

MANAGERS' NATIONAL CULTURE AND ITS IMPACT ON RESPONSE STYLES IN A
GLOBAL MULTINATIONAL COMPANY

by

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B.S., Texas A&M University, 1995
M.S., Kansas State University, 2000

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

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Abstract

Corporations spend tens of millions of dollars each year to conduct organizational surveys and report the results. It is imperative that survey results provide clear, actionable results to organizational leaders for an employee survey program to be effective. To the extent that survey results are impacted by response style biases, organizations cannot be certain their actions address real issues. The following research examines the impact of managers' national culture on the response styles of their employees. Power distance is a construct that reflects how different cultures address inequality. In this study, power distance scores for managers are hypothesized to be predictive of employee response style behavior such that power distance is positively associated with greater extreme responding and lower acquiescence. Additionally, individualism/collectivism scores for managers are hypothesized to be predictive of employee response style behavior such that individualism is positively associated with greater extreme responding and negatively associated with acquiescence.

Overall, results did not support the key hypotheses of the study. While employees from high power distance countries did display higher levels of extreme responding than employees from low power distance countries (Hypothesis 1), none of the other three hypotheses were supported. Despite this lack of significant results, this single result supports Johnson, et al.'s (2005) results from a sample of over eighteen-thousand employees in nineteen countries suggesting it is a consistent, real difference between high and low power distance countries. There were several limitations to be considered in evaluating this research. First, the study was based on archival data limiting the flexibility of the design and analysis. Another key limitation that should be addressed in future research is the use of abstracted cultural trait scores. Despite the lack of significant results and the limitations of this study, the fact remains that differences in response behaviors do exist across different cultures and geographic locations. Further research is needed to more clearly understand the influence that geographic culture, organizational culture and individual level demographics may have on employee response styles to help facilitate how organizations understand survey results.

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate my dissertation to my parents, Stephen and Joyce Mutschink.
Thanks for everything!

CHAPTER 1 - Introduction

Employee surveys have become indispensable tools for many of the largest global corporations. From assessing key drivers of employee behavior and engagement to helping align key global, strategic initiatives, employee surveys provide critical decision-making information to corporate leaders (Scott & Mastrangelo, 2005). A quick scan of corporate survey consortia membership (e.g. The Mayflower Group, Information Technology Survey Group) indicates that many of the largest and most respected companies in the world conduct employee surveys. Corporations from a wide number of industries such as information technology (IBM, SAP, HP, Microsoft), oil, gas and energy (Royal Dutch Shell, Duke Energy), manufacturing (Boeing, Ford, General Motors), consumer goods (PepsiCo, Sears, Target Corporation) and finance (Citigroup, American Express, Washington Mutual) use employee surveys as strategic business tools (<http://www.mayflowergroup.org>; <http://www.itsg.org>).

Employee surveys have become popular tools in large organizations partly because of their perceived simplicity (Johnson, Mastrangelo, & Jolton, 2005). At face value, surveys appear to be quick, easy tools – simply write questions, distribute the surveys, collect the data and produce reports. However, this simplicity belies the many significant challenges in conducting surveys, particularly in multinational corporations operating around the globe. A short list of the challenges facing organizations conducting surveys globally would include translation issues, measurement procedure issues, equivalence, cultural norms and response style bias (Arce-Ferrer & Ketterer, 2003; van Herk, Poortinga, & Verhallen, 2004; Kraut, 2006). Additionally, these challenges are often closely related to one another. For example, while accurate translation is necessary to help ensure measurement equivalence, it does not guarantee equivalence. Further analyses and validation are required to ensure the survey is measuring the same constructs across cultures and geographic regions (Arce-Ferrer & Ketterer, 2003).

In multinational companies conducting surveys, these challenges often combine to make interpreting survey results problematic. For example, assume that the results from Country A are significantly higher than those from Country B. Management might wonder whether the difference is due to a real organizational issue or perhaps translation issues, regional differences, functional differences (e.g. sales vs. support orientation within location), societal norms, cultural

norms, and so on. If the result is not due to an organizational issue, management may begin a series of actions to address the issue which could have no impact on the results, wasting valuable time and limited resources. It is imperative that survey results provide clear, actionable results to organization leaders for an employee survey program to be effective (Johnson, et al., 2005). Over the past decades, the efforts of many researchers have helped to provide a better understanding of these challenges and how they impact employee survey efforts.

Cross Cultural Survey Research

Increasingly, globalization is drawing the cultures of the world together and changing the world of business. Globalization, while providing many opportunities, presents a number of challenges to organizations. Of these challenges, one of the most important is to understand the different cultural values and practices of people from different parts of the world (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). One of the first and most important studies to examine different cultural values and practices globally was conducted by Geert Hofstede (1980).

Hofstede (2001, p. 9) defined culture as “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another.” In this rather broad definition, mind includes all aspects of experience, including thinking, feeling, behaviors, attitudes, skills and values (Hofstede, 2001). In his landmark book *Culture’s Consequences* (1980), Hofstede used survey data from IBM to identify four cultural dimensions that differ across societies. Power Distance refers to the psychological distance between a supervisor and employee. Cultures high in Power Distance are typically more authoritarian where acquiescence to superiors is stressed. Uncertainty Avoidance refers to the ability of individuals in a culture to tolerate ambiguity. Individualism refers to the importance members of a culture place on individual goals versus collective goals for the group. Finally, Masculinity refers to whether there is a competitive, rather than cooperative, environment generally present in a culture. In his follow-up research, Hofstede identified a fifth dimension that differentiated cultures based on short-term versus long-term orientation (Hofstede, 2001).

Hofstede’s research inspired countless other researchers and has become one of the most cited sources in the social sciences (Hofstede, 2001). With regard to survey practice leaders in multinational corporations, Hofstede’s work provides some insight into why scores may differ

from country to country. However, the study has many drawbacks. As noted by Scott and Mastrangelo (2006), Hofstede's work is limited to one organization headquartered in the United States and does not represent a full range of organizations or job types. Additionally, "although Hofstede's data were collected from sixty-five countries and fifty occupations, only a few large countries contained all occupations, and only a few occupations (for example, sales representatives and office clerks) occurred in all countries" (Scott & Mastrangelo, 2006, p. 503).

More recent research has attempted to extend Hofstede's efforts and account for many of the drawbacks noted. One of the most ambitious research projects related to cultural research in recent years has been the GLOBE study conducted by House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta (2004). GLOBE, which is short for Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program, is a global, multiphase, multimethod project aimed at understanding leadership behaviors, organizational practices, organization cultures, societal cultures and the relationships between them (House, et al., 2004). For the GLOBE study, culture was defined as the "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations" (House, et al., 2004, p. 15).

In contrast to the single organization used in Hofstede's work, the GLOBE study collected data from individuals in 951 domestic companies in three industries from sixty-two countries. Additionally, respondents were asked questions to assess both the cultural values (e.g. how things should be) and cultural practices (e.g. how things actually are) (House, et al., 2004). House, et al. (2004) also expanded Hofstede's original four dimensions of culture to nine dimensions – Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance, Institutional Collectivism, In-Group Collectivism, Gender Egalitarianism, Assertiveness, Future Orientation, Performance Orientation, and Humane Orientation.

The GLOBE study provided a wealth of research findings related to leadership behaviors, organizational and societal practices, cultures and the relationships between them (House, et al., 2004). For example, the researchers were able to cluster the various countries based on response similarities into 10 groups (see Table 1.1) as opposed to the 8 groups found in Hofstede's (2001) work. This is likely due to the larger number of countries available for analysis in the GLOBE study (62 versus 40) (House, et al., 2004).

Table 1.1 GLOBE Study Country Clusters

| Cluster | Countries |
|--------------------|--|
| Anglo | Australia, Canada, England, Ireland, New Zealand, United States, South Africa (white respondents) |
| Confucian Asia | China, Hong Kong, Japan, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan |
| Eastern Europe | Albania, Georgia, Greece, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Poland, Russia, Slovenia |
| Germanic Europe | Austria, Germany, Netherlands, Switzerland |
| Latin America | Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, Venezuela |
| Latin Europe | France, Israel, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland (French speaking) |
| Middle East | Egypt, Kuwait, Morocco, Qatar, Turkey |
| Nordic Europe | Denmark, Finland, Sweden |
| Southern Asia | India, Indonesia, Iran, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand |
| Sub-Saharan Africa | Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa (black respondents), Zambia, Zimbabwe |

The study also showed a strong relationship between societal and organizational culture – organizations’ cultures reflect the societies from which they originate. Other findings show the relationship between cultural dimensions and measures of societal achievement, the cultural dimensions that predict culturally endorsed leadership dimensions, and the impact of industry context on societal and organizational cultural dimensions (House, et al., 2004).

While the GLOBE study provides numerous illuminating findings, it has its own set of shortcomings that should be considered when reviewing their results. The data sample consists of responses from mid-level managers only – line employees and other levels of management are not included – and the sample is predominantly male (75%) (House, et al., 2004). Additionally, the companies included in the study are domestic companies – no multinational companies are included in the analysis. Both of these factors strongly influence the generalizability of the results, particularly to large, global corporations. In fact, more recent research has provided results counter to the GLOBE study with regard to organizational versus societal cultures’ impact on survey responses (Mastrangelo, Johnson, & Jolton, 2005). In an attempt to replicate the GLOBE study’s findings with two multinational corporations, results suggested that

organizational culture and practices have a greater influence on employee responses than geographic (societal) culture. This result indicates that geographic culture may play a greater role in local organizations (e.g. GLOBE study sample), while organizational culture may shape employee perceptions more in global corporations (Mastrangelo, et al., 2005).

