmed model to the "original theoretical model" (see Table 3). Furthermore, all TLI and NFI2 indices for the trimmed models were above .90. The final accepted models for each country are shown in Figs. 3 through 10 (details of the analytical modeling strategy are further

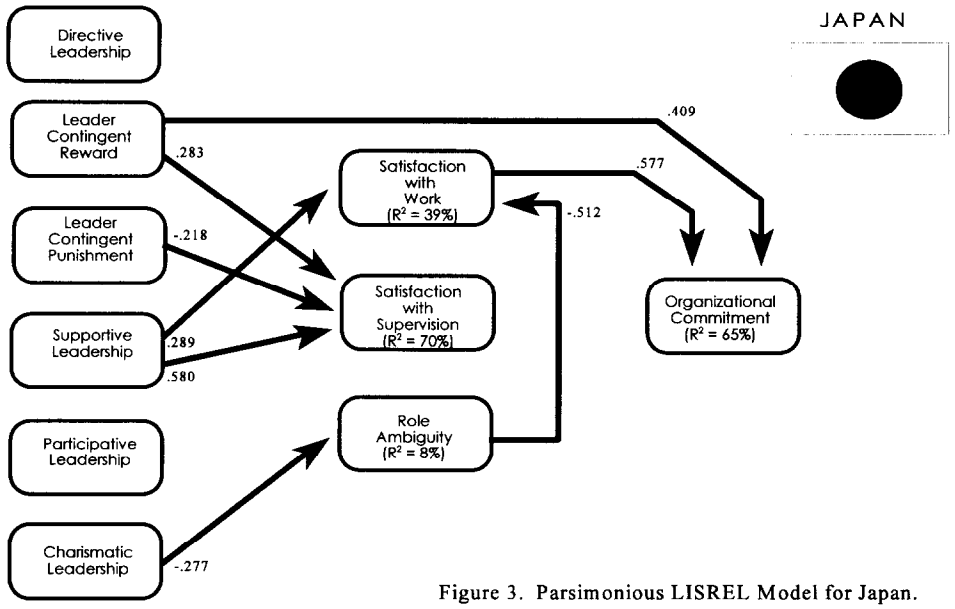

Figure 3. Parsimonious LISREL Model for Japan.

described in Footnote 2). It is with the "accepted parsimonious models" that we discuss specific tests of hypotheses regarding the effectiveness of specific leadership behaviors. The results are presented separately for each sample.

Results in Japan

Two of the four predictions of significant positive effects were supported—*supportive leadership* increased satisfaction with supervision and satisfaction with work; *contingent reward behavior* increased satisfaction with supervision and organizational commitment (Fig. 3). Also as predicted, *contingent punishment* had a negative impact on satisfaction with supervision. *Participative and directive* leadership were not impactful in the Japanese sample (counter to our predictions). Also counter to our prediction, *charismatic leadership* did significantly reduce subordinates' role ambiguity. Note that supportive leadership and contingent reward behaviors both had multiple significant paths and strong effect sizes. For this and all subsequent LISREL figures, the amount of variance accounted for in each criterion is indicated within the figure by showing the coefficient of determination (R^2).

Results in South Korea

Hypothesis 2 for South Korea was supported for three of four predictions of significant effects (see Fig. 4). Contingent reward behavior improved satisfaction with work; *supportive leadership* increased satisfaction with supervision and reduced role ambiguity. *Charismatic leadership* improved satisfaction with supervision and organizational commitment. Also as predicted, *contingent punishment* had no effects. Counter to our

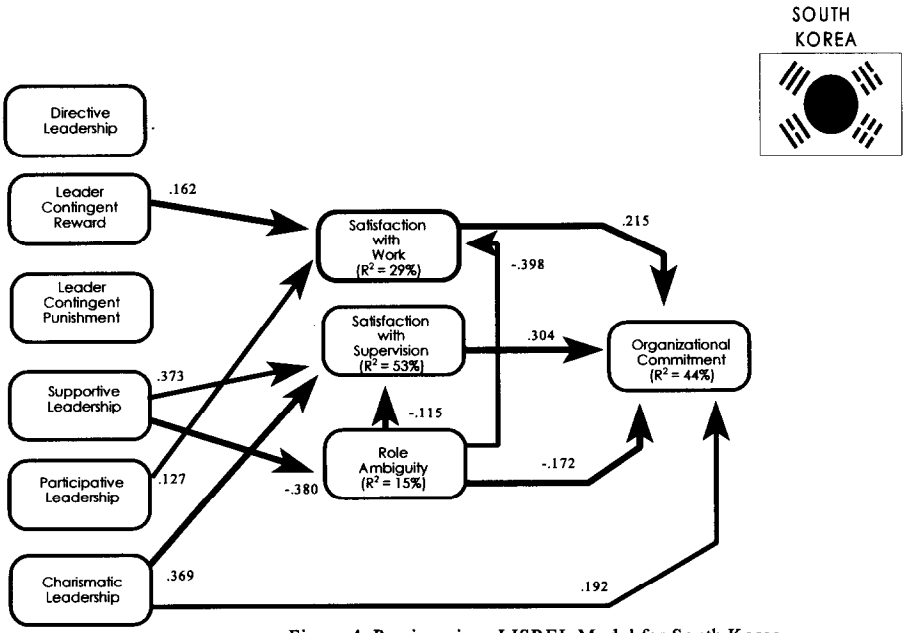

Figure 4. Parsimonious LISREL Model for South Korea.

