

---

# 1

## Societal Culture and Leadership

### *GLOBE History, Theory, and Summary of Previous Findings*

---

*The 21st century should be, if it is not already, the century of international management research.*

—Tsui, Nifadkar, and Ou (2007)

*Culture is the greatest of all moderators.*

—Harry Triandis (1993)

*To succeed in this complex business environment, leaders will need to adopt a set of characteristics and traits that enables them to move fluidly across different cultures.*

—James Turley, chief executive officer (CEO)  
of Ernst & Young (2010)

**T**he importance of executive leaders to the success of their organizations is widely acknowledged (cf. Finkelstein, Hambrick, & Cannella, 2009; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001). The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) research project presented in this book has the principal goal of determining how societal leadership expectations influence executive leadership behavior and effectiveness. The current project is a continuation of the previous GLOBE research started in the early 1990s whereby investigators have been studying the interrelationships among societal culture, societal effectiveness, and societal leadership expectations. However, in contrast to earlier GLOBE research (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004), the focus of this book is on executive leadership

behavior and its effectiveness. Specifically, our study focuses on the behavior and performance of chief executive officers (CEOs) and their top management teams (TMTs).

Although there are compelling reasons for understanding the influence of societal culture on leadership and organizational processes, only during the past two decades has there been an increased interest in studying leadership in multiple cultures (including non-Western cultures). Contemporary reviews of leadership theories by cross-cultural researchers generally espouse the perspective that leadership theories developed and tested in one culture may not apply to other cultures (Aycan, 2008; Dickson, Castaño, Magomaeva, & Den Hartog, 2012). While this perspective about the importance of cultural contingencies has recently gained acceptance, many prominent leadership theories were either developed before this zeitgeist or tacitly assumed that leadership processes and theories generally transcend cultures (Dorfman, 2004). Yet convincing evidence exists that there are inherent limitations in transferring theories across cultures; what works in one culture may not be valid in other cultures. As Triandis (1993) suggested in the quote given at the beginning of the chapter, because societal culture has proven to be an important moderator in social science research, leadership researchers should be able to “fine-tune” theories by investigating cultural variations as moderators or parameters of those theories.

In addition, by focusing on potential cross-cultural effects, researchers are more likely to uncover new relationships by including a much broader range of variables often not considered in contemporary theories, such as the importance of religion, language, ethnic background, history, or political systems (Chemers, 1993). Essentially, cross-cultural research may identify limiting conditions and specific cultural differences that are relevant for understanding leadership processes and outcomes (Yukl, 2013). In short, GLOBE investigators believe that cross-cultural researchers should thoughtfully view current leadership theories within a contingency framework whereby cultural variables are incorporated as antecedents and/or moderators. With this contingency perspective, we may begin to answer a fundamental question as to the extent to which leadership theories generated and tested in one culture generalize to different cultures (Yukl, 2013). The present project attacks this question from the GLOBE theoretical basis presented by House and colleagues (2004) and subsequently revised from the results of previous GLOBE efforts.

Practical reasons also exist for understanding the role of societal cultures' influence on leadership and organizational processes. The knowledge gained from cross-cultural research will assist organizations in the selection and development of leaders with the necessary multicultural skills to become effective in multicultural environments (see the Turley (2010) quote at the beginning of the chapter). This knowledge can directly improve firm performance and profitability as CEOs strive to increase

their firm's presence and sales in foreign markets. As William Green (former chairman and CEO of Accenture) (2009) stated, it is important to focus on growing market share and expanding business in key geographic markets with a special emphasis on Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Korea, and Mexico. In one recent survey of more than 500 senior executives at 100 corporations, the Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU) (Bolchover, 2012) reported that 75% of the respondents' corporations were planning to compete in foreign markets. Another survey of 520 senior business executives reported that 50% of these executives expect their corporations to receive more revenue from foreign markets than from their domestic markets (Turley, 2010). Pursuing global markets, global supply chain partners, and global talent pools are high priorities for contemporary corporations, and cross-cultural leadership skills are critical to success. As Howard and Wellins (2008) noted, "Mobilizing teams and working across cultures" are the top two vital leadership competencies for developing globally successful leaders. The importance of developing globally minded executives has also not been lost on emerging market multinationals (EMMs) who increasingly view global business savvy to be a key to their success (Foster, 2008). In short, increased global exposure of corporations has raised managerial interest in understanding national cultures and their influence on executives and corporations.

Robert House founded the GLOBE research program in 1991 to enhance the scholarly literature on this important topic. GLOBE is a multiphase, multimethod, multisample project in which investigators spanning the world are examining, among other things, the interrelationships between societal culture and organizational leadership. Over 200 social scientists and management scholars from nearly 69 cultures representing all major regions of the world are engaged in this programmatic series of cross-cultural leadership studies. We studied 62 countries in the first two GLOBE phases and 24 countries in the latest phase of GLOBE. Of the latter 24 countries, 17 were in common with the first two phases (in total, 69 countries were represented in the combined research). We studied over 900 domestic corporations in the 62 countries in Phases 1 and 2 and over 1,000 corporations in Phase 3.

In this chapter of the book, we describe the rationale, theory, and findings from the GLOBE project up to this latest (i.e., Phase 3) study. We summarize our perspectives on culture and leadership—what we now know, what we still don't know, and what we may soon know. The chapter ends with a discussion of why we chose to proceed with the CEO study reported in this book. Chapter 2 reviews the current state of literature regarding the intriguing relationship between culture and leadership. Chapter 3 describes our rationale, hypotheses, research design, and analytical strategy. Insights gained from our 20-year effort, along with the extant literature, have enabled us to modify our original theoretical model (House et al., 2004) to the one presented in Figure 1.1. We intend to provide evidence throughout

this book that leadership matters, executive leadership matters greatly, and societal cultures influence the leadership behaviors that are expected and effective.

## GLOBE: A Primer

---

Since its inception in the early 1990s, the GLOBE project has grown into an enormous research effort involving more than 200 researchers from multiple academic disciplines located throughout the world. GLOBE investigators set out to explore the fascinating and complex effects of culture on leadership and organizational effectiveness. Among our goals, we strove to make the project applicable to many facets of cross-cultural interaction beyond simply conducting an in-depth study of societal culture and organizational behavior. To this end, GLOBE 2004 stated the following:

At the present time there is a greater need for effective international and cross-cultural communication, collaboration, and cooperation, not only for the effective practice of management but also for the betterment of the human condition. Ample evidence shows that cultures of the world are getting more and more interconnected and that the business world is becoming increasingly global. As economic borders come down, cultural barriers will most likely go up and present new challenges and opportunities in business. When cultures come into contact, they may converge on some aspects, but their idiosyncrasies will likely amplify. The information resulting from the GLOBE research program can be used as a guide when individuals from different cultures interact with each other. (House et al., 2004, p. 1)

Some scholars believe that worldwide distribution of movies, TV programs, restaurant chains, travel, MBA programs, and educational exchange opportunities (Child & Tayeb, 1983; Werther, 1996; Yavas, 1995) will result in cultural uniformity. However, cultural differences have been the proverbial “elephants in the room,” and businesses ignore them at their peril currently and in the future. Cultural misunderstandings have led to numerous failures in cross-cultural mergers, acquisitions, and market penetration (Stahl & Javidan, 2009). Furthermore, in a recent survey of CEOs, executives identified mobilizing teams and working across cultures as the *top* two critical leadership competencies in their corporations (Howard & Wellins, 2008). In another survey of 1,000 internationally oriented Chinese companies (*China Daily*, 2012) these executives indicated the major challenge in establishing overseas business was cultural differences. Further, complexity theory suggests that even

with free-flowing information, pockets of cultural heterogeneity will persist, emerge, and flourish (Marion & Uhl-bien, 2001). As Nisbett (2003) has shown, thousands of years of history are behind the unique development of cultures around the world, and it is simplistic to expect massive convergence of thinking in a few years.