This finding is particularly interesting to the ongoing globalization debate. Globalization is typically viewed as a process of convergence of cultural, economic, political and technological aspects of life (Giddens, 1999). One assumption within the globalization literature is that knowledge and ideas move more quickly within organizational boundaries than across organizational boundaries (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989). Because of this ability, global corporations can facilitate the adoption of organizational practices and technologies across international borders more easily than domestic companies (Mueller, 1994).

At the same time, cultures, particularly national cultures, are extremely resistant to change (Hofstede, 2001). While change often comes from external influences such as trade, economic factors, political upheaval, and technological breakthroughs, cultural shifts often take decades to occur if at all. Contrary to the convergence hypothesis of the 1960's, the world has not been led to a single, common society (Hofstede, 2001). This result is mirrored in many multinational companies operating in a global context today. While corporate policies and practices may be disseminated from headquarters, subsidiaries often play different roles within the overall corporate strategy and require unique local management practices and policies consistent with local regulations (Nohria & Ghoshal, 1997; Harzing, 1999).

Types of Response Style Biases

In addition to research on cultural differences in responses to surveys, other researchers have examined other explanations for those differences. For example, research on response style bias has been conducted for over 50 years, with published research reaching back to World War II (Cronbach, 1946). Paulhaus (1991, p. 17) defined response bias as “a systematic tendency to respond to a range of questionnaire items on some other basis than the specific item content.” Determining the existence and extent of response style bias is critical to understanding whether respondent answers actually reflect their true opinions or knowledge. This is particularly true in cross-cultural research where comparisons of very different cultural group responses can be

misinterpreted due to response styles or other cultural artifacts (Johnson, Kulesa, Cho, & Shavitt, 2005).

In the 1940's, initial research was conducted on the problem of response bias. Early research focused on response sets – temporary attributes of a situation that influenced responses and were not related to content (Cronbach, 1950). The idea of a response set suggests that removing or accounting for certain temporary attributes (e.g. time pressure, item format) would remove any bias from the measurement. However, research indicated that some response sets were generally stable, suggesting there may be some aspects of personality involved in the respondent's behavior as well. In order to account for this consistent bias across time and situations, the term response style was introduced by Jackson and Messick (1958). Today, researchers use both terms (Cheung & Resvold, 2000; Bachman & O'Malley, 1984; Greenleaf, 1992). For purposes of this paper, the term response style was used, referring to the tendency of individuals to respond in a manner that has consistency across situations.

A review of the research literature indicates there are three main types of response style bias – social desirability, acquiescence, and extreme response style. Social desirability involves responding to questionnaire items that consistently make the respondent look good in terms of the norms prevalent in the respondent's culture (Paulhaus, 1991; Mick 1996). Research on personality measures commonly includes social desirability scales to assess response bias of participants (Lalwani, Shavitt, & Johnson, 2006.). Evidence from a wide range of studies indicate socially desirable responding can distort the reporting of sexual attitudes, deviant behaviors, racist attitudes and many other attitudes, beliefs and behaviors (Lalwani et al., 2006).

Acquiescence is the tendency to agree or disagree with an item regardless of the content of the item (Harzing, 2006). Results from a number of empirical studies indicate acquiescence is strongly related to respondents' cultural background. For instance, van Herk, Poortinga and Verhallen (2004) observed significant difference in acquiescence across six European Union countries. Greek respondents had the highest levels of acquiescence while Spanish and Italian respondents had significantly higher levels of acquiescent responding than British, German and French respondents. Other studies have shown that Kazakhs have higher levels of acquiescence than Russians (Javeline, 1999) and Germans have higher levels of acquiescence than British respondents (Brenghelmann, 1959).

Extreme response style refers to the tendency to choose the extreme ends of a rating scale regardless of the item content (Arce-Ferrer, 2006). Similar to acquiescence, extreme response style differences have been found in a number of cultural groups (Johnson, et al., 2005). Within the United States, differences between Caucasians, Latinos and African Americans have been reported (Bachman & O'Malley, 1984; Hui & Triandis, 1989) while in cross cultural studies differences have been seen in Americans and Japanese respondents (Stening & Everett, 1984) and French and Australian respondents (Clarke, 2000).

Response Styles and Cultural Dimensions

In recent years, many researchers have examined the relationship between the three response styles identified above and the cultural dimensions outlined by Hofstede (2001) and House et al. (2004). While previous research had examined response differences between cultural groups (e.g. American vs. Japanese), these efforts were typically limited by using few groups (generally 2-3 groups) and student samples (Harzing, 2006; Johnson et al., 2005).

In their study of response styles and cultural dimensions in 19 countries, Johnson, et al. (2005) hypothesized that cultures high in power distance and masculinity would be more likely to use extreme response styles. Their hypothesis was based on the assumption that those cultures would value precision, clarity and decisiveness in verbal declarations (e.g. survey response). Their findings supported the hypothesis – extreme responding was more prevalent in countries classified as high in power distance and masculinity (Johnson, et al., 2005). Similar results were found for the relationship between acquiescence and cultural dimensions. Acquiescence was less likely in individuals from highly Individualistic countries. This would seem intuitive as conformity is less common in individualistic societies (Johnson, et al., 2005). Acquiescence was also less prevalent in individuals from countries classified as Masculine. Because Masculine societies value decisive, assertive and daring action, it is not surprising to find that acquiescent responding is not a favored response pattern (Johnson, et al., 2005). Acquiescence was also displayed less in individuals from countries classified as high in Power Distance.

Harzing (2006) conducted a similar study examining the relationship between response styles and cultural studies in twenty-six countries. As before, power distance was found to be positively related to extreme responding (Harzing, 2006). Other findings indicate that uncertainty avoidance is associated with higher levels of acquiescence while individualism is related to

lower levels of acquiescence (Harzing, 2006). These results suggest that responses to employee surveys are strongly influenced by these cultural dimensions and must be taken into account when examining differences across countries within a multinational corporation (Johnson, et al., 2005).

While these studies provide important new findings in the exploration of differences in responses to surveys, they have their own shortcomings. While the measures used have good psychometric properties, they are unique to these studies, often developed post-hoc, and therefore limit the generalizability of these studies. Additionally, and perhaps most importantly, the respondents may not be representative of the countries within which they were sampled, making cross cultural comparisons impossible (Johnson, et al., 2005). Due to the confidential nature of many employee survey efforts, most companies are unable to determine the identity and national origin of each respondent or their manager. Because of this, responses used to determine scores in a country often include the responses of individuals that are not citizens of that country.

Manager Impact on Culture Dimensions and Response Styles

As noted earlier, culture can be defined as the “shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations” (House, et al., 2004, p. 15). While a great deal of research has been conducted to describe the differences between various national cultures, other research has been conducted to attempt to identify the causes for those differences. One such line of research relates to the impact of leaders within a particular group or organization. In general, researchers have found that organizational leaders typically make decisions (e.g. selection, structure, strategy) based on what is familiar and “makes sense” to them. What makes sense to these leaders is related to the values systems and schemas that reflect the values and schemas of their larger societal culture (Hanges, Lord, & Dickson, 2000). By acting in this manner, they tend to create organizations and groups that reflect their own societal culture (Giberson & Resick, 2001).

When a culture is strong, managers take an active role in shaping and defining the culture for employees through their actions (e.g. selection, promotion, and rewarding of employees) and interactions with employees. As noted by Deal and Kennedy (2000, p. 15), “in a weak culture,

employees waste a good deal of time just trying to figure out what they should do and how they should do it.” Managers must realize their critical role in establishing and maintaining organizational culture. “The attitudes, values and behaviors of an institution begin with its leadership. This is done through role modeling and communication at all levels (Kane-Urrabazo, 2006, p. 193).”

An extension of this idea is outlined in Schneider’s (1987) Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) model. Briefly, this model suggests that people are differentially attracted to organizations based on their own interests and personality, organizations select people they feel are compatible with various jobs within the organization, and people will leave an organization when they do not fit in (Schneider, 1987). Further, the ASA model postulates that this tendency to act in manner that reflects their culture will result in leaders creating homogeneous organizations on a number of dimensions, including personality, values and perceptions (Schneider, Smith, Taylor, & Fleenor, 1998; Haudek, 2001). In short, they create an organization that attracts certain people, whom they tend to select, and those who don’t match tend to leave.

Additionally, because the role of a manager often includes influencing and rewarding employees’ behavior and activities, they may modify employee behavior – knowingly or unknowingly. Bandura (1977) described how this might occur in his social learning theory. Social learning theory postulates that learning occurs in a social context – people can learn from one another, for example, by observation, imitation and modeling. Additionally, learning can be reinforced in a variety of ways – by the behavior, another person, or vicariously through observing the reinforcement of others (Bandura, 1977). For effective learning to occur, four conditions must be met. First, the person must pay attention. Second, the person must be able to retain or remember what you have paid attention to, allowing the person to reproduce it again later. Third, the person must have the ability to replicate the behavior or action. Finally, the person must have sufficient motivation to perform the desired behavior (Bandura, 1977).