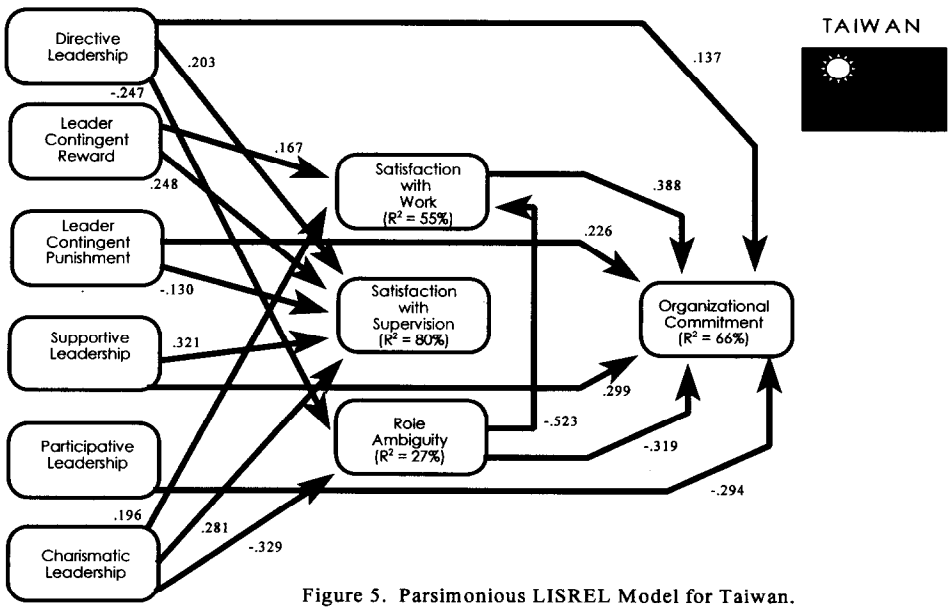

Figure 5. Parsimonious LISREL Model for Taiwan.

predictions, *participative leadership* slightly improved satisfaction with work and *directive leadership* had no effects. Charismatic and supportive leadership both had multiple significant paths and strong effect sizes.

Results in Taiwan

All six leader behaviors had significant effects in Taiwan, although the three leader behaviors predicted to be significant in Hypothesis 3 were among the strongest impacts (see Fig. 5). *Leader directiveness* increased satisfaction with supervision and organizational commitment and decreased role ambiguity; *contingent reward behavior* increased satisfaction with work and supervision; and *supportive leadership* increased satisfaction with supervision and organizational commitment. Although *contingent punishment* had a negative impact on satisfaction with supervision (as predicted), it had a positive affect on organizational commitment (not as predicted). Contrary to expectations, *charismatic leadership* increased satisfaction with work and supervision and decreased role ambiguity. The effect of *participative leadership* was most interesting as it had a significant *negative* impact on organizational commitment. Perhaps also noteworthy, Taiwan was the only country where all leader behaviors were impactful.

Results in Mexico

Results in Mexico supported predictions for the leader behaviors expected to have a positive effect (see Fig. 6). *Directive leadership* increased organizational commitment and decreased role ambiguity; *contingent reward behavior* increased organizational commitment; *supportive leadership* increased satisfaction with supervision, organizational

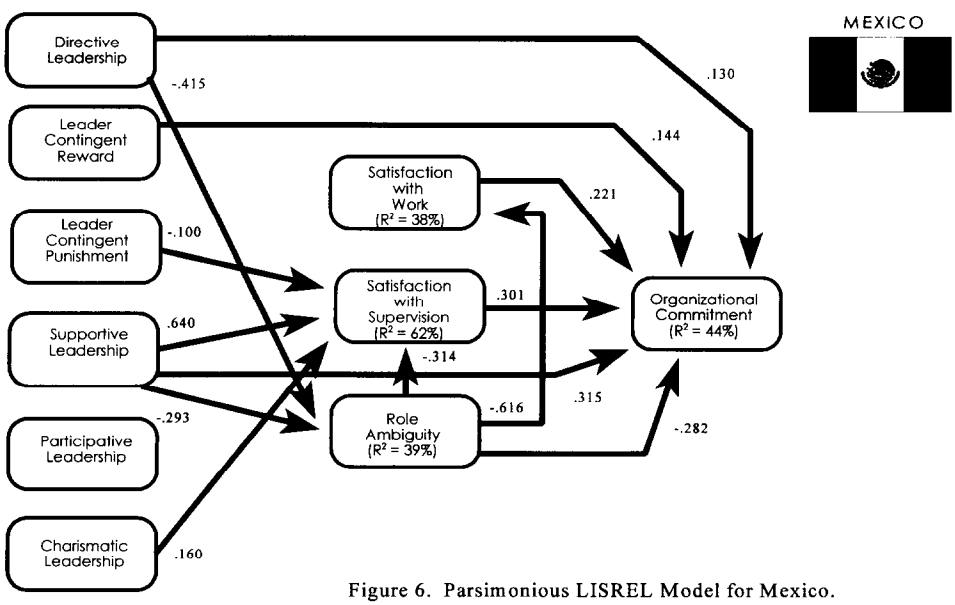

Figure 6. Parsimonious LISREL Model for Mexico.

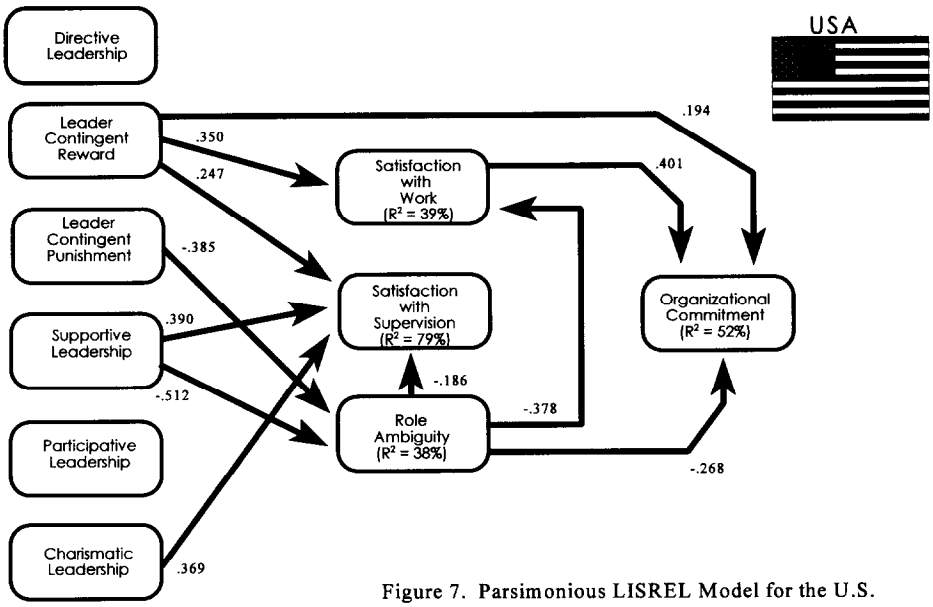

Figure 7. Parsimonious LISREL Model for the U.S.

commitment, and decreased role ambiguity. *Charismatic leadership* increased satisfaction with supervision. Directive and supportive leadership had strong impacts as did charismatic leadership and contingent reward. The effect of *participative leadership* was nonsignificant as predicted. *Contingent punishment* yielded a significant negative effect (on satisfaction with supervision) when we predicted no effect. Hypothesis 4 was thus supported for 5 of the 6 leader behaviors.