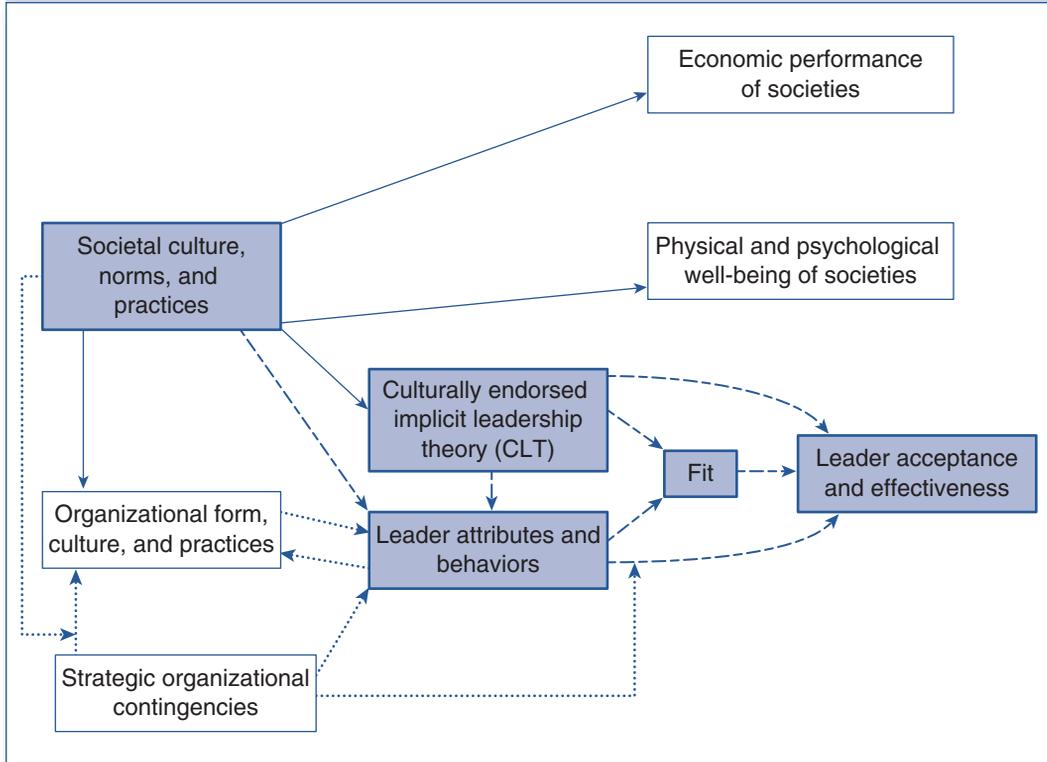
---

## GLOBE Theoretical Model

The GLOBE theoretical model (House et al., 2004) was proposed as a fully integrative theory linking culture, leadership, and organizational effectiveness. The theory not only relates national culture to aspects of leadership and organizational processes but also asserts that culture has a sustained influence on societal human welfare and the economic success of that culture. Our theory, which continues to guide the GLOBE research program, is an integration of implicit leadership theory (ILT) (Lord & Maher, 1991), value-belief theory of culture (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1995), implicit motivation theory (McClelland, 1985), and structural contingency theory of organizational form and effectiveness (Donaldson, 1993; Hickson, Hinings, McMillan, & Schwitter, 1974). We readily acknowledge that the original GLOBE theory has benefited from further research conducted by GLOBE scholars (Chhokar, Brodbeck, & House, 2007) and many other cross-cultural researchers (cf. Leung, Bhagat, Buchan, Erez, & Gibson, 2005). Modifications of the original GLOBE model have been made due to research results acquired over two decades of the GLOBE project and from additional knowledge gained by researchers worldwide.

The central proposition in GLOBE's research is that the attributes and characteristics that differentiate societal cultures from each other may also suggest organizational practices and leader attributes/behaviors that will be frequently enacted and effective in that culture. We believe that the validity of the GLOBE theory can be inferred from tests of specific relationships theorized in the GLOBE model rather than with attempts to develop an omnibus test. The version of the GLOBE model presented in this book (see Figure 1.1) is a modification of the one originally presented by House, Wright, and Aditya (1997) and subsequently changed in GLOBE 2004 (House et al., 2004). Constructs and relationships shown by solid lines refer to relationships among constructs tested in the previous phases of GLOBE. We showed that societal cultural values and practices predict societal phenomena and leadership expectations (i.e., culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories, or CLTs). Relationships shown by dashed lines and boxes with dark blue backgrounds are those to be tested in the present study. We intend to examine the relationship among cultural values, cultural leadership expectations (i.e., CLTs), and leadership behavior and effectiveness. Relationships shown by dotted lines will be examined in the future.

**Figure 1.1** Modified GLOBE Theoretical Model 2013



## Focus of GLOBE 2004 and GLOBE 2007

GLOBE researchers' initial focus in the 1990s was twofold: First, they developed a method to define and measure national cultural practices and values. Second, they strove to identify which leadership attributes are consistent with—and likely to succeed in—these cultures. It should be noted that in the 1990s GLOBE researchers also had goals of determining *how* cultural values and practices influence societal and organizational effectiveness. An important feature in GLOBE research was to identify cultural *practices* that define cultures as they now exist (i.e., as is); in contrast, cultural *values* are defined as what societies desire in the future (i.e., should be). GLOBE researchers found that cultural practices (but not values) are associated with a large variety of societal phenomena such as economic performance and societal health. In contrast, cultural values (and not practices) are associated with desirable leadership qualities. As an example, we found that Power Distance (values) is a positive predictor of the predictor of perception of effectiveness for Self-Protective leadership behaviors and a negative predictor perception of effectiveness for Charismatic/Value-Based leadership and Participative leadership behaviors. The complete

findings for these analyses were published in *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies* (House et al., 2004).

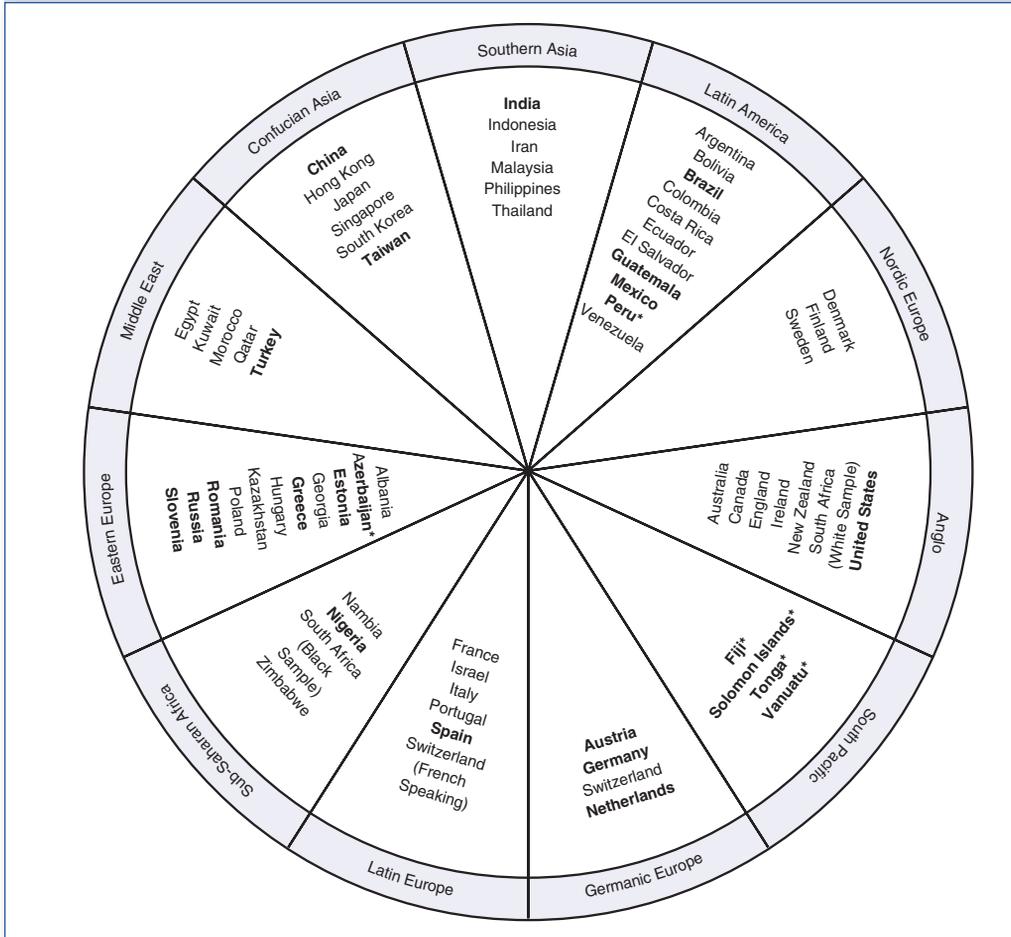
For convenience and brevity throughout this book, the two GLOBE book publications are referred to as GLOBE 2004 (House et al., 2004) and GLOBE 2007 (Chhokar et al., 2007). In addition, when describing the project we use terms such as *our project* or *we* to refer to GLOBE researchers as a single entity. The GLOBE 2007 book was structurally different from the GLOBE 2004 book. The former was structured around nine cultural dimensions whereas the latter provided in-depth country-specific analyses of cultural values, practices, and leadership expectations. The latter also included extensive findings from a variety of qualitative analyses along with the quantitative findings in GLOBE 2004.