Due to the nature of the manager-employee relationship, the conditions required for learning are often met naturally in organizations. Employees must pay attention to the direction of their managers if they are to do their jobs correctly. Employees who are unable to remember their job duties or responsibilities or cannot perform them when necessary typically do not remain employed. Finally, as managers often control rewards and punishments for their employees, employees have sufficient motivation to perform their job duties in order to satisfy

their managers and retain their jobs. In this way, managers may also influence how employees respond to survey items. Particularly in organizations where managers are held accountable for survey scores, managers may instruct employees to respond in pre-determined fashion.

Acquiescence to manager demands likely results in positive reinforcement for the employees, while deviation from the desired outcome could result in negative actions. Observation of the outcome of desired or undesired results over time would influence current employee behavior.

The impact of managers on organizational culture is an important area of inquiry as organizations continue to become more global and multinational. As large, multinational companies expand and acquire local companies, the management team may have a significant impact on the culture, positively or negatively, based on how they interact with the new employees. For example, Cunha and Cunha (2004) found that Latin European managers' grammar and communication with regards to time (e.g. importance of, objective vs. subjective nature of) was influenced to align closer to Northern European usage. This resulted in Latin European managers having feelings of estrangement from their own national culture. Due to this, Cunha and Cunha (2004, p.805) warned that "when multinationals enter foreign markets, they transfer practices that go beyond the purely technical domain and that extend to the issue of nationality-based identity." It is important that multinational corporations understand that some elements of the transferred culture may be seen as inappropriate or illegitimate in the local culture (Child & Rodrigues, 2003).

Due to their influence on organizational culture and direct relationship with employees, it is also likely that managers have an impact on employee response styles as well. Differences in response styles based on cultural differences have been described in preceding sections (e.g. high power distance cultures display higher incidence of extreme response style). However, what happens in multinational corporations where managers and employees come from different national cultures? Will the manager's influence overcome national culture resulting in a different response style from the employee than would have occurred with a manager from the same national culture? With regard to the ongoing globalization debate mentioned earlier, conflicting results have highlighted the lack of clear understanding of how cultures, ideas and knowledge move across and within organizational boundaries. While some studies have indicated that global corporations can facilitate the adoption of organizational practices and technologies across international borders more easily than domestic companies (Mueller, 1994), others indicate

subsidiaries often maintain their own identity in terms of practices and culture (Nohria & Ghoshal, 1997; Harzing, 1999). It is possible that the conflicting results are related to the differences in manager-employee culture matches in multinational organizations and domestic companies or the amount of expatriate manager roles within a particular multinational organization. To the author's knowledge, no research has been conducted that examines this question. This is likely due to many of the limitations noted previously related to global survey research in multinational corporations (e.g. confidentiality concerns, access to data, reliance on student samples).

Research Focus

Due to the lack of research in this area, the current study will examine the impact of managers' national culture on the response styles of their employees, particularly extreme response style and acquiescence. As noted previously, national cultures vary on a variety of dimensions – power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, etc. Of these dimensions, power distance most directly relates to the employee-manager relationship. Ultimately, power distance as a construct reflects how different cultures address inequality (Hofstede, 2001). Within organizations, inequality in power is formalized in manager-employee relationships – usually hierarchical in nature. This inequality is essential for providing a measure of control and direction of effort by bosses over subordinates. However, the relationship is not unidirectional – subordinates ultimately provide the power used by managers. “Authority only exists where it is matched by obedience,” (Hofstede, 2001, p. 82).

Additionally, the influence of a manager may not immediately result in a change in behavior. Recall that cultures, particularly national cultures, are extremely resistant to change (Hofstede, 2001). Due to this resilience, change in individual employees may not occur for months, years or perhaps never. Existing research on this topic provides only single event measures of culture, employee attitudes and response styles. With no existing research on the impact of managers over time on employee response patterns, it is difficult to predict the time required for managers to influence response behaviors in employees from different cultures. The current study examines the impact of managers' cultures on employee responses over a one year period.

Additionally, research has consistently shown the construct of power distance is also positively correlated with individualism/collectivism (Hofstede, 2001; House, et al., 2004). Recall that individualism refers to the importance members of a culture place on individual goals versus collective goals for the group. This is an important in that the level of individualism or collectivism within an organization can impact the employees' reason for complying with organizational and supervisory demands and requirements (Hofstede, 2001). Both the Hofstede (2001) and House, et al. (2004) studies found significant correlations between power distance and individualism/collectivism ($r = -.68$ and $r = -.44$, respectively). Due to this relationship, it is important to evaluate employee response styles with regard to individualism/collectivism in addition to power distance to determine whether any observed relationships are due to power distance differences or individualism/collectivism differences between managers' national cultures.

Finally, several individual level variables will be included in the analysis. Job function refers to the type of job the employee held at the time of the data collection. Examples of job functions would be sales, administration, human resources and so on. While there is no research to indicate how job function might influence response styles in a cross-cultural setting, given the different nature of different job functions (e.g. sales vs. engineering), it is possible that employees who chose those types of jobs have unique attributes that would influence how they respond to surveys. Job level refers to the employees' relative standing in the organization. In this study, there are three job levels – individual contributor, manager, and executive. There is some evidence that job level can trump national culture. Thompson and Phua (2005) found no differences between senior level managers from Chinese and Anglo firms despite the differences Hofstede's categorizations would predict. In the current study, job level is not anticipated to be a significant predictor of the outcome variables. However, given Thompson and Phua's (2005) findings, it is important to include job level to be sure and observed differences are not due to job level rather than the variables of interest.

Gender is also included as a variable for inclusion in the analyses. There is no research to indicate that gender significantly influences response styles in a cross-cultural setting. However, due to the relatively new focus on this topic area, the extant research cannot be considered to be complete or exhaustive. Including gender is important to confirm the limited results currently available, although gender is not anticipated to be a significant predictor of the outcome

variables. Lastly, length of service refers to how long the employee has been employed by the company. Much like gender, there is no research that illustrates how length of service within a company might impact response styles in a cross-cultural setting. However, given the nature of length of service, it would be logical to assume that individuals choosing to stay with an organization for ten, fifteen, or even 20 years would view the organization differently than new hires or short tenure employees. Longer tenure could indicate the employee identifies with the company, has a positive perception of the company, and would be a strong advocate for the company. If so, long tenure employees' response styles would be different from employees with short tenure in that long tenure would be related to more extreme responding. This will be examined as well in the analyses.

Hypotheses

Extreme Response Style

Based on previously cited research, the following baseline hypothesis can be stated:

Hypothesis 1: Employees from high power distance countries will display greater levels of extreme response style than employees from low power distance countries.

Extending previous research, the study will then examine the impact of managers' national culture on their employees' responses:

Hypothesis 2: Power distance scores for managers will be predictive of their employees' extreme response scores over time such that power distance scores are positively associated with greater extreme response.

Hypothesis 2a: Individualism/Collectivism scores for managers will be predictive of the employees' extreme response scores over time such that Individualism is positively associated with greater extreme responding and Collectivism is negatively associated with greater extreme responding.

Acquiescence

Based on previously cited research, the following baseline hypothesis can be stated:

Hypothesis 3: Employees from high power distance countries will display lower levels of acquiescence than employees from low power distance countries.

Extending previous research, the study will then examine the impact of managers' national culture on their employees' responses:

Hypothesis 4: Power distance scores for managers will be predictive of their employees' acquiescence scores over time such that high power distance scores are negatively associated with greater acquiescence.

Hypothesis 4a: Individualism/Collectivism scores for managers will be predictive of the employees' acquiescence scores over time such that Individualism is negatively associated with greater acquiescence and Collectivism is positively associated with greater acquiescence.

CHAPTER 2 - Method, Analysis and Results

All data for this study were collected from employees of a global, multinational company with operations in over 100 countries. The company is a member of the Fortune 100 largest companies with headquarters in the United States.

Participants

In May of 2005 and June of 2006, all employees globally were invited to complete an annual employee opinion survey distributed by the company. All company-badged employees (e.g. full-time, part-time) were given the opportunity to participate. Overall, participation was strong in all business units and regions with over 100,000 employees completing the survey each year. For purposes of this research, only employees who completed the survey in both 2005 and 2006 were used.

Data Collection

The surveys were conducted online through a secure sign-on process using the company's global intranet. Each employee was required to login to a secure website to confirm their employee status and identification. They were then redirected to a third party vendor to complete the survey confidentially. On entry into the survey, the vendor matched the employee to a pre-submitted database supplied by the company that appended relevant business information about the employee to the database. This information included the employee's manager, organization, region, country, job function and job level.

The data collection process was vetted by the company's legal department and data security office. Additionally, the European Worker's Councils reviewed the process and item content to ensure compliance with European data privacy legislation. The vendor used to host and store the responses is a certified Safe Harbor vendor with the United States government. Sensitive data were transmitted using secure FTP files transfers of encrypted files. Employee comments were distributed only to managers with a significant number of responses.

Survey Instrument

The survey contained 42 items assessing a number of areas of interest to the company including employee engagement/satisfaction, management, communication, ethics and teamwork (see Appendix A). All items were rated on a 5 point Likert scale with response options of Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree except for 1 item that used a Satisfaction scale. Employees were also presented the option to submit two pieces of demographic information – gender and length of service.