Results in the United States

The predictions for hypothesis 5 were supported for five of the six leader behaviors (Fig. 7), providing strong support for this hypothesis in the United States. *Contingent reward behavior* increased organizational commitment and satisfaction with work and supervision; *contingent punishment behavior* decreased role ambiguity; *supportive leadership* increased satisfaction with supervision and decreased role ambiguity; and *charismatic leadership* increased satisfaction with supervision. As expected, *directive leadership* had no impact. *Participative leadership* also had no impact, contrary to predictions. Supportive, charismatic, contingent reward, and leaders' contingent punishment all had strong effects. Note that contingent punishment significantly decreased subordinates' role ambiguity without the negative effects found in several other countries.

Model Evaluation for 3 Country Analysis: Individual Causal Models of Leadership Predicting Attitudes, Perceptions and Job Performance

Discussion of this analysis will be confined to findings that differ from prior analysis of models not containing job performance data.

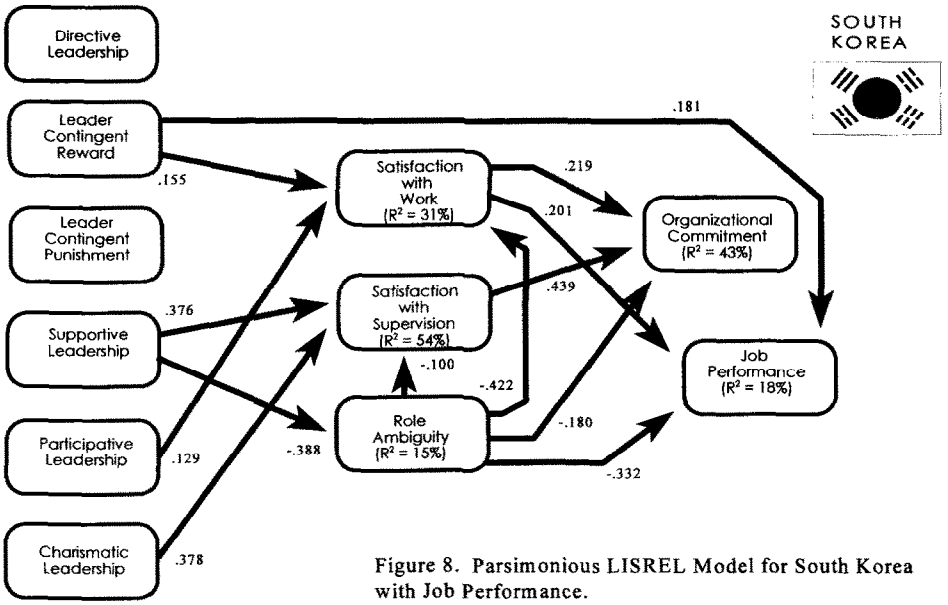

Figure 8. Parsimonious LISREL Model for South Korea with Job Performance.

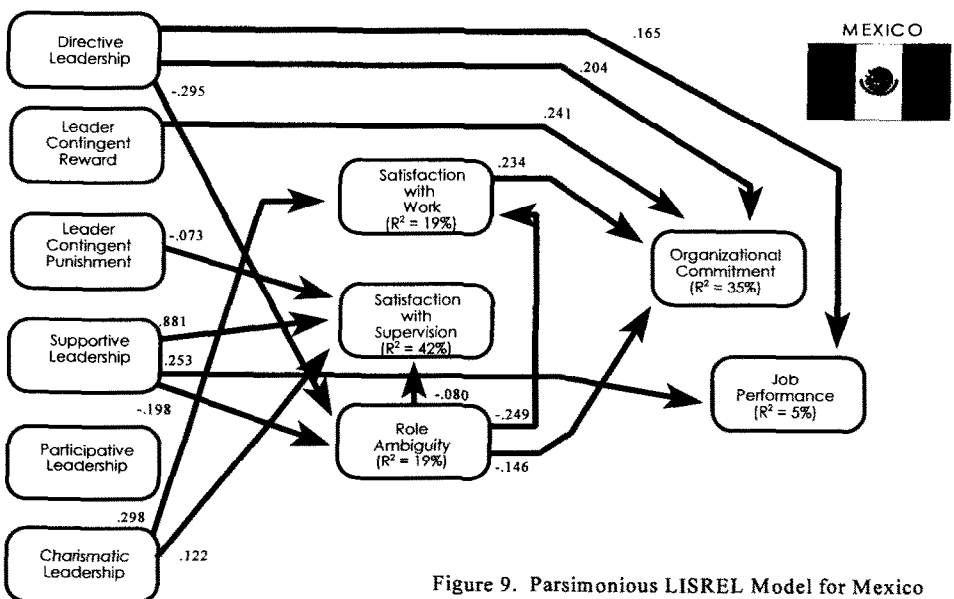

Figure 9. Parsimonious LISREL Model for Mexico with Job Performance.