In GLOBE 2007, we also described numerous instances where 10 regional clusters of countries (e.g., Latin American countries) were culturally unique from each other (and within each cluster) regarding differences in perceptions of effective leadership qualities. Consider the following examples that highlight cultural differences. Leaders in Hong Kong (Confucian Asian cluster) are substantially influenced by Confucian values for order, compliance, and acceptance of authority: a predisposition that results in a more autocratic leadership style. They are very opportunistic, seize every opportunity to become affluent, and generally exhibit a paternalistic and benevolent autocratic style (Chow, 2007). The French (Latin European Cluster) place a high value on human equality with an accompanying anticapitalist tradition, but the French leader is expected to reconcile contradictions such as hierarchy and equality, order, and liberty (Castel, Deneire, Kurc, Lacasagne, & Leeds, 2007). Interestingly, French leaders in general are expected to be well educated and “cultivated” (i.e., classically educated). Insights such as these, which combine both quantitative and qualitative data, are found in GLOBE 2007’s 25 culture-specific chapters.

Figure 1.2 presents the countries grouped into the culture clusters as presented in GLOBE 2004. This figure also includes all countries in the current CEO study.

We believe that GLOBE 2004 and GLOBE 2007 advanced cross-cultural research in several ways. As previously mentioned, in GLOBE 2004 we measured 62 societal cultures along nine cultural dimensions for both cultural practices and cultural values. This distinction between practices and values has been acknowledged as an important addition to cross-cultural research (Triandis, 2004; preface to GLOBE 2004). In addition, GLOBE’s cultural measures continue to be used in international business research (Parboteeah, Hoegl, & Cullen, 2008), but debate remains as to the precise meaning of each construct (Graen, 2006; Hofstede, 2006; Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges, & Sully de Luque, 2006; Peterson, 2004). We also empirically validated our measures to establish each scale’s reliability and construct validity. Perhaps most importantly, we assessed the degree of aggregation among societal and organizational members so that we had

**Figure 1.2** All Countries in GLOBE 2004 and Current GLOBE CEO Study



*Note:* Twenty-four countries in the current GLOBE CEO study are bold. Countries not in the GLOBE 2004 study are indicated by an asterisk.

confidence that our samples accurately reflected the reported societal and organizational cultures. Unfortunately, the validity of aggregation has often been ignored in previous cross-cultural research (cf. Hofstede, 1980). We determined which economic and human conditions are associated with these cultural dimensions. In addition, we assessed the confluence between national cultures and the human condition (with extensive supporting data) as well as relationships among national and organizational cultures and desired leadership qualities. Practical implications for leadership development resulting from GLOBE research have been advanced and adopted by university MBA programs worldwide. For example, the paper by Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque, and House (2006) provides MBA students with a sound basis for conceptualizing worldwide leadership differences.

---

## Specific GLOBE Research Questions for GLOBE 2004 and GLOBE 2007

---

Specific objectives and research questions pertaining to the entire GLOBE research program are listed next. Selected findings from the research project are presented in Table 1.1. Essentially, the glue that holds the objectives together can be summarized as our effort to develop reliable survey instruments that enable us to independently measure cultural practices and values; determine which principles of leadership and organizational processes transcend cultures; and link together cultural, leadership, and organizational elements. Our specific objectives were to accomplish the following:

1. Develop reliable survey instruments to independently measure cultural practices and values (using a sound theoretical base and exacting psychometric standards).
2. Ascertain how attributes of societal cultures affect the economic, physical, and psychological welfare of members of the societies studied (e.g., determine the relationship between societal cultural variables and international competitiveness of societies).
3. Identify and group the 62 societal cultures into a limited set of regional clusters and validate the culture groupings.
4. Determine which leader behaviors, attributes, and organizational practices are universally expected to be effective across all cultures.
5. Use ILT to create leadership profiles that are endorsed differently across cultures (i.e., determine which leader behaviors, attributes, and organizational practices are accepted and effective in only some cultures).
6. Group 112 leadership attributes into more parsimonious leadership dimensions (*primary* dimensions) and demonstrate how they can be grouped into secondary (*global*) leadership dimensions.
7. Establish which attributes of societal and organizational cultures are expected to influence the acceptance and effectiveness of specific leader behaviors in a culture.
8. Determine how attributes of a societal culture affect the values and practices of organizations within that culture.
9. Investigate whether distinct industry contexts (e.g., finance as compared to food industry) influence societal and organizational culture dimensions or culturally endorsed leadership attributes.

**Table 1.1** Summary of Objectives and Findings from GLOBE 2004 and GLOBE 2007

	<b>Objectives</b>	<b>Findings</b>	<b>Examples</b>
1.	Develop reliable survey instruments to identify and measure societal and organizational cultural practices <i>and</i> values.	Nine cultural dimensions were identified that differentiate attributes of societal and organizational cultures for 62 societies.	The United States, China, and Hong Kong were among the highest scoring societies for Performance Orientation practices.
2.	Determine the relationship between selected cultural dimensions and economic and psychological well-being of societies.	Many significant relationships exist between selected cultural dimension practices and economic health and positive human conditions.	Societal Performance Orientation, Future Orientation, and Uncertainty Avoidance are positively related to most measures of economic health. Societal health is negatively related to Power Distance and In-Group Collectivism.
3.	Group 62 societal clusters into regional clusters.	The 62 societal clusters were grouped into 10 regional clusters.	The Nordic Europe culture cluster consisted of Denmark, Sweden, and Finland.
4.	Determine which leadership attributes are universally endorsed or refuted.	Twenty-two leadership attributes were universally endorsed; 8 attributes were universally refuted.	<i>Trustworthy, just, and honest</i> were universally endorsed; <i>egocentric</i> and <i>dictatorial</i> were universally rejected.
5.	Determine which leadership attributes are culturally contingent. Use implicit leadership theory (ILT) to create leadership profiles that are differently endorsed across cultures.	Thirty-five qualities were culturally contingent. Leadership profiles were created for each of 10 culture clusters.	<i>Cautious, cunning, and compassionate</i> were culturally contingent attributes. The Latin America societal cluster scored highest on the Team-Oriented global leadership dimension.
6.	Group 112 leadership attributes into more parsimonious leadership dimensions.	Twenty-one primary leadership dimensions were formed out of the 112 leadership attributes; these were consolidated into global leadership dimensions.	The Charismatic/Value-Based global leadership dimension is comprised of six primary dimensions (e.g., one is charisma-inspirational).

	Objectives	Findings	Examples
7.	Determine relationships between culture dimensions and leadership dimensions.	The nine cultural dimension values are differentially related (at the societal and organizational) level to the six global leadership factors.	Performance Orientation and Gender Egalitarianism cultural values are strongly and positively related to desirability of Participative leadership.
8.	Determine how attributes of societal cultures influence organizational cultures.	Organizational practices and values mirror the societies in which they are comprised.	Organizations with high Performance Orientation are found within societies with high Performance Orientation.
9.	Determine if distinct industry contexts (e.g., food) influence societal and organizational culture dimensions as well as leadership culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories, or CLTs.	Industry has a limited direct influence on GLOBE findings, but evidence suggests a more subtle industry X society interaction.	Societal culture moderated relationships between organizational culture and leadership preferences for food and telecommunications but not in the financial services industry.
10.	Provide a more in-depth understanding of cultures and leadership processes within specific nations by integrating qualitative and quantitative data.	Qualitative data were obtained from 25 countries and reported in GLOBE 2007. Numerous culture-specific aspects of leadership emerged.	New Zealand leadership styles demand straight-talking, non-self-promoting, and strong rejection of bureaucratic leaders. Chinas' leadership remains welded to Confucian ideology but aggressively learns from the West.

The following two sections summarize GLOBE's perspectives of culture, leadership, and the intriguing interaction between them.

## GLOBE Perspectives on Culture

Unfortunately, there is no universally agreed-upon definition among social scientists for the term *culture*. However, consistencies are found among definitions; when used by social scientists, the term *culture* typically refers to a set of parameters of collectives that differentiate each collective in a meaningful way, with a focus on the “sharedness” of cultural indicators among members of the collective. For Project GLOBE, culture is defined as follows:

Shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations.