The survey content was translated into 25 languages. The survey was translated using a modified version of Allalouf, Hambleton and Sireci's (1999) translation guidelines. First, a back translation approach was used employing a 3rd party translation service. Native language speakers in the relevant home countries with mastery of the English language first translated the content with focus on the correctness of the translation and linguistic equivalence. Second, native English speakers with mastery of the translated language translated the content back to English. Once consensus was reached by the 3rd party translation team, a final review of the content by internal company employees in each of the relevant countries was completed. This step was added to account for any company-specific terms that would not normally translate into the target language.

Analysis and Results

Data Screening, Descriptive Statistics, and Correlations

From the original data set, employee records that contained information from both 2005 and 2006 were isolated. To control for the impact of management and organizational changes during the interim between the 2005 and 2006 administrations, those employees who had manager changes from 2005 to 2006 were removed from the data set. Finally, while the company operates in over 170 countries worldwide, the GLOBE study contains information on only sixty-two countries, further reducing the number of responses available for analysis. This resulted in a sample of 15,836 records for analysis. The summary information for individual-level variables and country locations are outlined in Tables 2.1 and 2.2, respectively. Note that the individual-level information recorded for the 2005 administration is used for these calculations and all subsequent analyses. Less than 1% of the sample had changes in this information from 2005 to

2006, primarily in the length of service demographic. The distribution of individual-level demographics and locations closely approximates the make-up of the company at the time of the two surveys.

Table 2.1 Summary Information for Individual-Level Variables

| Variable | <i>N</i> | <i>%</i> | Variable | <i>N</i> | <i>%</i> |
|--------------------------------|----------|----------|------------------------|----------|----------|
| Total | 15,836 | 100 | Job Function | | |
| Gender | | | Administration | 357 | 2.3 |
| Male | 9,866 | 62.3 | Business Planning | 627 | 4.0 |
| Female | 3,747 | 23.7 | Customer Service | 3,091 | 19.5 |
| No response | 2,223 | 14.0 | Engineering | 3,460 | 21.8 |
| Length of Service | | | Engineering Support | 100 | 0.6 |
| Less than 1 year | 3 | 0.0 | Facilities | 295 | 1.9 |
| 1 year to less than 3 years | 980 | 6.2 | Finance | 796 | 5.0 |
| 3 years to less than 5 years | 1,001 | 6.3 | Human Resources | 142 | 0.9 |
| 5 years to less than 10 years | 4,748 | 30.0 | Information Management | 591 | 3.7 |
| 10 years to less than 20 years | 4,241 | 26.8 | Legal | 124 | 0.8 |
| More than 20 years | 2,778 | 17.5 | Marketing | 574 | 3.6 |
| No response | 2,085 | 13.2 | Marketing Support | 6 | 0.0 |
| Job Level | | | Operations | 656 | 4.1 |
| Executive | 506 | 3.2 | Outsourcing Management | 1,161 | 7.3 |
| Manager | 2,023 | 12.8 | Public Affairs | 4 | 0.0 |
| Individual Contributor | 13,254 | 83.7 | Quality | 96 | 0.6 |
| No data | 53 | 0.3 | Sales | 1,751 | 11.1 |
| | | | Sales Operations | 585 | 3.7 |
| | | | Technical | 468 | 3.0 |
| | | | Training | 125 | 0.8 |
| | | | Unknown | 777 | 4.9 |

Table 2.2 Summary Information for Country Locations

| Country | <i>N</i> | Percent | Country | <i>N</i> | Percent |
|----------------|-----------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|----------------|
| Argentina | 52 | 0.3 | Israel* | 219 | 1.4 |
| Australia* | 9 | 0.1 | Italy | 297 | 1.9 |
| Austria | 51 | 0.3 | Japan | 566 | 3.6 |
| Brazil | 298 | 1.9 | Korea | 233 | 1.5 |
| Canada* | 545 | 3.4 | Morocco | 1 | 0.0 |
| China | 522 | 3.3 | Mexico | 309 | 2.0 |
| Columbia | 44 | 0.3 | Malaysia | 54 | 0.3 |
| Costa Rica* | 24 | 0.2 | Netherlands* | 263 | 1.7 |
| Denmark* | 67 | 0.4 | Philippines | 77 | 0.5 |
| Ecuador | 1 | 0.0 | Poland | 9 | 0.1 |
| Spain | 320 | 2.0 | Portugal | 43 | 0.3 |
| Finland | 44 | 0.3 | Russia | 17 | 0.1 |
| France | 494 | 3.1 | Singapore | 1,122 | 7.1 |
| England | 533 | 3.4 | Sweden* | 219 | 1.4 |
| Greece | 3 | 0.0 | Switzerland* | 134 | 0.8 |
| Germany | 67 | 0.4 | Thailand | 76 | 0.5 |
| Hong Kong | 122 | 0.8 | Turkey | 18 | 0.1 |
| Hungary | 30 | 0.2 | Taiwan | 185 | 1.2 |
| Indonesia | 20 | 0.1 | United States | 8,315 | 52.5 |
| India | 60 | 0.4 | Venezuela | 20 | 0.1 |
| Ireland | 314 | 2.0 | South Africa* | 39 | 0.2 |

Note: An asterisk indicates a low power distance country.

In addition to the individual level predictor variables, country-level scores for power distance and institutional collectivism were abstracted from the GLOBE study results as in Johnson, et al. (2005). Note that the GLOBE study splits Hofstede's culture dimension of Individualism into two distinct dimensions – Institutional Collectivism and In-Group Collectivism (House, et al., 2004). Institutional Collectivism refers to the degree to which

institutional practices (such as economic rewards) support group cohesion, acceptance and group loyalty at the expense of individual goals. In-Group Collectivism refers to the degree to which individuals express dependence on and pride about their families. Institutional Collectivism is relevant to organizational settings and was the measure for Individualism/Collectivism used for this study (House, et al., 2004). Scores were appended to the data set for each employee and their respective manager. The summary information for the country-level variables is outlined in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Summary Information for Power Distance and Institutional Collectivism

| Measure | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| Employee Power Distance | 4.99 | 0.25 |
| Employee Inst. Collectivism | 4.33 | 0.35 |
| Manager Power Distance | 4.98 | 0.24 |
| Manager Inst. Collectivism | 4.33 | 0.35 |

The 41 items with identical response scales that were used to create the measure for extreme response style and acquiescence were examined for missing responses, skewness, kurtosis and deviations from normality. Of the 41 items, one was excluded from further use in the analyses due to excessive missing responses (see item 33 in Appendix A). Employees skipped this item in 28% of the responses, nearly ten times the rate of other items, suggesting this item was responded to differently than the other items. No significant issues were found with the other 40 items.

Measures for extreme response style and acquiescence were created using methods similar to those described in Johnson, et al. (2005) to conform with previous research on the topic area. For extreme response style, the 40 items were recoded so that selection of an endpoint received a code of 1 while selection of any middle value received a code of 0. Items were summed to form an extreme response measure with a hypothesized range of 0 to 40. Higher values of this measure indicate more extreme responding. For acquiescence, the same items were recoded so that selection of either agree or strongly agree resulted in a value of 1, while any other response resulted in a value of 0. The items were then summed to create an index with a hypothesized range of 0 to 40. Higher values of this measure indicate more acquiescent

responding. Recall that acquiescence is defined as the tendency to agree or disagree with an item regardless of the content of the item (Harzing, 2006). For the purposes of this study, acquiescence is defined as the tendency to agree with the item regardless of the content. This is due to the nature of the survey administered. Executives and managers at all levels of the corporation receive the results, which are communicated widely and generate action for improvement at all levels of the company. This emphasis on receiving positive scores and making improvements results in an environment where responding in a positive fashion (agreement) would be the preference of individual managers and their executive teams. Summary information (e.g. mean, median and standard deviation) for the extreme response and acquiescence measures for 2005 and 2006 is outlined in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Summary Information for Extreme Response and Acquiescence Measures

| Measure | <i>M (Mdn)</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
| Extreme Response 2005 | 13.7 (12.0) | 10.3 |
| Extreme Response 2006 | 14.2 (12.0) | 10.6 |
| Acquiescence 2005 | 30.5 (32.0) | 8.4 |
| Acquiescence 2006 | 31.0 (33.0) | 8.5 |

An examination of the distributions of the measures for extreme responding and acquiescent responding found no indication of kurtosis. However, the measures of extreme response were both positively skewed, while the measures of acquiescence were negatively skewed (see Figures 2.1 and 2.2, respectively).