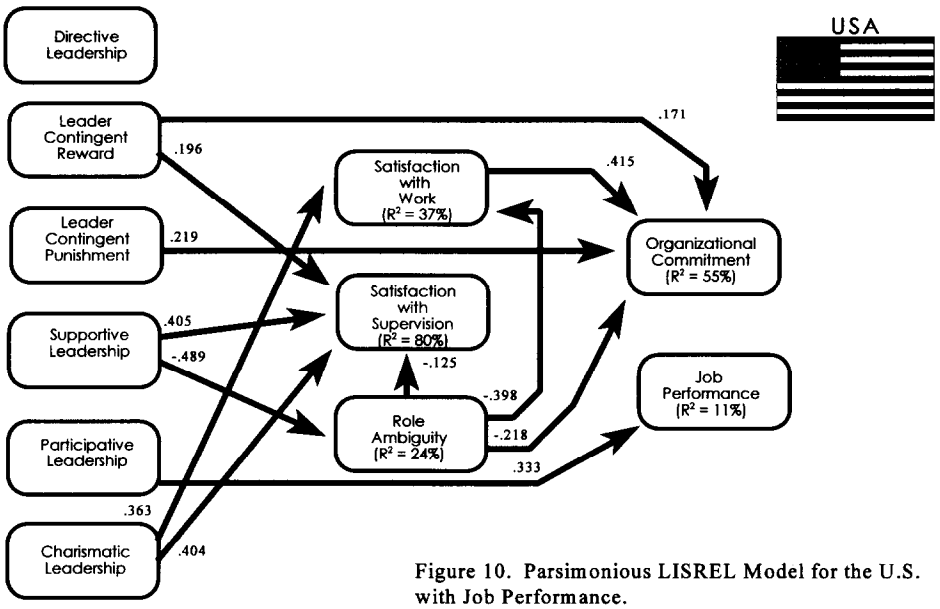

Figure 10. Parsimonious LISREL Model for the U.S. with Job Performance.

Results in South Korea

Two changes should be noted when contrasting the previous analysis (shown in Fig. 4) with the present analysis (including job performance; Fig. 8). *Contingent reward* picked up an additional significant path, as it affected job performance in addition to affecting satisfaction with work. The only other change occurred with *charismatic leadership* in that it did not predict organizational commitment in the model with job performance.

Results in Mexico

The results for the analysis including job performance as an outcome measure (Fig. 9) are similar to the results without this additional criterion (Fig. 6). *Charismatic leadership* became more influential as this leader behavior influenced satisfaction with work in addition to the previously determined impact on satisfaction with supervision. *Supportive leadership*, which was extremely influential in the previous analysis, now also affects job performance. The two prior positive effects of *directive leadership* were unchanged, and an additional positive effect occurred between this leader behavior and job performance.

Results in the United States

In contrasting the previous analysis (without job performance, Fig. 7) and the present analysis (Fig. 10), several changes should be noted. Foremost among the changes is that *participative leadership* now has a strong positive affect on job performance. This result adds support for Hypothesis 5 which stated that participative leadership should be an

influential leadership behavior. In addition, *charismatic leadership* also proves to be more influential as it has an additional impact; it affects satisfaction with work in addition to having an impact on satisfaction with supervision. *Leader contingent reward* behavior continued to be a significant positive predictor, although the path from contingent reward to satisfaction with work dropped out in the model with job performance. *Leader contingent punishment* continued to have a beneficial effect, but the effect was to increase organizational commitment rather than to decrease role ambiguity.

Model Evaluations: Simultaneous Analysis of 5 Countries Predicting Attitudes and Perceptions

For the next phase of analysis, we conducted multisample structural equation modeling to test for the overall equality of paths among the countries. As discussed previously, χ^2 values were obtained for separate country models where the hypothesized path coefficients were estimated freely without any restriction of equality across countries. The test of equality proceeds by using any freely estimated path(s) from one country and subsequently imposing an equality constraint for this path(s) on the other countries. Significant differences in the χ^2 values between the first combined χ^2 (with freely estimated path coefficients) and the second χ^2 (with constrained path coefficients) indicates that the focal path(s) are not equal across countries. As might be expected from our previous discussion of the separate causal models for each country, the *overall test for equivalence* across five countries rejected the equivalence hypothesis (χ^2 difference with 116 df = 375.32; $p < .05$). Furthermore, significant inequalities were found when testing for equivalence of paths from all leader behaviors (in the aggregate) to mediators and outcomes (χ^2 difference with 96 df = 274.94; $p < .01$) as well as relationships among criteria (χ^2 difference with 20 df = 60.50; $p < .05$). *These results provide strong evidence that leadership processes, when considered in totality, are different across countries.*

The same analytical strategy can be employed to test for equivalence of *specific* leader behavior-criteria paths across countries. Results for the five country comparison for specific leadership and criterion paths are shown in Table 4. An example may clarify how this table should be interpreted. By examining the first row in Table 4, we note that only two paths from directive leadership to organizational commitment were significant (i.e., for Mexico and Taiwan). The simultaneous analysis indicated a significant χ^2 difference value of 10.59 between the unrestricted model and a model using a constrained path (using the U.S. path as the "constrained" value for this path in all countries). The equality hypothesis is thus rejected thereby signaling that there are significant differences on this path across the five countries.

We can summarize the results for the influence of specific leader behaviors in the following manner. When examining the specific leader behavior-criteria paths in Table 4, it is obvious that the most significant differences among countries occurred with *directive leadership*. This leader behavior was influential in reducing role ambiguity in Mexico and Taiwan, but not in the United States, South Korea, or Japan. It also had varying influence with respect to organizational commitment—only models for Mexico and Taiwan obtainced significant results with this criterion. This leader behavior also affected satisfaction with supervision in Taiwan only. *Supportive leadership* influences satisfaction with supervision in all five countries, but path coefficient sizes are different. The effects of supportive

Table 4
Simultaneous Analysis: Standardized Leader Behavior-Criteria Path Coefficients for Five-Country Comparison