GLOBE researchers conceptualized and measured nine cultural dimensions after reviewing the available literature, paying particular attention to Geert Hofstede (1980); Trompenaars and colleagues (1996); and Inglehart, Basanez, and Moreno (1998). The nine GLOBE cultural dimensions are (1) Performance Orientation, (2) Assertiveness, (3) Future Orientation, (4) Humane Orientation, (5) Institutional Collectivism, (6) In-Group Collectivism, (7) Gender Egalitarianism, (8) Power Distance, and (9) Uncertainty Avoidance. We should note that the emphasis on culture in GLOBE 2004 was understandable for several reasons. First, given the earlier groundbreaking work in this area by Hofstede (1980), it was only natural for researchers to compare GLOBE findings to his seminal research findings. This is particularly true with respect to the ranking of societal cultures (i.e., nations) along various cultural dimensions (e.g., individualism/collectivism), which mirrors Hofstede's (1980) earlier research at IBM. Second, in the process of designing and conducting the first two phases of the GLOBE project, we broadened the scope to include an understanding of how cultures affect both economic performance and the human condition. Third, GLOBE cultural dimensions can be applied to both societies and organizations. For each, careful attention was given to levels of analysis issues. Listed here are brief definitions of the nine cultural dimensions. Culture construct definitions, example questionnaire items, and national exemplars of the extremes are presented in Table 1.2.

*Performance Orientation:* The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards (and should encourage and reward) group members for performance improvement and excellence.

*Assertiveness:* The degree to which individuals are (and should be) assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in their relationship with others.

*Future Orientation:* The extent to which individuals engage (and should engage) in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying gratification.

*Humane Orientation:* The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards (and should encourage and reward) individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others.

*Institutional Collectivism:* The degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward (and should encourage and reward) collective distribution of resources and collective action.

*In-Group Collectivism:* The degree to which individuals express (and should express) pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families.

*Gender Egalitarianism:* The degree to which a collective minimizes (and should minimize) gender inequality.

*Power Distance:* The degree to which members of a collective expect (and should expect) power to be distributed equally.

*Uncertainty Avoidance:* The extent to which a society, organization, or group relies (and should rely) on social norms, rules, and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events. The greater the desire to avoid uncertainty, the more people seek orderliness, consistency, structure, formal procedures, and laws to cover situations in their daily lives.

**Table 1.2** Culture Construct Definitions, Sample Questionnaire Items, and Country Score Examples

<b>Performance Orientation:</b> <i>The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence.</i>				
Specific Questionnaire Item	Cultural Characteristics and Country Examples	Country Dimension Scores ( <i>Practices</i> )		
		Low	Med.	High
Students are encouraged (should be encouraged) to strive for continuously improved performance.	In countries that score high on this cultural practice, such as the United States and Singapore, businesses are likely to emphasize training and development. In countries that score low, such as Russia and Greece, family and background count for more.	Greece (3.20)	Spain (4.01)	China (4.45)
		Russia (3.39)	Japan (4.22)	United States (4.49)
		Italy (3.58)	India (4.25)	Singapore (4.90)
<b>Assertiveness:</b> <i>The degree to which individuals are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in their relationships with others.</i>				
Specific Questionnaire Item	Cultural Characteristics and Country Examples	Country Dimension Scores ( <i>practices</i> )		
		Low	Med.	High
People are (should be) generally dominant in their relationships with each other.	People in highly assertive countries, such as the United States and Austria, tend to have can-do attitudes and enjoy competition in business. Those in less assertive countries, such as Sweden and New Zealand, prefer harmony in relationships and emphasize loyalty and solidarity.	Sweden (3.38)	China (3.76)	Spain (4.42)
		New Zealand (3.42)	Italy (4.07)	United States (4.55)
			Ecuador (4.09)	Austria (4.62)
<b>Future Orientation:</b> <i>The extent to which individuals engage in future-oriented behaviors such as delaying gratification, planning, and investing in the future.</i>				

(Continued)

(Continued)

Specific Questionnaire Item	Cultural Characteristics and Country Examples	Country Dimension Scores ( <i>Practices</i> )		
		Low	Med.	High
More people live (should live) for the present rather than for the future (scored inversely).	Organizations in countries with high Future Orientation practices, such as Singapore and Switzerland, tend to have longer-term horizons and more systematic planning processes, but they tend to be averse to risk taking and opportunistic decision making. In contrast, corporations in the least Future Oriented countries, such as Russia and Argentina, tend to be less systematic and more opportunistic in their actions.	Russia (2.88) Argentina (3.08) Italy (3.25)	China (3.75) Indonesia (3.86) United States (4.15)	Austria (4.46) Switzerland (4.73) Singapore (5.07)
<b>Humane Orientation:</b> <i>The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others.</i>				
Specific Questionnaire Item	Cultural Characteristics and Country Examples	Country Dimension Scores ( <i>Practices</i> )		
		Low	Med.	High
People are generally (should be generally) very tolerant of mistakes.	People in high Humane Orientation societies are urged to provide social support to each other. The need for belonging and affiliation motivates people. Countries such as Egypt and Malaysia rank very high on this cultural practice; countries such as France and Germany rank low.	Germany (3.18) France (3.40) Singapore (3.49)	Australia (4.28) New Zealand (4.32) Canada (4.49)	Egypt (4.73) Malaysia (4.87) Philippines (5.12)
<b>Institutional Collectivism:</b> <i>The degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.</i>				
Specific Questionnaire Item	Cultural Characteristics and Country Examples	Country Dimension Scores ( <i>Practices</i> )		
		Low	Med.	High
Leaders encourage (should encourage) group loyalty even	Organizations in collectivistic countries, such as Singapore and	Greece (3.25)	United States (4.20)	China (4.77)

Specific Questionnaire Item	Cultural Characteristics and Country Examples	Country Dimension Scores ( <i>Practices</i> )		
		Low	Med.	High
if individual goals suffer.	Sweden, tend to emphasize group performance and rewards whereas those in the more individualistic countries, such as Greece and Brazil, tend to emphasize individual achievement and rewards.	Argentina (3.66)  Brazil (3.83)	Egypt (4.50)	Singapore (4.90)  Sweden (5.22)
<b>In-Group Collectivism:</b> <i>The degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families.</i>				
Specific Questionnaire Item	Cultural Characteristics and Country Examples	Country Dimension Scores ( <i>Practices</i> )		
		Low	Med.	High
Employees feel (should feel) great loyalty toward this organization.	Societies such as Egypt and Russia take pride in their families and also take pride in the organizations that employ them. In contrast, the United States scores relatively low for In-Group Collectivism but higher in the previously described Institutional Collectivism.	Denmark (3.53)  New Zealand (3.67)  United States (4.25)	Japan (4.63)  Israel (4.70)  Brazil (5.18)	Russia (5.63)  Egypt (5.64)  China (5.80)
<b>Gender Egalitarianism:</b> <i>The degree to which a collective minimizes gender inequality.</i>				
Specific Questionnaire Item	Cultural Characteristics and Country Examples	Country Dimension Scores ( <i>Practices</i> )		
		Low	Med.	High
Boys are encouraged (should be encouraged) more than girls to attain a higher education (scored inversely).	Not surprisingly, European countries generally had the highest scores for gender egalitarian practices. Egypt and South Korea were among the most male-dominated societies in GLOBE. Organizations operating in gender egalitarian societies tend to encourage tolerance for diversity of ideas and individuals.	S. Korea (2.50)  Egypt (2.81)	Germany (3.10)  New Zealand (3.22)  United States (3.34)	Canada (3.70)  Sweden (3.84)  Denmark (3.93)
<b>Power Distance:</b> <i>The degree to which members of a collective expect power to be distributed equally.</i>				

(Continued)

(Continued)

Specific Questionnaire Item	Cultural Characteristics and Country Examples	Country Dimension Scores ( <i>Practices</i> )		
		Low	Med.	High
Followers are (should be) expected to obey their leaders without question.	A high Power Distance score reflects unequal power distribution in a society. Countries that scored high on this cultural practice are more stratified economically, socially, and politically; those in positions of authority expect—and receive—obedience. Firms in high Power Distance countries such as Thailand, Brazil, and France tend to have hierarchical decision making processes with limited one-way participation and communication.	Denmark (3.89)  Netherlands (4.11)	Canada (4.82)  United States (4.88)  China (5.04)	France (5.28)  Brazil (5.33)  Thailand (5.63)
<b>Uncertainty Avoidance:</b> <i>The extent to which a society, organization, or group relies on social norms, rules, and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events.</i>				
Specific Questionnaire Item	Cultural Characteristics and Country Examples	Country Dimension Scores ( <i>Practices</i> )		
		Low	Med.	High
Most people lead (should lead) highly structured lives with few unexpected events.	Organizations in high Uncertainty Avoidance countries, such as Singapore and Switzerland, tend to establish elaborate processes and procedures and prefer formal detailed strategies. In contrast, firms in low Uncertainty Avoidance countries, such as Russia and Greece, tend to prefer simple processes and broadly stated strategies. They are also opportunistic and enjoy risk taking.	Russia (2.88)  Hungary (3.12)  Greece (3.39)	United States (4.15)  Mexico (4.18)  England (4.65)	Germany (5.22)  Singapore (5.31)  Switzerland (5.37)

---

## GLOBE Perspectives on Leadership

---

Similar to the “culture” definition problem, it is widely acknowledged that there is no universal consensus on the definition of *leadership* (Bass, 2008; Yukl, 2010). However, most definitions embody the concepts of influence and the accomplishment of objectives—that is, how leaders influence others to accomplish group or organizational objectives. Interestingly, from the very start of the GLOBE project, researchers noticed that the definition and construct of leadership itself clearly varies across cultures. For instance, the status and influence of leaders vary considerably as a result of cultural forces in the countries or regions in which the leaders function. Some cultures—such as American, Arabian, Asian, English, Eastern European, French, German, Latin American, and Russian—tend to romanticize the concept of leadership and consider it to be important in both political and organizational arenas. In these cultures, leaders are commemorated with statues or memorialized in the names of major avenues, boulevards, or buildings. In contrast, many people of German-speaking Switzerland, the Netherlands, and Scandinavia seemed to be more skeptical about the concept of leadership and leaders for fear that they will accumulate and abuse power. In these countries, it is difficult to find public commemoration of leaders.