Figure 2.1 Histogram of Extreme Response Measures

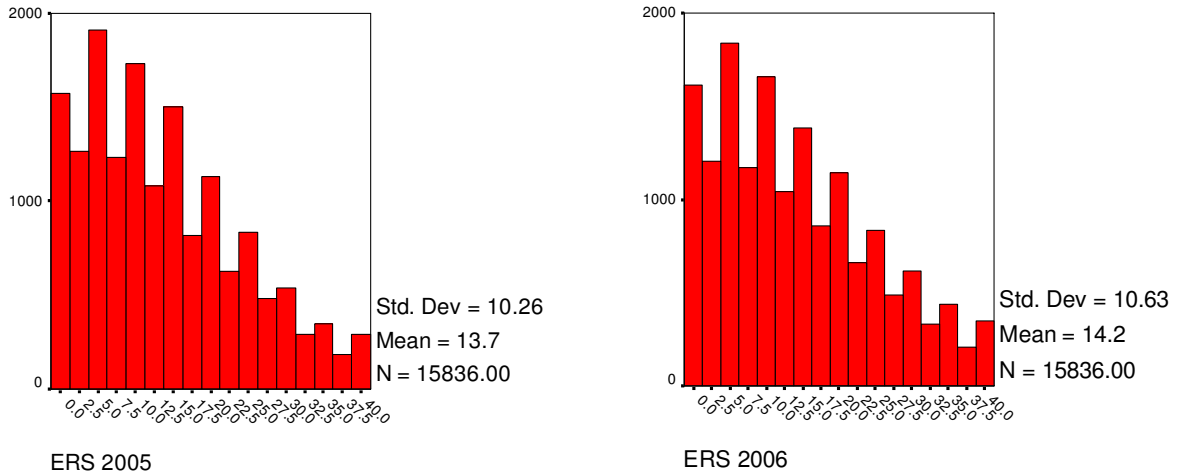
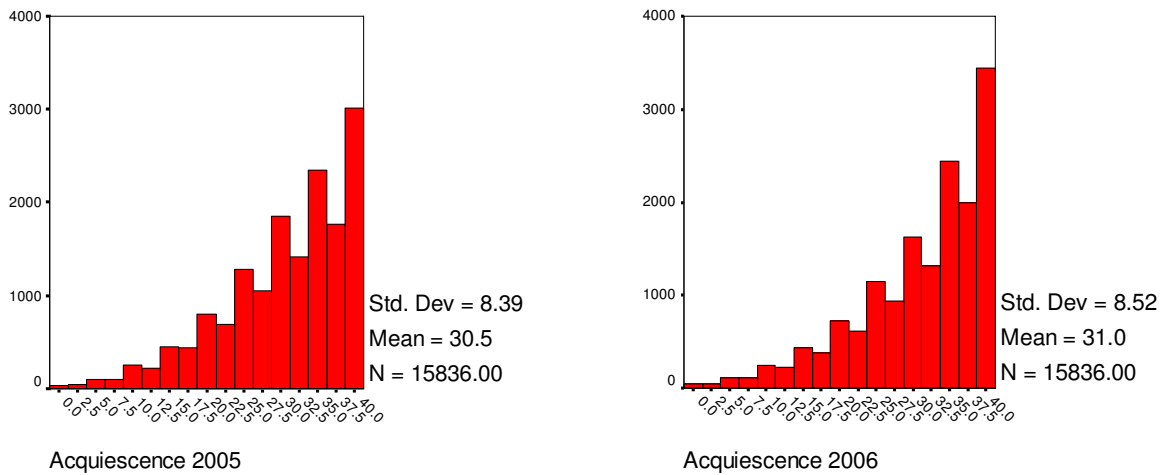


Figure 2.2 Histogram of Acquiescence Measures



Overall, extreme response scores increased from 2005 to 2006 ($t(15,835) = -7.35, p < .01$) as did acquiescence scores ($t(15,835) = -9.761, p < .01$). Results from reliability analysis yielded acceptable test-retest reliabilities for both extreme response and acquiescence ($\alpha = .794$ and $\alpha = .797$, respectively).

Based on previous research results, the correlation between the measures of extreme response and acquiescence was expected to be low (Johnson, et al., 2005). However, the

correlations between measures within a single year were higher than anticipated. For 2005, extreme response and acquiescence were significantly correlated ($r = .45, p < .01$). Similar results were found for the 2006 measures ($r = .43, p < .01$). This is likely due to using the same set of 40 items to create the measures of extreme response and acquiescence. However, extreme response and acquiescence measures were more highly correlated to themselves year over year than to one another within a single year indicating some level of consistency and uniqueness in the measures ($r = .67, p < .01$ and $r = .66, p < .01$, respectively).

To measure the impact of managers' influence on employee responses over time, the 2005 extreme response and acquiescence scores were subtracted from their 2006 extreme response and acquiescence scores creating a difference score on extreme response and acquiescence for each employee. Summary information for these measures is presented in Table 2.5. An examination of the distributions of the measure found no indication of skewness or kurtosis.

Table 2.5 Summary Information for Extreme Response and Acquiescence Difference Measures

| Measure | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| Extreme Response Difference | 0.50 | 8.6 |
| Acquiescence Difference | 0.54 | 7.0 |

Extreme Response Style

To test the first hypothesis, a *t*-test was conducted to determine differences between employees from high power distance countries and low power distance countries tendencies for extreme responding. Power distance scores for each country were abstracted from House, et al.'s (2004) study and classified as high or low based on the GLOBE study results. Those results grouped the countries into four bands based on country level scores. For this study, those countries that fell into the top two bands were designated as high power distance, and those who fell into the bottom two bands were designated as low power distance. Low power distance countries are noted with an asterisk in Table 2.2. As hypothesized, employees from high power distance countries exhibited more extreme responding than employees from low power distance

countries. This was consistent in 2005 and 2006 ($t(15,834) = 12.05, p < .01$ and $t(15,834) = 9.82, p < .01$, respectively). A summary of the mean scores for each group can be viewed in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 Summary Information for High and Low Power Distance Countries

| Power Distance | <i>M (SD) Extreme Response 2005</i> | <i>M (SD) Extreme Response 2006</i> |
|-----------------------|--|--|
| High (14,490) | 13.8 (10.3) | 14.28 (10.7) |
| Low (1,346) | 12.8 (9.7) | 13.34 (9.9) |

Regarding the second hypothesis, a stepwise regression was run with the extreme response difference scores as the outcome variable. The predictor variables used are identified in Tables 2.1 and 2.3 (e.g. gender, length of service, job level, job function, employee power distance, employee institutional collectivism, manager power distance, and manager institutional collectivism). Stepwise regression was selected due to the large number of cases and, due to its sophisticated approach, usually results in the most parsimonious model (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2003). Predictor variables included individual-level variables and country-level scores for power distance practices and institutional collectivism abstracted from House, et al. (2004). Dummy variables were created for job levels and job functions to address the issue of non-dichotomous nominal variables. Recall that it was hypothesized that managers' country power distance scores would be predictive of extreme response. However, results indicated that only individual-level demographic predictors showed any relationship with the outcome variable. Employee and manager scores for power distance or institutional collectivism were not predictive of extreme response difference scores. Table 2.7 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), standard error, and standardized regression coefficients (β) of predictor variables. A full correlation table of all variables can be found in Table B.2.

Table 2.7 Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Extreme Response

Difference

| Variable | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | β |
|------------------------------------|--------------------|------------------|---------------------------|
| Length of Service | .332 | .068 | .043** |
| Marketing (Job Function) | -10.634 | 3.844 | -.024** |
| Individual Contributor (Job Level) | -.546 | .203 | -.023** |
| Technical (Job Function) | 1.023 | .440 | .020* |
| Training (Job Function) | -1.847 | .834 | -.019* |
| Quality (Job Function) | 2.066 | .958 | .019* |
| Human Resources (Job Function) | -1.561 | .770 | -.018* |
| Excluded Variables | <i>B In</i> | <i>t</i> | <i>Sig.</i> |
| Gender | .000 | .034 | .973 |
| Administration (Function) | -.015 | -1.698 | .090 |
| Business Planning (Function) | .009 | .992 | .321 |
| Customer Support (Function) | .011 | 1.219 | .223 |
| Engineering (Function) | -.003 | -.294 | .769 |
| Engineering Services (Function) | .002 | .190 | .849 |
| Facilities (Function) | .006 | .674 | .500 |
| Finance (Function) | .012 | 1.399 | .162 |
| Information Mgt. (Function) | -.005 | -.633 | .527 |
| Legal (Function) | -.009 | -1.010 | .312 |
| Marketing Support (Function) | -.001 | -.070 | .945 |
| Operations (Function) | .004 | .518 | .604 |
| Outsourcing Mgt. (Function) | -.016 | -1.871 | .061 |
| Public Affairs & Comm. (Function) | .005 | .581 | .561 |
| Sales Operations (Function) | -.004 | -.485 | .628 |
| Sales (Function) | -.001 | -.094 | .925 |
| Unknown (Function) | -.003 | -.382 | .702 |
| Executive (Job Level) | .000 | -.002 | .999 |
| Manager (Job Level) | .000 | .002 | .999 |
| Employee Power Distance | -.003 | -.304 | .761 |
| Employee Indiv/Collectivism | -.002 | -.204 | .839 |
| Manager Power Distance | -.004 | -.457 | .647 |
| Manager Indiv/Collectivism | .001 | .159 | .874 |

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Additionally, the regression model accounted for less than 1% of the variance in the dependent variable under consideration. Due to the very large sample size, very small effects can be observed as significant. These results would indicate that certain individual-level characteristics of respondents, namely length of service, job level, and job function, may impact employee extreme responding over time. While these effects are very weak in the observed analyses, they may be worth exploring further. In particular, job function has not been explored as a predictor in detail in the extant research. Also, it is important to note that length of service was found to be predictive, but in the opposite direction from the prediction presented earlier. Longer tenure was related to less extreme responding while shorter tenure, particularly less than one year, resulted in more extreme responding.