Path		*Country*					
Leader Behavior	*Criteria*	*United States*	*Mexico*	*Japan*	*Korea*	*Taiwan*	χ^2*(Diff)*
Directive Leadership	ORGCOM	ns	.130*	ns	ns	.137*	10.59*
	SATWORK	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
	SATSUP	ns	ns	ns	ns	.203*	32.79*
	ROLAM	ns	−.415*	ns	ns	−.247*	19.31*
Leader Contingent Reward	ORGCOM	.194*	.144*	.409*	ns	ns	ns
	SATWORK	.350*	ns	ns	.162*	.167*	24.60*
	SATSUP	.247*	ns	.283*	ns	.248*	ns[a]
	ROLAM	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Leader Contingent Punishment	ORGCOM	ns	ns	ns	ns	.226*	ns
	SATWORK	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
	SATSUP	ns	−.100*	−.218*	ns	−.130*	ns
	ROLAM	−.385*	ns	ns	ns	ns	20.32*
Supportive Leadership	ORGCOM	ns	.315*	ns	ns	.299*	ns[a]
	SATWORK	ns	ns	.289*	ns	ns	ns
	SATSUP	.309*	.640*	.580*	.373*	.321*	28.16*
	ROLAM	−.512*	−.293*	ns	−.380*	ns	10.02*
Participative Leadership	ORGCOM	ns	ns	ns	ns	−.294*	ns
	SATWORK	ns	ns	ns	.127*	ns	ns
	SATSUP	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
	ROLAM	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Charismatic Leadership	ORGCOM	ns	ns	ns	.192*	ns	ns
	SATWORK	ns	ns	ns	ns	.196*	ns
	SATSUP	.369*	.160*	ns	.369*	.281*	13.00*
	ROLAM	ns	ns	−.277*	ns	−.329*	ns[a]

Notes: Numbers in table are standardized path coefficients for leadership models. χ^2 (diff) equals the difference in χ^2 values between the model in which a particular path was freely estimated and the model in which that path was held *invariant* across five countries. (ORGCOM = organizational commitment; SATWORK = satisfaction with work; SATSUP = satisfaction with supervision; ROLAM = role ambiguity).

*$p \leq .05$; *ns* = nonsignificant.

[a]It should be noted that particular path coefficients may be significant for one country but not for another when examining each LISREL structural model separately. But the simultaneous tests of differences across countries using the χ^2 test may not pick up these apparent differences. Another possibility is that a specific path may be nonsignificant in each separate structural model, but produce a significant χ^2 value in the simultaneous test of differences across countries. These results occasionally occur with other commonly used statistics such as the overall *F*-test for Anova and Manova analysis.

leadership on satisfaction with supervision are strongest in Mexico and Japan. *Charismatic leadership* influences satisfaction with supervision in all countries with the exception of Japan. The largest effects of this leader behavior on satisfaction with supervision was for South Korea and the United States. Although the χ^2 tests indicated some significant differences across countries for *contingent reward*, the effects of contingent reward were uniformly positive in all countries. With respect to the effects of *contingent punishment*, the simultaneous analysis indicated that the effects on role ambiguity differed across countries.

Model Evaluations: Simultaneous Analysis of 3 Countries Predicting Attitudes, Perceptions, and Job Performance

Simultaneous analysis of causal models including the job performance data indicated non-equivalence among the countries. The overall test for equivalence across countries rejected the equivalence hypothesis (χ^2 difference with 78 df = 454.56; $p < .05$). Furthermore, significant inequalities were found when testing for equivalence of paths from all leader behaviors (in the aggregate) to mediators and outcomes (χ^2 difference with 60 df = 207.06; $p < .05$) as well as relationships among criteria (χ^2 difference with 18 df = 267.76; $p < .05$). These results again confirm our generic hypothesis that leadership processes differ across countries.

The results for these models are shown in Table 5 and are similar to the results previously discussed for Table 4 (without the job performance data). The major difference between models with and without job performance occurred with respect to participative leadership. The effects of *participative leadership* on job performance are different across countries; positive in the United States and nonsignificant in South Korea and Mexico. As before, supportive and charismatic leadership positively influence satisfaction with supervision in these three countries. Path sizes vary, however, as indicated by the χ^2 values in Table 5. Also as before, the effects of *supportive leadership* on satisfaction with supervision are strongest in Mexico. Supportive leadership also showed a significant impact on job performance in Mexico only. The largest effect of *charismatic leadership* on satisfaction with supervision is with the United States and South Korea. The χ^2 tests indicated no significant differences across countries for *contingent reward* behaviors.

DISCUSSION

Leadership Across Cultures

The results of this study in two Western and three Asian cultures support Bass's (1990) contention regarding the validity of both the "universal" and the "culture specific" perspectives in the study of leadership across cultures. *Of six leader behaviors derived from popular contingency based leadership theories, three behaviors (leader supportiveness, contingent reward, and charismatic) showed universally positive impacts in all five cultures; and three leader behaviors (participativeness, directiveness, and contingent punishment) had positive impacts in only two cultures.* The impact of contingent punishment was most unique among leader behaviors as it had a completely desirable effect only in the United States, but equivocal or undesirable effects in other countries. Overall,

Table 5
Simultaneous Analysis: Standardized Path Leader Behavior-Criteria Coefficients for Three-Country Comparison

Path		*Country*			
Leader Behavior	*Criteria*	*United States*	*Mexico*	*Korea*	χ^2*(Diff)*
Directive Leadership	JPTOT	ns	165*	ns	ns
	ORGCOM	ns	.204*	ns	ns
	SATWORK	ns	ns	ns	ns
	SATSUP	ns	ns	ns	ns
	ROLAM	ns	–.295*	ns	12.30*
Leader Contingent Reward	JPTOT	ns	ns	.181*	ns
	ORGCOM	.171*	.241*	ns	ns
	SATWORK	ns	ns	.155*	ns
	SATSUP	.196*	ns	ns	ns
	ROLAM	ns	ns	ns	ns
Leader Contingent Punishment	JPTOT	ns	ns	ns	ns
	ORGCOM	.219*	ns	ns	ns
	SATWORK	ns	ns	ns	ns
	SATSUP	ns	–.073*	ns	ns
	ROLAM	ns	ns	ns	6.92*[a]
Supportive Leadership	JPTOT	ns	.253*	ns	15.70*
	ORGCOM	ns	ns	ns	10.34*[a]
	SATWORK	ns	ns	ns	ns
	SATSUP	.405*	.881*	.376*	9.14*
	ROLAM	–.489*	–.198*	–.388*	ns
Participative Leadership	JPTOT	.333*	ns	ns	21.45*
	ORGCOM	ns	ns	ns	ns
	SATWORK	ns	ns	.129*	ns
	SATSUP	ns	ns	ns	ns
	ROLAM	ns	ns	ns	ns
Charismatic Leadership	JPTOT	ns	ns	ns	ns
	ORGCOM	ns	ns	ns	ns
	SATWORK	.363*	.298*	ns	ns
	SATSUP	.404*	.122*	.378*	9.17*
	ROLAM	ns	ns	ns	ns