One goal of the initial GLOBE conference (held in 1994 at the University of Calgary in Canada) was to create a working definition of leadership. We immediately found ourselves debating the role of leaders, their importance, and the attributes important for outstanding leadership. Anecdotal evidence that emerged during this discussion supported our initial beliefs about the countrywide variance of leadership concepts. After lengthy debates, GLOBE researchers reached a consensus for a working definition of leadership that reflected the group’s diverse viewpoints. The following definition emerged:

Leadership is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members.

During the 1994 conference, we also spent considerable time discussing the best way to initiate the project’s implementation—asking important administrative questions as to who will coordinate the project and how to recruit country co-investigators (CCIs), as well as creating an anticipated timeline for implementation and completion of the project. Decisions were made that focused our efforts and led to the development of the sequencing of the project. For the leadership portion, we wanted to focus on leadership attributes that were believed to be critical for outstanding leadership. Later in the project’s development we used this information to assess actual leadership behavior—the focus of the present book.

## **Culturally Endorsed Implicit Leadership Theory—The Twenty-One Primary Culturally Endorsed Implicit Leadership Theory Leadership Dimensions and Six Global Culturally Endorsed Implicit Leadership Theory Leadership Dimensions**

---

GLOBE's theoretical framework is built on the foundation of implicit leadership theory (ILT) (Lord & Maher, 1991) to develop our CLT (House et al., 2004). While ILTs are analyzed at the individual level of analysis, CLTs are aggregated at the societal level. Numerous examples demonstrate how societal cultures can shape the ILT of their members (Javidan, Dorfman, Howell, & Hanges, 2010). In countries with relatively high Power Distance values (e.g., Russia and Iran), children typically learn that the father is the ultimate authority in the family, and they show strong respect and deference to him. In such cultures, the CLT reflects elements of power and autocratic leadership. As adults, employees in organizations in such cultures are more accepting of high Power Distance values and autocratic leadership styles in organizations. While not the entire story, Vladimir Putin's rise to power and continuing presence as president and/or prime minister of Russia reflect the desirability of strong powerful leaders in this high Power Distance society.

For the initial phases of GLOBE, we designed an instrument called the Leader Attributes and Behavior Questionnaire. We decided not to use previously developed leadership instruments and scales (e.g., LMX and MLQ) because they were mostly developed in Western countries. Furthermore, because our objective was to compare cross-cultural differences in leaders and leadership, our strategy was to cast as wide a net as possible with respect to the attributes and behaviors to be assessed. We decided to go beyond leadership constructs currently in the research zeitgeist such as charismatic, transformational leadership, or dyadic leadership. As a result, the instrument contained leadership attributes reflecting a wide variety of skills, styles, behaviors, and personality traits. In short, our instrument was cross-culturally designed, included both leadership attributes and behaviors, and measured a wide range of theoretical constructs.

The first author, along with other GLOBE colleagues, developed a comprehensive list of leadership attributes and behaviors based on available research literature and personal reflections from many scholars in numerous countries. We created a list of 382 leadership attributes eventually winnowed down by a series of statistical procedures to 112 leader attribute and behavior items. These leadership items embodied a wide variety of traits, behaviors, and abilities potentially relevant to leadership emergence and effectiveness. For each item in the survey, a brief definition or example of the item clarified the construct to minimize language difficulties, and elaborate translation and back-translation procedures were developed to minimize language misunderstandings. (The complete procedure can be

found in Chapters 6 through 11 by House and colleagues [2004].) Leader attributes were rated 1 through 7 with 1 indicating “This behavior or characteristic greatly inhibits a person from being an outstanding leader” and 7 indicating “This behavior or characteristic contributes greatly to a person being an outstanding leader.”

After generating the 112 attributes, the next step in making sense of these disparate items was to group them using various conceptual and statistical procedures. Statistical analyses used data from the survey of over 17,000 managers in 62 societies (House et al., 2004). This resulted in a formation of *two levels* of leadership dimensions. The first level consists of 21 *primary* leadership dimensions (e.g., visionary leadership). To further understand the underlying construction of CLTs, a second-order factor analysis of these 21 primary dimensions produced the second level leadership dimensions that we refer to as 6 *global* leadership dimensions. In other words, the initial 112 attributes were used as the basis for the 21 primary leadership dimensions, which in turn are collapsed into the 6 global leadership dimensions (see Table 1.3). The conceptual linkage of the 21 primary dimensions to these 6 global dimensions is discussed in Chapter 2. Major GLOBE terms found throughout the book are defined in Appendix A. The global leadership dimensions are briefly defined as follows:

*Charismatic/Value-Based leadership*: Broadly defined to reflect the ability to inspire, motivate, and expect high performance outcomes from others based on firmly held core values.

*Team-Oriented leadership*: Emphasizes effective team building and implementation of a common purpose or goal among team members.

*Participative leadership*: Reflects the degree to which managers involve others in making and implementing decisions.

*Humane-Oriented leadership*: Reflects supportive and considerate leadership but also includes compassion and generosity.

*Autonomous leadership*: A newly defined global leadership dimension referring to independent and individualistic leadership attributes.

*Self-Protective leadership*: From a Western perspective, this newly defined global leadership dimension focuses on ensuring the safety and security of the individual and group through status enhancement and face-saving.

We believe the assessment of a wide variety of skills and behaviors in the GLOBE research instruments is a strength of our research. Many of the 21 primary leadership dimensions closely match those found in the research literature (e.g., visionary leadership). However, only some of the 6 “global” leadership dimensions, which were previously presented, match similar leadership dimensions found in previous cross-cultural research (e.g., Charismatic/Value-Based leadership). This discrepancy is likely due to several factors.

**Table 1.3** Global and Primary Culturally Endorsed Implicit Leadership Theory Dimensions and Attributes Comprising Each Dimension

Leadership Dimensions		Leadership Attributes
Global Leadership Dimensions	Primary Leadership Dimensions	
<b>I. Charismatic/Value-Based leadership (4.5–6.5)*</b>	Charismatic 1: Visionary	Foresight Prepared Anticipatory Plans ahead
	Charismatic 2: Inspirational	Enthusiastic Positive Morale booster Motive arouser
	Charismatic 3: Self-Sacrificial	Risk taker Self-sacrificial Convincing
	Integrity	Honest Sincere Just Trustworthy
	Decisive	Willful Decisive Logical Intuitive
	Performance oriented	Improvement-oriented Excellence-oriented Performance-oriented
<b>II. Team-Oriented leadership (4.7–6.2)</b>	Team 1: Collaborative team orientation	Group-oriented Collaborative Loyal Consultative
	Team 2: Team integrator	Communicative Team builder Informed Integrator

Leadership Dimensions		Leadership Attributes
Global Leadership Dimensions	Primary Leadership Dimensions	
	Diplomatic	Diplomatic Worldly Win-win problem solver Effective bargainer
	Malevolent (reverse scored)	Hostile Dishonest Vindictive Irritable
	Administratively competent	Orderly Administratively skilled Organized Good administrator
<b>III. Participative leadership (4.5–6.1)</b>	Nonparticipative (reverse scored)	Autocratic Dictatorial Bossy Elitist
	Autocratic (reverse scored)	Individually oriented Nondelegator Micromanager Nonegalitarian
<b>IV. Humane-Oriented leadership (3.8–5.6)</b>	Modesty	Modest Self-effacing Patient
	Humane orientation	Generous Compassionate
<b>V. Autonomous leadership (2.3–4.7)</b>	Autonomous	Individualistic Independent Autonomous Unique
<b>VI. Self-Protective leadership (2.5–4.6)</b>	Self-Centered	Self-Centered Nonparticipative Loner Asocial

(Continued)

(Continued)

Leadership Dimensions		Leadership Attributes
Global Leadership Dimensions	Primary Leadership Dimensions	
	Status conscious	Status conscious Class conscious
	Internally competitive (formerly labeled <i>conflict inducer</i> )	Secretive Normative Intragroup competitor
	Face-Saver	Indirect Avoids negatives Evasive
	Bureaucratic (formerly labeled <i>procedural</i> )	Habitual Procedural Ritualistic Formal

*Note:* \*The italicized dimensions are global CLT leadership dimensions. They consist of several primary CLT leadership dimensions. The only exception is dimension V (Autonomous), which consists of a single dimension of four questionnaire items. It is considered both a primary dimension and global dimension.