Acquiescent Response Style

To test the third hypothesis, a *t*-test was conducted to determine differences between employees from high power distance countries and low power distance countries tendencies for acquiescence. Contrary to the hypothesis, employees from high power distance countries exhibited more acquiescence than employees from low power distance countries. This was consistent in 2005 and 2006 ($t(15,834) = 6.59, p < .01$ and $t(15,834) = 28.26, p < .01$, respectively). A summary of the mean scores for each group can be viewed in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8 Information for High and Low Power Distance Countries

| Power Distance | <i>M (SD)</i> Acquiescence 2005 | <i>M (SD)</i> Acquiescence 2006 |
|-----------------------|--|--|
| High (14,490) | 30.6 (8.4) | 31.2 (8.5) |
| Low (1,346) | 29.9 (8.4) | 29.9 (8.9) |

Regarding the fourth hypothesis, a stepwise regression was run with the acquiescence difference scores as the outcome variable. This analysis was done despite the previously reported findings that were counter to the proposed hypothesis regarding high and low power distance countries. The same predictor variables were used as in the extreme response analysis. Recall that it was hypothesized that managers' country power distance scores would be negatively predictive of acquiescence. Results are similar to the extreme response analysis in that individual-level variables tend to be the largest predictors. However, for acquiescence one

country-level variable does appear as a significant predictor – managers’ country power distance score. Managers’ institutional collectivism scores were not predictive of acquiescence difference scores. Neither employees’ power distance nor institutional collectivism scores were predictive of the outcome variable. Table 2.9 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), standard error, and standardized regression coefficients (β) of predictor variables. A full correlation table can be found in Table B.3.

Table 2.9 Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting ARS Difference

| Variable | <i>B</i> | <i>SE</i> | β |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------|------------------|---------------------------|
| Length of Service | .378 | .054 | .062** |
| Customer Service (Job Function) | -1.236 | .156 | -.073** |
| Information Management (Job Function) | -2.105 | .315 | -.059** |
| Manager Power Distance | -.695 | .245 | -.025** |
| Unknown (Job Function) | -.934 | .270 | -.031** |
| Outsourcing Management (Job Function) | -.956 | .293 | -.029** |
| Executive (Job Level) | .784 | .326 | .021* |
| Administration (Job Function) | -1.069 | .391 | -.024** |
| Sales (Job Function) | -.533 | .192 | -.025** |
| Training (Job Function) | -1.441 | .655 | -.019* |
| Sales Operations (Job Function) | -.669 | .309 | -.019* |
| Human Resources (Job Function) | -1.188 | .605 | -.017* |
| Excluded Variables | <i>B In</i> | <i>t</i> | <i>Sig.</i> |
| Gender | -.007 | -.744 | .457 |
| Business Planning (Function) | .013 | 1.505 | .132 |
| Engineering (Function) | -.006 | -.634 | .526 |
| Engineering Services (Function) | .010 | 1.107 | .268 |
| Facilities (Function) | -.006 | -.716 | .474 |
| Finance (Function) | .011 | 1.247 | .212 |
| Legal (Function) | .008 | .942 | .346 |
| Marketing Support (Function) | .004 | .477 | .634 |
| Marketing (Function) | -.009 | -1.060 | .289 |
| Operations (Function) | -.012 | -1.331 | .183 |
| Public Affairs & Comm. (Function) | .009 | 1.052 | .293 |
| Quality (Function) | -.004 | -.429 | .668 |
| Technical (Function) | -.006 | -.735 | .462 |
| Manager (Job Level) | .000 | -.030 | .976 |
| Individual Contributor (Job Level) | .000 | .030 | .976 |
| Employee Power Distance | -.004 | -.237 | .812 |
| Employee Individ/Collectivism | -.012 | -1.352 | .177 |
| Manager Individ/Collectivism | -.014 | -1.583 | .113 |

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Similar to the extreme response analysis, the regression model accounted for less than 2% of the variance in the dependent variable under consideration. Due to the very large sample size, very small effects can be observed as significant. These results would indicate that certain individual-level characteristics of respondents, namely length of service, job level, and job function, may impact employee acquiescence over time. And while managers' country power distance scores were predictive of acquiescence, it was in the opposite direction of the hypothesis (higher power distance was predictive of more acquiescence rather than less). Again, while these effects are very weak in the observed analyses, they may be worth exploring further. As noted previously, job function has not been explored as a predictor in detail in the extant research. Also, it is important to note that length of service was found to be predictive, but in the opposite direction from the prediction presented earlier. Longer tenure was related to more acquiescence while shorter tenure, particularly less than one year, resulted in less acquiescence. Further, the consistency of the results in terms of the individual-level variables would seem to indicate the results are not random and these variables do have some relationship to employee response patterns. It should also be noted that institutional collectivism was not found to be predictive of the outcome variables in either analysis for employees or managers.

Following these analyses, additional exploratory analyses were performed to try and further explore the potential relationships between power distance, individualism/collectivism, extreme responding and acquiescence. First, rather than using difference scores, the individual extreme response scores and acquiescence scores for 2005 and 2006 were used as the outcome variables in a series of regression analyses. The results did not differ significantly from those reported using the difference scores. Job function and length of service were consistently the strongest predictors of the outcome variables, however none of the models accounted for more than 2% of the variance in the outcome variables.

Rather than using all countries in the analysis, an additional analysis attempted to use only the responses from the highest and lowest power distance countries to attempt and show the hypothesized relationships by using the extremes of the power distance scale. Unfortunately, this analysis failed to show the hypothesized relationships as well. This could have been due to the lack of a relationship, or perhaps due to the limited number of cases in the extreme low power distance countries (less than 100). Finally, given the preponderance of United States based responses, all non-US based responses were analyzed in a similar fashion to determine if the US-

based responses were in some way overshadowing any relationships. As with all previous analyses, the results did not support the hypotheses and the strongest predictors remained job function and length of service with less than 2% of the variance accounted for in the outcome variables.

CHAPTER 3 - Discussion

Main Findings

Overall, results did not support the key hypotheses of the study. While employees from high power distance countries did display higher levels of extreme responding than employees from low power distance countries (Hypothesis 1), none of the other three hypotheses were supported. Despite this lack of significant results, this single result supports Johnson, et al.'s (2005) results from a sample of over eighteen-thousand employees in nineteen countries suggesting it is a consistent, real difference between high and low power distance countries. However, current results did not replicate Johnson, et al.'s (2005) results regarding acquiescence. In the same study, those researchers found high power distance resulted in less acquiescent responding. In the current study, employees from high power distance countries displayed higher levels of acquiescent responding than employees from low power distance countries.

The regression analyses to determine the impact of power distance and institutional collectivism on extreme response and acquiescence did not yield results in line with the proposed hypotheses. Overall, individual-level characteristics, namely length of service, job function and job level appeared to have small but significant effects on the dependent variables. Due to the large sample size and power, these very small effects were shown to be significant, indicating they do play a role in employee response patterns. However, with over ninety-eight percent of the variance unexplained, other predictors not measured in the study must have a more significant impact on the dependent variables. Additionally, gender did not have any effect on the outcome variables, the only individual level variable that did not show any significant impact in any of the analyses. This may suggest that gender is not related to extreme response style or acquiescent response style in a multinational, corporate setting.

While the individual-level predictors displayed some small, significant effects, the country-level scores for power distance and institutional collectivism at the employee and manager level were not predictive of the outcome variables as hypothesized. Manager power distance scores were predictive of acquiescence difference scores, however in the opposite direction of the hypothesis. Managers' power distance scores were predictive of more

acquiescent responding. This is counter to previous research (Johnson, et al., 2005). Employee power distance scores were not predictive of either of the outcome variables. Additionally, neither employee nor manager institutional collectivism scores were not found to be significant predictors in any of the analyses. This is not entirely surprising as the inclusion of institutional collectivism was driven mainly by previous research findings where power distance and individualism/collectivism have been found to be correlated. The main hypotheses under consideration focused on power distance given the relationship between managers and employees with the examination of individualism/collectivism being tangential to the main focus.

Study Limitations and Future Research

There were several limitations to be considered in evaluating this research. One key element that appears to have had a significant impact in the results is that the study was based on archival data. This reliance on existing data greatly limited the information available for analysis and drove the use of ad-hoc measures of extreme responding, acquiescence and abstracted cultural trait scores for power distance and institutional collectivism. Additionally, the measures of extreme response and acquiescence were more highly correlated than in other previous studies (Johnson, et al., 2005). Since both measures use the same forty items, there is an inherent relationship between the two. Future research should attempt to use separate items to create the two scales to avoid this high level of relationship.

Another key limitation that should be addressed in future research is the use of abstracted cultural trait scores. The results showed consistently that individual-level variables had small but significant effects on the dependent variables. Future research should also attempt to include individual-level measures of the cultural traits of interest (e.g. power distance and individualism/collectivism). By using abstracted country-level scores, the resulting predictor variables appear to have been extremely restricted in their variance which impacted their utility as predictors (see Table 2.3). Additionally, the abstracted scores are based on specific populations of respondents in both the Hofstede (2001) and House, et al. (2004) studies. For example, in the GLOBE study used to abstract scores for this research, all responses are from middle managers. This research included responses from line employees, middle managers and senior executives. As noted earlier, other research has shown cultural traits may differ based on

level within an organization (Thompson & Phua, 2005). For example, Thompson and Phua (2005) found no difference in national culture responses from Anglo-Saxon and Chinese senior managers suggesting organizational level or task context can moderate typical cultural responses. Also as noted in the method section, many countries available in the study sample were not available in the GLOBE study. By collecting this information at the individual level, these additional countries could be included in the analyses further expanding the extant research on this topic.