Notes: Numbers in table are standardized path coefficients for leadership models. χ^2 (diff) equals the difference in χ^2 between the model in which a particular path was freely estimated and the model in which that path was held *invariant* across three countries. JPTOT = job performance; ORGCOM = organizational commitment; SATWORK = satisfaction with work; SATSUP = satisfaction with supervision; ROLAM = role ambiguity).

[a] Similar to the results in Table 4, nonsignificant paths for each structural model may still produce a significant χ^2 value for simultaneous test of differences across countries.

results from the independent and simultaneous tests supported our original "syncretic leadership model" which guided this study of individuals in different cultures.

The universality of leader supportiveness and contingent reward behavior are not surprising when one considers their specific content. Supportive leaders show concern for followers and are considerate and available to listen to followers' problems. Contingent rewarding leaders show appreciation for followers' good performance and provide recognition and compliments. The correlation between these two behaviors was .65 or above in all five cultures (leaders who are concerned and considerate are also often seen as appreciative and complimentary), and there was overlap between these two behavior patterns in the factor analyses for the three Asian cultures. A leader who demonstrates supportive kindness and concern for followers is clearly valued and impactful in all the cultures (Bennett, 1977; Misumi & Peterson, 1985a; Yukl, 1994). Reward systems in collectivist cultures are usually described as group oriented (Hofstede, 1980; Bond & Hwang, 1986), but apparently performance contingent social rewards by the leader are individualized even in collectivist cultures with very positive results. These findings support the results by Fahr, Podsakoff and Cheng (1987) that leader contingent reward behavior is a highly effective culture-free leadership pattern.

The universality of charismatic leadership was not expected. This leader behavior is emotional in nature and had its most consistent effects on subordinate satisfaction measures across cultures. It appears that charismatic leadership results in positive subordinate attitudes among mid-level managers and professionals in all the cultures studied. We should note that charismatic leadership *did not* affect follower performance in the three countries where performance data was available.

The impacts of leaders' directive, participative, and contingent punishment behaviors were culture specific. Directive leadership had no impact in the United States, Japan, and South Korea. We expected the extremely high individualism and low/medium power distance of the U.S. culture, combined with the participative climate common among highly educated professionals and managers in U.S. organizations, to at least partially *neutralize* the effects of leaders' directiveness. This apparently occurred, making directiveness the only leader behavior that was not impactful in the U.S. sample. Although the lack of impact of leader directiveness in Japan is not consistent with findings by Misumi and Peterson (1985b), it might be explained by tendencies of Japanese managers to outline general objectives and to allow subordinates to use their own approaches to achieve those objectives. We have no explanation for the lack of impact of directiveness in South Korea. For Taiwan, the results showing a high impact of directive leadership in the LISREL analysis are mirrored when examining the high *level* of directive leadership displayed. This leader behavior had the highest level of all leader behaviors (i.e., mean scale score) in Taiwan, and it was considerably higher than in any other country in our sample. These findings are consistent with the review of leadership studies in Taiwan by Bond and Hwang (1986). As expected, leader directiveness was a very important leader behavior in the status conscious and high power distance culture of Mexico.

Participative leadership had positive effects in the United States and South Korea. Our participation scale included items such as asking followers for suggestions, giving consideration to followers' inputs, and modifying proposals in light of follower objections. These items resulted in predictable positive responses in the United States. In fact, participative leadership in the U.S. sample was the strongest predictor of follower

performance in the entire study. In addition, the *level* of participation displayed by supervisors in the United States was the highest of all samples. Although not predicted, a positive impact of participation on subordinate satisfaction was found in South Korea. This may be explained by the increasing tendency of South Korean managers to make decisions with the consultation of subordinates (Chen, 1995). This process involves informal consensus formation (*sajeonhyupui*) and is similar to *nemawashi* in Japan. We should note, however, that openly sharing information and expressing opinions in a work environment is difficult for many South Koreans.

Participation was also predicted to have no positive impacts in Taiwan and Mexico due to their military histories emphasizing strong central leadership and their low individualism (high collectivism) which discourages individual desires to impact organizational processes. These predictions were supported. Taiwanese managers tend to carefully control information, use authoritarian decision styles, and maintain power distances with their subordinates. In Mexico, the lack of a firm structure for participation, high collectivism, and lack of trust make participative leadership ineffective.

We did predict participation to be impactful in Japan which is known for high worker involvement (*nemawashi*) and group decision-making (*ringi seido*) (Chen, 1995; Ronen, 1986). In hindsight, perhaps we should have expected that because the type of worker involvement practiced in Japan is different from the type of participative leadership practiced in the United States, results would also differ. In our discussions with Japanese managers, they pointed out that in Japan managers turn problems over to their groups and let the group solve them. The leader will ask to hear the group's solution before implementation, but the problem belongs to the group. The leader facilitates the group's efforts. In the United States, problems are typically the responsibility of a manager who may solicit input and suggestions from followers to help him/her solve it. In the United States, the group's input may be used at the discretion of the leader; in Japan the leader's input may be used at the discretion of the group. We believe these widely different cultural perspectives on worker involvement are responsible for the nonsignificant finding for our participation measure in Japan. Not only did our measure of leader participation have no impact on worker attitudes or perceptions in Japan, the *level* of participative leader behaviors shown by Japanese managers was also low. We expect that this topic of participation/worker involvement will be a particularly interesting area for cross-cultural management research in the future. The Vroom-Yetton-Jago model of participative decision making (Vroom & Jago, 1988) may be a useful theoretic approach to guide an exploration of different styles of participative leadership in Western and Asian cultures.