The parentheses represent the range of country scores for the 62 societal cultures on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*greatly inhibits*) to 7 (*contributes greatly*) to outstanding leadership found in GLOBE 2004.

First, most of the previous leadership theory and research was created almost solely in western countries. For example, the GLOBE Self-Protective leadership dimension contains five primary dimensions including face-saving and self-centered—aspects of leadership not previously identified in the Western literature. Second, our research suggests that many of the prior leadership constructs and models developed specifically to account for exceptional performance (e.g., transformational leadership) insufficiently captures the variety of leadership behaviors critical for outstanding leadership. Third, the GLOBE scales were derived to explain cultural leadership differences between societies whereas the extant leadership literature was developed to explain individual leadership differences within a single society.

Nevertheless, the reader might notice that three of the six global CLT leadership dimensions (Charismatic/Value-Based, Team Oriented, and Participative) are closely related to prior leadership constructs found in the leadership literature. The Humane-Oriented leadership dimension is also fairly closely related to supportive leadership, another well studied leadership construct. However, we found two leadership dimensions that have not been typically associated with “Western” oriented leadership: Autonomous

leadership, which emulates an independent and individualistic aspect of leadership, and Self-Protective, which may hold more negative connotations from a Western perspective since it has not been previously considered in the leadership literature. Eastern leadership perspectives such as face-saving and status consciousness are characteristics of this dimension that may be more important when viewed from a non-Western perspective.

## Universally Desirable Leadership Attributes and Dimensions

As noted by Yukl (2010), one of the most important research questions addressed in GLOBE is the extent to which there are uniform beliefs across cultures about effective leadership attributes. Our results indicated that of the 112 leadership attributes in the survey, 22 were identified as universally desirable. The worldwide grand mean score exceeded 6.0 on a 7-point scale and, 95% of the societal average scores for these attributes was greater than 5.0 on a 7-point scale. For example, the attributes of “trustworthy, just, and honest” met the criteria to be considered universally desirable (see Table 1.4).

Because these individual attributes were subsequently grouped into 21 primary leadership dimensions, GLOBE researchers were able to determine the extent to which the 21 dimensions are also universally desirable. The criteria for determining if a dimension is universally desirable were the same criteria used for the attributes previously identified. The mean ratings on these scales were above 6.0 and 95% of the societal average scores for these scales were greater than 5.0 on a 7-point scale. Therefore, GLOBE researchers determined that 4 of our 21 primary leadership *dimensions* met the criteria for universal desirability: (1) performance orientation, (2) visionary, (3) integrity, and (4) inspirational. What this means is that leaders in all GLOBE countries studied are expected to develop a vision, inspire others, and create a successful performance-oriented team within their organizations while behaving with honesty and integrity—easier said than done.

## Universally Undesirable Leadership Attributes and Dimensions

The following criteria were used for determining whether attribute was a universally undesirable attribute. The worldwide grand mean score for the attribute had to be less than 3.0 on a 7-point scale, and 95% of the societal average scores for the attribute were less than 3.0 on a 7-point scale. Eight leadership attributes were identified as universally undesirable (e.g., attributes including irritable, egocentric, ruthless, dictatorial). Going up a level of analysis from the individual attribute level to our primary leadership dimension level, not unexpectedly we found that the “malevolent” primary dimension met our criteria for a universally undesirable leadership dimension (i.e., 95% of the countries rated it lower than a 3.0 and its grand mean score was less than 3.0).

**Table 1.4** Societal Ratings for Universally Desirable, Undesirable, and Culturally Contingent Leadership Attributes

Leadership Attribute	Universally Positive		Universally Negative		Culturally Contingent						
	Ratings		Leadership Attribute	Ratings		Leadership Attribute	Ratings				
	Mean	SD		Mean	SD		Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Range
Trustworthy	6.36	0.39	Nonexplicit	2.30	0.35	Ambitious	5.85	0.61	2.69	6.73	4.04
Dynamic	6.28	0.34	Dictatorial	2.12	0.45	Logical	5.84	0.44	3.89	6.58	2.69
Decisive	6.21	0.33	Loner	2.07	0.40	Sincere	5.83	0.59	3.99	6.55	2.56
Intelligent	6.18	0.38	Ruthless	2.06	0.42	Enthusiastic	5.74	0.53	3.72	6.44	2.72
Dependable	6.17	0.36	Asocial	2.05	0.49	Intuitive	5.72	0.51	3.72	6.47	2.75
Plans ahead	6.17	0.37	Egocentric	2.02	0.39	Orderly	5.58	0.42	3.81	6.34	2.53
Excellence oriented	6.16	0.42	Irritable	1.98	0.34	Willful	5.47	0.84	2.98	6.48	3.51
Team builder	6.15	0.39	Noncooperative	1.69	0.35	Worldly	5.18	0.70	2.48	6.54	4.05
Encouraging	6.14	0.29				Self-sacrificial	5.06	0.60	3.07	5.96	2.88
Confidence builder	6.14	0.34				Sensitive	4.83	0.87	1.95	6.35	4.39
Informed	6.13	0.41				Intragroup competitor	4.70	0.68	3.00	6.49	3.49
Honest	6.11	0.45				Compassionate	4.63	0.64	2.69	5.56	2.88
Effective bargainer	6.10	0.39				Procedural	4.62	0.72	3.03	6.10	3.06
Motive arouser	6.07	0.51				Unique	4.61	0.49	3.47	6.06	2.59
Win-win problem solver	6.06	0.36				Status conscious	4.51	0.73	1.92	5.89	3.97
Positive	6.04	0.45				Formal	4.37	0.63	2.22	5.47	3.25
Foresight	6.02	0.33				Risk taker	4.13	0.74	2.14	5.96	3.82

Universally Positive			Universally Negative			Culturally Contingent					
Leadership Attribute	Ratings		Leadership Attribute	Ratings		Leadership Attribute	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Range
	Mean	SD		Mean	SD						
Just	6.02	0.37				Class conscious	4.11	0.76	2.53	6.09	3.55
Communicative	6.02	0.48				Intragroup conflict avoider	4.00	1.04	1.84	5.74	3.90
Motivational	6.00	0.39				Independent	3.94	0.68	1.67	5.28	3.61
Coordinator	6.00	0.40				Self-effacing	3.94	0.86	1.82	5.23	3.41
Administrative skilled	6.00	0.50				Autonomous	3.79	0.77	1.63	5.14	3.51
						Cautious	3.73	0.77	2.03	5.81	3.77
						Evasive	3.33	0.82	1.52	5.67	4.14
						Domineering	3.20	0.76	1.60	5.14	3.54
						Habitual	3.17	0.66	1.86	5.38	3.51
						Individualistic	3.14	0.78	1.67	5.99	4.32
						Indirect	3.01	0.56	2.16	4.86	2.70
						Subdued	3.00	1.17	1.27	6.18	4.90
						Micromanager	2.86	0.80	1.38	5.00	3.62
						Elitist	2.74	0.77	1.61	5.00	3.39
						Ruler	2.67	0.64	1.66	5.24	3.58
						Cunning	2.47	0.95	1.26	6.38	5.11
						Provocateur	2.44	0.85	1.38	6.00	4.62

Note: Numbers represent mean values for the 64 societal cultures on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*greatly inhibits*) to 7 (*contributes greatly*) to outstanding leadership. These data represent the original data of the 62 countries published previously (House et al., 2004) plus an additional two countries added to the data set (Estonia and Romania). *SD* = standard deviation.

Scores above 4 indicate this CLT leadership dimension contributes to outstanding leadership.

Scores below 4 indicate this CLT leadership dimension inhibits outstanding leadership.