The current study also relies greatly on a United States based organization. Over half of the responses used in the study were from the United States. The company is headquartered in the United States and organizational practices generally mirror practices of US-based companies. It is possible the lack of significant results is due to the preponderance of US-based responses and organization culture rather than geographic culture. As noted earlier, Mastrangelo, et al. (2005) were unable to replicate GLOBE study results for Future Orientation and Uncertainty Avoidance and speculated that employee perceptions in global organizations are more influenced by organizations than geographic culture. Future research should attempt to have a more balanced sample across the countries included in the study to control for the potential impact of one or two countries dominating the sample.

Another key limitation to note is the use of difference scores as the dependent measures in the regression analyses. Difference scores have traditionally been viewed as having low reliability and often reduce the amount of variance available for analysis (Kaplan, 2004). While the variance of the difference scores for extreme response and acquiescence were lower than the scale scores they were derived from, there was still sufficient variance for the regression analyses. The issue does not appear to lie with the dependent measures, but with the predictors chosen as the resulting models accounted for less than two percent of the variance in all analyses.

In addition to addressing the methodological issues described above, future research should also examine how cultural responses and response styles are impacted by question characteristics. For example, the current study used a single response scale. Differences in responses due to different response scales, scale anchors, reverse-worded items or other item level characteristics may impact how individuals from different cultures respond to survey items. These differences should be accounted for in future research along with the methodological issues previously discussed.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

While the results do not support the proposed hypotheses, this study provides confirmation of previous results from the small but expanding body of research investigating the impact of culture on survey respondents' response styles. Employees from high power distance countries did display higher levels of extreme responding than employees from low power distance countries similar to Johnson, et al. (2005). Additionally, the current study also provides additional evidence that individual-level variables do play a role in determining individual response styles. In organizational settings, future research should include these demographic variables (e.g. length of service, job function, job level) as their impact on response styles has not yet been fully established. Job function in particular has not been explored in the limited research conducted to date on the topic. The results suggest job function could play a significant role in determining response patterns of employees. It is unclear why particular job functions would influence employee responses styles – perhaps commonality among individuals selecting particular functions or job expectations within a particular function. Future research could examine this area in more detail.

From a practical standpoint in future research, results would suggest researchers use caution in abstracting country-level information to individuals in a sample, particularly when examining individual-level phenomena, as the utility of that information appears to be suspect. As noted previously, using abstracted country-level scores appears to have resulted in variables that were very restricted in their variance which impacted their utility as predictors. Additionally, the abstracted scores are not representative of the individuals in the sample in many ways (e.g. time of data collection, job level, industry, collection method, etc.). Future research in this area should be designed in advance to allow for individual-level collection of all relevant data points.

From a corporate standpoint, the results of this study indicate that a manager's impact on their employee's response styles is small. In cases where a company might like to make significant organization culture changes (e.g. newly acquired companies, expansion into new regions or countries), using expatriate managers to influence local employees may not result in immediate changes in employee behavior. Additionally, differences found in survey scores across different countries within an organization are likely due to some factor other than the manager's culture. Corporations are advised to look at other factors for score differences across locations.

Conclusion

The current study attempted to examine the impact of managers' national culture on their employees' response styles in a cross-cultural setting. This study extended previous research in two important ways. First, this study attempted to examine why certain cultural differences may exist and what factors may influence those differences. Previous research such as Hofstede (1980), House, et al. (2004), and Johnson, et al. (2005), were important steps to help describe different cultures and how they differ from one another. However, they did not completely explain why those differences exist or what factors may work to influence those differences. Additionally, this study is unique in the sample used. The dataset included responses from employees from three levels within the organization, in twenty different job functions, from forty-two countries. Previous research has been typically limited to a single level within the organization (e.g. managers), two to three job functions, or fewer than twenty countries. The breadth and depth of the information available for analysis makes this study unique.

Despite the lack of significant results and the limitations of this study, the fact remains that differences in response behaviors do exist across different cultures and geographic locations. Cross-cultural research must continue to examine how cultural differences can impact individual response behaviors such as extreme responding and acquiescence. While the present research did not provide strong evidence for the impact of cultural dimensions on response styles, a number of key limitations were identified that may have significantly impacted the results. The results should not be taken as strong evidence for the lack of a predictive relationship without further research addressing these limitations.

For organizations conducting survey research, it is imperative that observed differences in results across the organization can be attributed to the correct source of influence. Corporations spend tens of millions of dollars each year merely conducting organizational surveys and reporting the results. Additional time, money and resources are consumed implementing actions to address those results. As noted previously, if the results are not clearly understood, management may begin a series of actions to address the issue which could have no impact on the results, wasting valuable time and limited resources. It is imperative that survey results provide clear, actionable results to organization leaders for an employee survey program to be effective. Further research is needed to more clearly understand the influence that

geographic culture, organizational culture and individual level demographics may have on employee response styles to help facilitate organizational understanding of results.

However, future researchers should also be cognizant of the complexity that exists in multinational corporations. For example, the current study examines the data from a single multinational corporation and treats that data as coming from a single, uniform entity. The reality is that within this single organization, there are multiple business strategies, executive teams, business operating models, organizational cultures and histories, investment and divestiture strategies, and employee populations. All of these factors are changing constantly due to organizational decisions, changes in the business environment, and global competition. Additionally, all of these factors will influence the employees and managers within the various businesses, functions, and locations differently. This complexity makes clearly identifying the factors that influence an employees' response style incredibly difficult. While a model that only explains 2% of the variance in an outcome variable should not be considered particularly enlightening, the complexity described above makes it unlikely that any of the models that can be created from typical survey and cultural research would be able to explain more than a small portion of the variance in a large, multinational corporation. Furthermore, even if a single study was able to account for all of these sources of influence and variation, that organization would likely be significantly different by the time the study was complete calling into question the usefulness of the information obtained. Despite these limitations, future researchers should continue to examine geographic culture, organizational culture and individual level demographics in relation to response styles to provide the best information possible to organizational decision makers, even if it will never be complete.

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Appendix A - Items and Correlation Tables

Table A.1 Survey Items

| Item # | Item Text |
|--------|--|
| 1. | I understand how my work impacts the customer experience. |
| 2. | [My company's] commitment to customer satisfaction is reflected in my organization's decisions. |
| 3. | Processes and procedures allow me to effectively meet my customers' needs. |
| 4. | [My company] is effectively executing its strategy for improving the total customer experience. |
| 5. | My work group has a clear understanding of our customers' needs. |
| 6. | My manager is committed to treating all employees equitably (e.g., regardless of race, color, religion, sex, disability, age, sexual orientation, or national origin). |
| 7. | My manager values me and my contribution. |
| 8. | I am able to manage demands on my time between my work life and my personal life. |
| 9. | My manager speaks openly and honestly, even when the news is bad. |
| 10. | Senior management is open and honest in its communications to employees. |
| 11. | The training and development that I need to do my job is available to me. |
| 12. | I receive ongoing feedback that helps me improve my performance. |
| 13. | In my organization people are rewarded according to their job performance. |
| 14. | I receive sufficient information regarding my organization's goals and execution priorities. |
| 15. | My manager and I have discussed my individual goals for 2005. |

Table A.1 (continued) Survey Items

16. I understand how my individual goals for 2005 contribute to [my company's] overall performance.
17. My work group has a climate in which diverse perspectives are valued.
18. My work group cooperates with other work groups to achieve business objectives.
19. My work group looks for ways to change processes to improve productivity.
20. Before my work group makes changes, we consider how the changes could impact other areas in the company.
21. Senior management does a good job communicating its major business/function initiatives to the whole company.
22. I am appropriately involved in decisions that affect my work.
23. I have the tools and resources to do my job well.
24. I can clearly explain to others the company's strategy.
25. It is clear who has responsibility for making decisions in my organization.
26. My organization responds quickly to changes in the business environment allowing us to win in the marketplace.
27. [My company] is making the changes necessary to compete effectively.
28. I feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things.
29. I feel free to take reasonable risks in getting my work done.
30. Senior management provides the support needed to deliver innovation in our products and services.
31. My manager's behavior is consistent with [my company's] values.
32. Members of my work group consistently demonstrate commitment to [my company's] Standards of Business Conduct.
33. When my management team knows of behavior that violates the Standards of Business Conduct, they take action to address it.
34. My manager provides a clear understanding of what is expected of me regarding the core value of uncompromising integrity.
35. In the past year, I have not felt pressured by other employees or managers to compromise [my company's] Standards of Business Conduct in order to achieve business objectives.

Table A.1 (continued) Survey Items

36. Members of my work group treat company confidential information in accordance with the Standards of Business Conduct.
37. I am proud to work for [my company].
38. Overall, I feel my career goals can be met at [my company].
39. I would recommend [my company] as a great place to work.
40. Even if I were offered a comparable position with similar pay and benefits at another company, I would not leave [my company].
41. When I do an excellent job, my accomplishments are recognized.
42. Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your job?