The significant positive impact of leaders' contingent punishment behavior was predicted in the United States where giving feedback to individual followers (positive and negative) is emphasized in management training. The negative impact of this leader behavior on subordinate satisfaction in Mexico and Japan gives empirical support to Riding's (1985) opinion that Mexicans are more Asian than Western in philosophy—Mexico's high collectivism is comparable to that of many Asian cultures (Hofstede, 1980). The negative effect of contingent punishment also conforms to what we expected in Japan. In Japanese organizations, individualized negative feedback is usually withheld or done with much subtlety to maintain group harmony and face saving. Japanese managers describe "by the window people" who are slowly shunted toward increasingly menial tasks if they continue

to perform poorly. The Japanese stood out in their low *level* of contingent punishment behavior—the lowest of all samples and the lowest of all leader behaviors in Japan.

Methodological Issues

While no research project is perfect, cross-cultural research studies are fraught with problems. Peng, Peterson and Shyi (1991) make a useful point, however, in suggesting that cross-cultural comparisons with perfectly matched samples and precise construct equivalence are probably impossible. However, as with any study that uses questionnaire methodology, the issue of common method variance should be considered. In the present study we used self-report data for our attitudinal measures because satisfaction and commitment represent unique responses of individuals and, therefore, lend themselves to this type of assessment. Measures of leadership behaviors obtained by leader behavior description questionnaires are somewhat problematic (Lord & Maher, 1991), but strong evidence exists for the validity of this measurement approach when responses are elicited for specific behaviors (Gioia & Sims, 1985; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992) as we have done in the present study. Our performance data was obtained from company records in two nations, and the self-report performance data in the third nation reflects the employee's last performance appraisal. Common method variance may be indicated if significant relationships are obtained *only* for constructs measured by the same method. This was not the case in the present study because performance (measured using one method) and employee attitudes (measured by a different method) were impacted by leadership behaviors in a consistent manner in each culture. In addition, specific leadership behaviors varied in importance across cultures. These results would be unlikely if our methodology was unduly influenced by "common source and common method variance" problems.

Cross-Cultural Issues for Theory Building

In comparing the impacts of leadership behaviors in Asian versus Western culture clusters, one is struck by the fact that the United States is as different from Mexico as it is from the Asian cultures. *While there clearly are universal leader behavior patterns found in this study, the United States is unique in two respects. It is the only* culture where participative leadership had a positive effect on subordinate performance, and it is the *only* culture where leaders' contingent punishment behavior had a uniformly positive effect on subordinates. The following factors likely contributed toward the culturally unique results regarding leadership behaviors in the United States: uniquely high individualism (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Hofstede, 1991), egalitarian management climate, changing attitudes towards formal authority, movements toward increased professionalism, team processes, and employee empowerment (Yukl, 1994). These national and cultural characteristics may play important roles in cross-cultural models of leadership.

A particularly important issue in contemporary cross-cultural research is construct equivalence (Singh, 1995). As usually conceived, construct equivalence consists of three aspects: functional, conceptual, and measurement equivalence. Our research speaks to each of these aspects. Three of our leader behaviors demonstrated functional equivalence by consistently predicting follower attitudes and perceptions in all five countries. The multisample confirmatory factor analysis showing similar factor structures and loadings across all cultures provides some evidence both to conceptual and measurement equivalence.

Appendix A
Correlations Among Leader Behaviors and Criteria Variables For All Samples

	Variables	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*	*11*
1.	Directive		.59	.52	.04	.36	.52	−.15	.15	.45	.33	.16
		—	(.57)	(.46)	(.25)	(.47)	(.56)	(−.32)	(.38)	(.51)	(.44)	(n.a.)
2.	Supportive	.52		.69	−.10	.57	.63	−.27	.31	.59	.44	.25
		(.50)	—	(.72)	(.07)	(.72)	(.69)	(−.32)	(.41)	(.68)	(.40)	(n.a.)
		{.30}										
3.	Contingent Reward	.49	.73		.07	.58	.67	−.26	.32	.56	.45	.27
		(.50)	(.70)	—	(.08)	(.64)	(.69)	(−.29)	(.45)	(.69)	(.43)	(n.a.)
		{.50}	{.68}									
4.	Contingent Punishment	.26	−.08	.06		−.10	−.03	.00	−.01	−.10	−.03	.00
		(.34)	(.04)	(.12)	—	(.14)	(.18)	(−.10)	(.11)	(.03)	(.23)	(n.a.)
		{.41}	{-.07}	{.24}								
5.	Participative	.20	.52	.41	−.07		.65	−.22	.29	.50	.41	.14
		(.35)	(.57)	(.49)	(.14)	—	(.75)	(−.31)	(.41)	(.62)	(.32)	(n.a.)
		{.40}	{.63}	{.66}	{.03}							
6.	Charismatic	.36	.41	.53	.12	.36		−.23	.30	.60	.47	.23
		(.52)	(.64)	(.62)	(.24)	(.65)	—	(−.33)	(.50)	(.69)	(.44)	(n.a.)
		{.61}	{.50}	{.71}	{.45}	{.69}						
7.	Role Ambiguity	−.09	−.22	−.24	.06	−.11	−.21	—	−.34	−.25	−.33	−.28
		(−.40)	(−.32)	(−.22)	(.16)	(−.25)	(−.33)		(−.47)	(−.32)	(−.44)	(n.a.)
		{−.31}	{−.44}	{−.40}	{−.29}	{−.28}	{−.38}					
8.	Satisfaction with Work	.15	.29	.29	−.12	.22	.24	−.41		.40	.43	.31
		(.19)	(.27)	(.21)	(.14)	(.28)	(.32)	(−.31)	—	(.50)	(.59)	(n.a.)
		{.30}	{.34}	{.46}	{.18}	{.40}	{.41}	{−.47}				

(continued)