## Culturally Contingent Leadership Attributes and Dimensions

From a cross-cultural perspective, however, the most interesting attributes and dimensions are those that are *culturally contingent*—desirable in some cultures, of neutral importance in some, and undesirable in others. We might expect that cultures differ on the effectiveness of specific leadership qualities given that cultural attitudes differ in their conceptions and favorability of the leadership construct itself. From the original 112 attributes, GLOBE found that 35 attributes should be considered as culturally contingent. These attributes yielded country-level scores above and below the scale midpoint of 4 (scale range of 1 to 7). A look at these attributes proved informative. By definition they are desirable in some cultures and undesirable in others, such as the attribute “ambitious” (with a societal score ranging from 2.85 to 6.73). “Elitist” is another example, with a societal score range of 1.61 to 5.00. From a humanistic perspective, one might predict that being compassionate and sensitive might be universally endorsed; however, they were not. From a Western perspective, one might also expect that being cunning and domineering would be universally refuted, but they were also culturally contingent. Many of these attributes fell into the self-centered and autonomous primary leadership dimensions. For instance, although the attribute “individualistic” had a grand culture mean of 3.11 (slightly inhibits outstanding leadership), individual national culture scores ranged from a low of 1.67 (somewhat inhibits) to a high of 5.10 (slightly contributes). Similarly, the attribute status conscious ranged in value from a low of 1.92 (somewhat inhibits) to a high of 5.77 (moderately contributes).

Going up a level of analysis from the 112 individual attributes to our 21 primary leadership dimensions, we found 7 primary leadership dimensions to be culturally contingent (Javidan et al., 2010). They are as follows:

1. *Self-Sacrificial* (country scores range from 3.92 to 6.07): This dimension indicates an ability to convince followers to invest their efforts in activities that do not have a high probability of success, to forgo their self-interest, and make personal sacrifices for the goal or vision.
2. *Status conscious* (country scores range from 2.34 to 5.81): This dimension reflects a consciousness of one’s own and others’ social position, holding an elitist belief that some individuals deserve more privileges than others.
3. *Internally competitive* (formerly labeled conflict inducer; country scores range from 2.92 to 5.04): This dimension reflects the tendency to encourage competition within a group and may include concealing information in a secretive manner.
4. *Face-Saver* (country scores range from 2.01 to 4.75): This leadership dimension reflects the tendency to ensure followers are not embarrassed

or shamed, maintains good relationships by refraining from making negative comments, and instead uses metaphors and examples.

5. *Bureaucratic* (formerly labeled procedural; country scores range from 2.79 to 4.95): This dimension emphasizes following established norms, rules, policies and procedures and habitually follows regular routines.
6. *Humane orientation* (country scores range from 3.31 to 5.59): This dimension emphasizes empathy for others by giving time, money, resources, and assistance when needed; shows concern for followers' personal and group welfare.
7. *Autonomous* (country scores range from 2.23 to 4.67): This dimension describes tendencies to act independently without relying on others; it may also include self-governing behavior and a preference to work and act separately from others.

## Which GLOBE Cultural Dimensions Influence Leadership Expectations?

We employed hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) (Hofmann, 1997; Hofmann, Griffin, & Gavin, 2000) to test for relationships among GLOBE's cultural dimensions and the six global CLT dimensions. In GLOBE 2004, we presented findings that linked specific cultural dimensions (e.g., Performance Orientation values) to specific leadership dimensions (e.g., Team-Oriented leadership). This linkage indicated the relationships between cultures scoring high or low on each cultural dimension and the desirability of specific leadership dimensions thought to contribute to outstanding leadership. That is, for *each* of the six *global leadership dimensions*, we found significant relationships predicting their desirability based on GLOBE cultural dimension *values* (see Table 1.5). As an example, note that Participative leadership is highly desirable in societies that also value Performance Orientation, Gender Egalitarianism, and Humane Orientation cultural dimensions; however, Participative leadership is not highly desired in societies with high values for Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Assertiveness. Thus, the Germanic European and Anglo cultures were strong supporters of Participative leadership, whereas the Confucian Asian and Eastern European cultures were less supportive.

To further understand the relationships between culture and leadership, we employed HLM to test for congruence among GLOBE's nine cultural dimensions and the seven culturally contingent primary leadership dimensions. Relationships among cultural dimension values and the culturally contingent leadership primary dimensions are presented in Table 1.6. As one example of our findings, we can see the effect Power Distance values have on several leadership dimensions. High Power Distance values are positively

**Table 1.5** Societal Culture Dimensions as Predictors of Culturally Endorsed Implicit Leadership Theory (CLT) Leadership Dimensions

Societal Culture Dimensions (values)	Culturally Endorsed Implicit Leadership Theory Leadership Dimensions					
	Charismatic/ Value-Based Leadership	Participative Leadership	Self-Protective Leadership	Humane-Oriented Leadership	Team-Oriented Leadership	Autonomous Leadership
Performance Orientation	++	++	-	+	+	++
Humane Orientation	+	++		++	+	--
Uncertainty Avoidance		--	++	++	++	
In-Group Collectivism	++		-		++	
Power Distance	--	--	++			
Gender Egalitarianism	++	++	--			
Future Orientation	+			+	+	
Assertiveness		-		++		
Institutional Collectivism						--

*Note:* + indicates a positive relationship between the culture dimension and CLT; ++ indicates strong positive relationship between the culture dimension and CLT; - indicates a negative relationship between the culture dimension and CLT; -- indicates a strong negative relationship between the culture dimension and CLT.

associated with high desirability of status conscious, bureaucratic, and internally competitive leadership. Conversely, we can examine each leadership dimension and see which culture dimensions are influential. For instance, bureaucratic leadership was viewed as contributing to outstanding leadership in societal cultures that highly valued Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance, and Institutional Collectivism. Javidan and colleagues (2010) have provided a full description of all culturally contingent findings.

In summary, GLOBE researchers verified through carefully developed measures and analyses that although some leadership qualities are positively desired or negatively undesired across the world (vision and malevolence, respectively), others are not (compassionate). We also believe that culturally contingent leadership qualities will be most problematic for leaders acting in multinational contexts.

**Table 1.6** Relationships Among GLOBE's Cultural Dimensions and Culturally Contingent Leadership Dimensions

	Uncertainty Avoidance	Power Distance	Institutional Collectivism	Humane Orientation	Performance Orientation	In-Group Collectivism	Assertiveness	Gender Egalitarianism
Status Conscious	++	++					--	-
Bureaucratic	++	++	++		-			
Autonomous			--		-	--		
Face-Saver				+	--		-	
Humane Orientation				++			-	
Self-Sacrificial			++		++	++		
Internally Competitive		++				-	+	--

Note: + indicates positive hypothesized relationship; ++ indicates positive hypothesis and results that support hypothesis; - indicates negative hypothesized relationship; -- indicates negative hypothesis and results that support hypothesis.

## Country Clusters and Ideal Leadership Qualities

The regional clustering of the GLOBE cultural dimensions was based on a conceptual and empirical process with significant involvement of the country co-investigators (CCIs) (Gupta & Hanges, 2004). The initial 10 societal grouping of GLOBE participant countries was increased to 11 with the addition of countries in the South Pacific. The current societal groupings of the GLOBE participant countries are the following: Anglo, Eastern Europe, Latin America, Latin Europe, Confucian Asia, Nordic Europe, Sub-Saharan Africa, Southern Asia, Germanic Europe, South Pacific, and Middle East. GLOBE expected that these cultural clusters would be helpful for understanding the CLT prototypes (i.e., individuals' belief systems about what contributes to or impedes outstanding leadership) that exist in the societies comprising our 10 culture clusters. In practical terms, clusters offer a valuable framework for handling the intricacies of multicultural ventures. That is, the knowledge that managers gain from cluster information may enable them to appreciate the application of particular management practices, policies, and human resources across cultural boundaries. Each cluster has its own expectations with regard to desired leadership qualities. Table 1.7 provides a summary of leadership expectations in all country clusters (with the exception of the South Pacific cluster that was new to the current CEO project).

In concert with the culture-specific view of leadership, GLOBE 2004 reported that clusters of associated countries (such as those found in Latin American or Germanic European groupings) differed with respect to their perceived importance of specific leadership attributes necessary for outstanding leadership. For instance, Latin American managers viewed team orientation as being much more important than the German managers did whereas the German managers viewed participation as more important than did the Latin American managers. Large cross-cultural differences concerning the importance of attributes such as “cunning, compassionate, or cautious” attest to the variety of beliefs regarding effective leadership (Javidan, Dorfman, et al., 2006). However, in contrast to these “culture-specific” beliefs, GLOBE also found considerable universality in positively viewed attributes such as “being trustworthy, just, and honest,” or negatively viewed attributes such as “loner, ruthless, and egocentric.” We concur with Bass (2008) when he noted that “images of the ideal leader, *prototypes*, tend to vary from one country and culture to another, at the same time, some prototypical traits generalize across countries” (p. 1021).

Differences of opinion about effective leadership also exist among countries within a culture cluster (e.g., Anglo or Latin American cluster). For instance, in New Zealand (Anglo cluster) there is a strong tendency to reject the “tall poppy” and enforce the “tall poppy syndrome” where New Zealanders are likely to cut down to size those who consider themselves high achievers. Lack of deference to anyone in a leadership position is a

**Table 1.7** Ranking of Societal Clusters Using Absolute Culturally Endorsed Implicit Leadership Theory (CLT) Scores

<b>Charismatic/ Value-Based Leadership</b>	<b>Team-Oriented Leadership</b>	<b>Participative Leadership</b>	<b>Humane-Oriented Leadership</b>	<b>Autonomous Leadership</b>	<b>Self-Protective Leadership</b>
<i>higher</i>	<i>higher</i>	<i>higher</i>	<i>higher</i>	<i>higher</i>	<i>higher</i>
Anglo L. America Southern Asia Germanic E. Nordic E.	L. America	Germanic E. Nordic E. Anglo	Southern Asia Sub-Saharan A. Anglo	E. Europe <sup>1</sup> Germanic E. Confucian A. Southern Asia Nordic E.	Southern Asia Middle East Confucian A. E. Europe
Sub-Saharan A. L. Europe E. Europe Confucian A.	E. Europe Southern Asia Nordic E. Anglo L. Europe Sub-Saharan A. Germanic E. Confucian A.	L. America L. Europe Sub-Saharan A.	Confucian A. L. America Middle East E. Europe Germanic E.	Anglo Middle East L. Europe Sub-Saharan A. L. America	L. America Sub-Saharan A. L. Europe
Middle East	Middle East	E. Europe Southern Asia Confucian A. Middle East	L. Europe Nordic E.		Anglo Germanic E. Nordic E.
<i>lower</i>	<i>lower</i>	<i>lower</i>	<i>lower</i>	<i>lower</i>	<i>lower</i>
Charismatic/ Value-Based Leadership	Team-Oriented Leadership	Participative Leadership	Humane-Oriented Leadership	Autonomous Leadership	Self-Protective Leadership

*Note:* The placement of each societal cluster indicates the relative rank of this cluster compared with other clusters with regard to the size of the absolute scores on this dimension. For example, the Anglo cluster is the highest in rank for Charismatic/Value-Based leadership, indicating that this leader dimension had the highest score (absolute measure) compared with other clusters. Using the Tukey HSD (or honestly significant difference) analysis, clusters in the top band are significantly different from those in the bottom band. The clusters in the middle band are placed between these extremes for heuristic purposes. Societal clusters within each block are not significantly different from each other.

L. America = Latin America; Germanic E = Germanic Europe; Nordic E. = Nordic Europe; Sub-Saharan A. = Sub-Saharan Africa; L. Europe = Latin Europe; Eastern E. = Eastern Europe; Confucian A. = Confucian Asia;

<sup>1</sup>Societal clusters in this column are ranked in order; however, there are no significant differences among them.

norm in responding to New Zealand leaders (Kennedy, 2007). Indeed, a strong egalitarian position and high levels of participation are expected of leaders. In contrast, in the United States (also in the Anglo cluster), Americans romanticize leaders and treat them as cultural heroes. They are considered special individuals who are often ascribed superhuman attributes and who carry the hopes and fears of others (Hoppe & Bhagat, 2007) despite overwhelming evidence that attributions to leadership influence are often overblown (Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Pfeffer, 1977).

## **GLOBE Leadership and Culture: Summary of Specific Findings From GLOBE 2004 and GLOBE 2007 and Why We Initiated GLOBE 2013**

---

To summarize, the GLOBE research program was designed to develop and test elements of a unified leadership theory that integrates what we already know about leadership effectiveness within a cross-cultural framework (House et al., 2004). Our meta-goal was to integrate these streams of research to predict both organizational and societal leadership effectiveness. The GLOBE project, as reported in GLOBE 2004 and GLOBE 2007, made significant progress in accomplishing many of our initial objectives. We found that it was possible to develop psychometrically sound instruments to measure cultural practices and values. In testing our theory, we also found significant relationships among many cultural dimensions and economic success and societal human welfare. In addition, countries with similar cultural norms and values were identified and their GLOBE groupings validated.

We were also able to determine which cultural forces primarily drive expectations that individuals have for their prototypical leaders and the behaviors expected to be enacted by their leaders. Further, we found that expected leadership styles vary in accordance with culturally specific values and expectations. For instance, using multilevel statistical analysis (hierarchical linear modeling, or HLM), we found that Participative leadership is highly desired in societies that value Performance Orientation, Gender Egalitarianism, and Humane Orientation but is less desired in societies with high cultural values for Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Assertiveness. Thus, the Germanic European and Anglo cultures were strong supporters of Participative leadership whereas the Confucian Asian and Eastern European cultures were less supportive of this leadership style (see Table 1.5). However, while it may be somewhat of a cliché, for each question answered in GLOBE 2004 and GLOBE 2007 we identified several others that became the focus and rationale for this, the third phase of the GLOBE project.

In the new GLOBE Phase 3 CEO study reported in this book, we sought to answer additional questions that have significant theoretical and practical

applications to leadership success and organizational behavior. Our efforts were partly guided by the belief that while executives are likely to have the greatest influence on organizational success, surprisingly the study of executive effectiveness across cultures is remarkably scant. As Wang, Waldman, and Zhang (2012) noted, most research on strategic leadership has been conducted in Western countries, especially in the United States. It simply isn't clear if, how, or when executive leadership might be sensitive to cultural influences. While several excellent scholarly books and articles on executive leadership provide useful insights, there is no unified theory specifically addressing cultural influences. To add to the considerable complexity of leadership research, the globalization process marches unabated, but as Kwok Leung and colleagues (2005) pointed out, studies of cross-cultural leadership lag embarrassingly behind the more practical concerns and interests of multinational firms.

Our decision to proceed with the GLOBE Phase 3 CEO study was partially due to the scarcity of theoretically based knowledge regarding how culture affects leadership, as well as practical concerns related to CEOs leading a multinational workforce. The following research question guided our project: What is the *process* or mechanisms by which national cultures influence *executive* leadership behaviors? We know from a substantial variety of cross-cultural leadership studies that culture partly shapes leadership processes, but we know much less about the precise mechanisms by which it does so. We intend to test our belief that leadership expectations within a culture explain the “how and why” of leader behavior in that culture. If leadership expectations (exemplified by a country's CLTs) are important, then shouldn't CEO success be predicated on the match between culturally desirable leadership qualities and actual executive leadership? The obvious answer to this question is *yes*—to be effective, leaders should “walk the talk” expected of them. Unfortunately, the importance of this match between follower expectations and leader behavior remains speculative; in fact, some leaders have succeeded by behaving counter to societal norms and pursuing a countercultural style. A case in point is the brilliant Steve Jobs, cofounder of Apple, whose domineering, aggressive, and intense personality (Deutschman, 2000), ran counter to the U.S. penchant for a more participative leadership style.

Another question relates to the actual effectiveness of specific leadership behaviors. Fortunately, based on decades of leadership research (e.g., Bass, 2008; Yukl, 2010), we can predict that certain leadership styles will be more strongly related to organizational success than others; however, research is much less clear as to which leadership styles are most sensitive to cultural influences. We will also investigate the prevailing “common wisdom” among academics that there are universally effective leadership behaviors such as those found within a Charismatic/Value-Based leadership style. Not to give too much away at this point, but as we were conducting this CEO study we came up with many additional fascinating questions and issues

that were not part of the original study objectives. For instance, is it possible to delineate and empirically characterize the truly superior from inferior CEOs, and do the characteristics or qualities of these “quality” CEOs remain invariant across cultures? Here is another question that surfaced as we progressed with the study: Is the prevailing adage found in both popular and academic research true—that visionary leadership, not effective management, separates truly effective CEOs from those who are less effective? The answer might surprise you as to which leadership dimensions are most important from the 21 leadership behaviors measured in the current project.

The following chapter reviews and examines the cross-cultural leadership literature to help us define what critical questions remain unanswered regarding effective leadership across cultures. This review also resolves methodological issues in the research design related to the numerous challenges presented when conducting a cross-cultural study (e.g., common source variance). The literature review leads to Chapter 3 where research questions for the present project are presented as formal research objectives. It is here that we discuss what we know and don’t know regarding the tangled web of culture and leadership. Because the extant literature on *executive* leadership across cultures is scant, we need to rely on the GLOBE integrated theory, cross-cultural leadership studies of mid-level managers, and studies of executive leadership conducted within a specific culture (e.g., Wang, Tsui & Xin, 2011). Chapter 2 presents a literature review of current knowledge about leadership considered from a cross-cultural perspective. Chapter 3 further describes the theoretical rationale for our GLOBE Phase 3 CEO study and presents research objectives addressed by our current research.