Appendix A
(Continued)

	Variables	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*	*11*
9.	Satisfaction	.33	.57	.62	−.10	.39	.38	−.13	.41		.53	.19
	with Supervisor	(.40)	(.73)	(.59)	(.01)	(.51)	(.58)	(−.33)	(.27)	—	(.39)	(n.a.)
		{.43}	{.66}	{.72}	{.13}	{.68}	{.67}	{−.39}	{.58}			
10.	Organizational	.21	.37	.49	−.01	.18	.39	−.35	.50	.44		.23
	Commitment	(.42)	(.42)	(.39)	(.17)	(.31)	(.39)	(−.35)	(.33)	(.29)	—	(n.a.)
		{.33}	{.33}	{.47}	{.35}	{.35}	{.48}	{−.50}	{.57}	{.51}		
11.	Job	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	
	Performance	(−.03)	(.16)	(.13)	(−.07)	(.06)	(.07)	(−.04)	(.13)	(.18)	(.07)	
		{−.05}	{.13}	{.20}	{−.06}	{.34}	{.13}	{.00}	{−.04}	{.14}	{−.12}	—

Notes: Correlations for *Korea* are in *upper right half* of this matrix without parentheses; $p < .05$ if $r \geq |.10|$, $p < .01$ if $r \geq |.16|$. Correlations for *Taiwan* are also in the *upper right hand* portion of this matrix in parentheses $p < .05$ if $r \geq |.10|$, $p < .01$ if $r \geq |.12|$.

Correlations for *Japan* are in the *lower half* of the matrix without parentheses $p < .05$ if $r \geq |.14|$, $p < .01$ if $r \geq |.18|$. Correlations for *Mexico* are in the *lower half* in parentheses $p < .05$ if $r \geq |.13|$, $p < .01$ if $r \geq |.14|$. Correlations for the U.S. are also in the *lower half* in brackets $p < .05$ if $r \geq |.17|$, $p < .01$ if $r \geq |.22|$ for all variables except Job Performance where $p < .05$ if $r \geq |.23|$, $p < .01$ if $r \geq |.30|$.

Thus, this study has produced one piece of evidence supporting the construct equivalence of these six leadership behaviors across cultures. Clearly, additional studies are needed to confirm the value of these and other leadership behaviors in cross-cultural contexts.

Returning to our initial discussion of the controversy between the cultural specifics versus cultural universal aspects of leadership, it might be useful to heed the following recent suggestion by Bond and Smith (1996). "The search for universals and an emphasis upon indigenous culture-specifics are often cast as contradictory enterprises that exemplify contrasting etic and emic approaches. Yet these concepts are no more separable than nature and nurture" (p. 226). Our results indicate that the similarities and differences between cultures can be meaningfully integrated within contemporary theoretical frameworks and simultaneously make sense for the specific cultures under study. Perhaps paradoxically, it is through hybrid research designs (Earley & Singh, 1995) such as this project that both cross-cultural generalities and cultural differences can be understood.

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NOTES

1. We are indebted to an anonymous reviewer for suggesting this solution.
2. The parameters of the hypothesized model in each country were estimated using maximum likelihood estimation. A covariance matrix for each country was used as input to LISREL VII (Jöreskog & Sorbom, 1989). The path from each latent construct to its indicator was equal to the square root of the indicator's coefficient alpha, whereas the measurement error for each indicator was set to one minus coefficient alpha (Williams & Hazer, 1986). An indicator for each latent construct was obtained by summing across items measuring a given latent construct. LISREL VII provides several goodness-of-fit indices to evaluate the overall fit of the model. The following criteria were used to assess the fit of each LISREL analysis: adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) which adjusts the GFI by the degrees of freedom in order to consider the parsimony of the model—a score of >.9 indicates acceptable fit; and root mean square residual (RMSR) which reflects the degree of unexplained variation across the individual parameter estimates should be less than .05. In addition to these criteria, several other fit indices have been proposed to evaluate nested models such as those used in this paper (for a review see Medsker, Williams, & Holahan, 1994; Mulaik, et al., 1989; Schumacher & Lomax, 1996). The normed-fit-index type 2 (NFI2) is thought to be less biased than the traditional normed-fit-index developed by Bentler and Bonnett (1980). Again, an index score of >.9 indicates a good fit between the data and the model. The viability of a model in a system of nested models should not be assessed without considering the parsimony of the model. The goodness-of-fit and the parsimony of the model is reflected in the PFI2 index whereby higher values indicates a more parsimonious model (Mulaik, et al., 1989). When two models fit the data equally well, the more parsimonious model should be accepted. The Tucker-Lewis (TLI) is an increasingly popular criterion to assess the fit of models and a value of .90 or above is considered a good fit. Finally, Jöreskog and Sorbom (1989) recommend using "Chi square" (χ^2) differences along with differences in their respective degrees of freedom, to compare nested models.

   In step one, the hypothesized model was evaluated in each country by comparing hierarchically nested models within the same covariance matrix of each country. According to

Bentler and Bonnett (1980) and Mulaik, et al. (1989), nesting involves the examination of a hierarchy of models wherein one or more paths which are free in the first model are restricted in the second model, one or more paths which are free in the second model are additionally restricted in the third model, and so on. In each sample, we started with a full model shown in general form in Fig. 2. Various nested models were tested for each country with exogenous and endogenous paths constrained to zero. That is, we sequentially tested models with specific paths, and groups of paths, constrained to be nonsignificant (e.g., paths from leader behaviors to satisfaction with supervision equal zero). In all cases, the nested models which eliminated theoretically important groups of paths from the original theoretical model were found to be unacceptable. However, we were able to accept a "trimmed model" by deleting paths from the theoretical model where paths with t-value less than 2.00 were constrained to zero (Schaubroeck, Cotton, & Jennings, 1989). For our purposes, when the hypothesized model was tested against the more restrictive "trimmed model" and the differences in χ^2 values and corresponding degrees of freedom between the models were not significant, then the "trimmed model" was accepted on the basis of its parsimony. These final "trimmed models" are shown in Figs. 3-10.

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