Table A.2 Predictor and Outcome Variable Correlations

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
|-------------------------------------|------|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1. Gender | 1.00 | .066** | -.010 | -.053** | -.005 | -.054** | .002 | -.058** | .008 | -.005 | -.009 | .020* | -.006 | .021* |
| 2. Length of Service | | 1.00 | -.119** | -.141** | .007 | -.059** | .041** | -.006 | .043** | .064** | -.165** | -.156** | -.156** | -.157** |
| 3. Job Function | | | 1.00 | -.008 | -.046** | -.027** | -.050** | -.039** | -.007 | -.016 | .073** | .099** | .076** | .101** |
| 4. Job Level | | | | 1.00 | -.075** | -.066** | -.094** | -.090** | -.026** | -.030** | .017* | .010 | .028** | .011 |
| 5. Extreme Response 2005 | | | | | 1.00 | .451** | .659** | .316** | -.377** | -.157** | .006 | -.113 | .001 | -.111** |
| 6. Acquiescent Response 2005 | | | | | | 1.00 | .342** | .662** | -.114** | -.395** | .026** | .036** | .021** | .034** |
| 7. Extreme Response 2006 | | | | | | | 1.00 | .430** | .448** | .114** | .000 | -.115** | -.005 | -.110** |
| 8. Acquiescent Response 2006 | | | | | | | | 1.00 | .155** | .427** | -.004 | .015 | -.011 | .014 |
| 9. Extreme Response Difference | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | .327** | -.008 | -.007 | -.008 | -.004 |
| 10. Acquiescent Response Difference | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.036** | -.025** | -.039** | -.024** |
| 11. Employee Power Distance | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.097** | .895** | -.069** |
| 12. Employee Individ/Collectivism | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.061** | .949** |
| 13. Manager Power Distance | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.083** |
| 14. Manager Individ/Collectivism | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 |

Table A.3 Predictor and Outcome Variable Correlations: Extreme Response Regression

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | |
|---|------|------|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|--|
| 1. Extreme Response Difference | 1.00 | .008 | .045** | -.016* | .010 | .014* | -.001 | .002 | .007 | .009 | -.017* | -.008 | -.008 | -.001 | -.024** | |
| 2. Gender | | 1.00 | .068** | -.226** | -.080** | .140** | .123** | .001 | .007 | -.127** | -.090** | -.009 | -.047** | -.084** | -.023** | |
| 3. Length of Service | | | 1.00 | -.005 | .043** | .142** | .024** | .011 | .028** | -.084** | .000 | -.052** | -.006 | -.013 | .005 | |
| 4. Administration (Function) | | | | 1.00 | -.031** | -.077** | -.078** | -.013 | -.021** | -.035** | -.015* | -.030** | -.013 | -.030** | -.003 | |
| 5. Business Planning (Function) | | | | | 1.00 | -.101** | -.103** | -.016* | -.027** | -.046** | -.020* | -.039** | -.017* | -.039** | -.004 | |
| 6. Customer Service/Support (Function) | | | | | | 1.00 | -.254** | -.041** | -.068** | -.115** | -.049** | -.097** | -.043** | -.096** | -.010 | |
| 7. Engineering (Function) | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.041** | -.069** | -.118** | -.050** | -.099** | -.044** | -.098** | -.010 | |
| 8. Engineering Services (Function) | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.011 | -.019* | -.008 | -.016* | -.007 | -.016* | -.002 | |
| 9. Facilities (Function) | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.031** | -.013 | -.027** | -.012 | -.026** | -.003 | |
| 10. Finance (Function) | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.022** | -.045** | -.020* | -.044** | -.004 | |
| 11. Human Resources (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.019* | -.008 | -.019* | -.002 | |
| 12. Information Management (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.017* | -.038** | -.004 | |
| 13. Legal (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.017* | -.002 | |
| 14. Marketing (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.004 | |
| 15. Marketing Support (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | |
| 16. Operations (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 17. Outsourcing Management (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 18. Public Aff. & Comms. (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 19. Quality (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20. Sales (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 21. Sales Operations (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 22. Technical (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 23. Training (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 24. Unknown (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 25. Executive (Level) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 26. Manager (Level) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 27. Individual Contributor (Level) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 28. Employee Power Distance | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 29. Employee Individualism/Collectivism | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 30. Manager Power Distance | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 31. Manager Individualism/Collectivism | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Table A.3 (continued) Predictor and Outcome Variable Correlations: Extreme Response

Regression

| Variable | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 |
|---|---------|---------|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1. Extreme Response Difference | .007 | -.020** | .005 | .020* | -.008 | -.004 | .018* | -.019* | -.004 | .013 | .024** | -.028** | -.010 | -.007 |
| 2. Gender | -.054** | .021** | -.018* | -.025** | .068** | -.158** | .056** | -.035** | .071** | .030** | .044** | -.055** | -.008 | .019* |
| 3. Length of Service | .018* | -.075** | -.008 | .021** | -.099** | -.055** | -.021** | .022** | .024** | .084** | .111** | -.141** | -.166** | -.150** |
| 4. Administration (Function) | -.044** | -.033** | -.003 | -.012 | -.055** | -.031** | -.027** | -.014 | -.036** | .016* | -.058** | .045** | -.020* | -.004 |
| 5. Business Planning (Function) | -.058** | -.043** | -.003 | -.016* | -.073** | -.040** | -.035** | -.018* | -.047** | .012 | -.005 | -.001 | -.059** | -.047** |
| 6. Customer Service/Support (Function) | -.143** | -.106** | -.009 | -.039** | -.180** | -.100** | -.087** | -.045** | -.117** | -.063** | -.039** | .066** | .010 | -.004 |
| 7. Engineering (Function) | -.145** | -.108** | -.009 | -.040** | -.184** | -.102** | -.089** | -.046** | -.119** | -.024** | .039** | -.024** | -.059** | -.058** |
| 8. Engineering Services (Function) | -.023** | -.017* | -.001 | -.006 | -.029** | -.016* | -.014* | -.007 | -.019* | -.015* | -.010 | .016* | -.029** | -.013 |
| 9. Facilities (Function) | -.039** | -.029** | -.002 | -.011 | -.049** | -.027** | -.024** | -.012 | -.032** | -.019* | .019* | -.008 | .000 | -.002 |
| 10. Finance (Function) | -.066** | -.049** | -.004 | -.018* | -.083** | -.046** | -.040** | -.021** | -.054** | .039** | .035** | -.051** | .050** | -.030** |
| 11. Human Resources (Function) | -.028** | -.021** | -.002 | -.008 | -.035** | -.019* | -.017* | -.009 | -.023** | .025** | .029** | -.038** | .009 | -.010 |
| 12. Information Management (Function) | -.056** | -.041** | -.003 | -.015* | -.070** | -.039** | -.034** | -.018* | -.046** | -.003 | -.007 | .008 | -.011 | -.024** |
| 13. Legal (Function) | -.025** | -.018* | -.001 | -.007 | -.031** | -.017* | -.015* | -.008 | -.020** | .091** | -.015* | -.031** | -.002 | -.021** |
| 14. Marketing (Function) | -.055** | -.041** | -.003 | -.015* | -.069** | -.039** | -.034** | -.017* | -.045** | .051** | .009 | -.033** | -.014* | -.021** |
| 15. Marketing Support (Function) | -.006 | -.004 | .000 | -.002 | -.007 | -.004 | -.003 | -.002 | -.005 | -.004 | -.007 | .009 | -.008 | -.007 |
| 16. Operations (Function) | 1.00 | -.061** | -.005 | -.022** | -.103** | -.057** | -.050** | -.026** | -.067** | .048** | .075** | -.091** | -.012 | .023** |
| 17. Outsourcing Management (Function) | | 1.00 | -.004 | -.017* | -.076** | -.042** | -.037** | -.019* | -.050** | -.025** | -.019* | .029** | .014* | .068** |
| 18. Public Aff. & Comms. (Function) | | | 1.00 | -.001 | -.006 | -.003 | -.003 | -.002 | -.004 | -.003 | .006 | -.004 | .009 | -.010 |
| 19. Quality (Function) | | | | 1.00 | -.028** | -.016* | -.014 | -.007 | -.018* | .023** | -.007 | -.004 | -.009 | -.017* |
| 20. Sales (Function) | | | | | 1.00 | -.072** | -.063** | -.032** | -.084** | .038** | .012 | -.030** | .065** | .057** |
| 21. Sales Operations (Function) | | | | | | 1.00 | -.035** | -.018* | -.047** | -.016* | -.006 | .013 | .033** | -.011 |
| 22. Technical (Function) | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.016* | -.041** | -.032** | -.068** | .077** | -.024** | .091** |
| 23. Training (Function) | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.021** | -.012 | -.002 | .008 | -.009 | .008 |
| 24. Unknown (Function) | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.025** | -.036** | .045** | .040** | .016* |
| 25. Executive (Level) | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.072** | -.420** | -.035** | -.019* |
| 26. Manager (Level) | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.875** | .019* | .007 |
| 27. Individual Contributor (Level) | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | .000 | .003 |
| 28. Employee Power Distance | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.099** |
| 29. Employee Individualism/Collectivism | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 |
| 30. Manager Power Distance | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 31. Manager Individualism/Collectivism | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Table A.3 (continued) Predictor and Outcome Variable Correlations: Extreme Response

| | 30 | 31 |
|---|---------|---------|
| Variable | | |
| 1. Extreme Response Difference | -.011 | -.003 |
| 2. Gender | -.006 | .020** |
| 3. Length of Service | -.156** | -.150** |
| 4. Administration (Function) | -.017* | -.006 |
| 5. Business Planning (Function) | -.059** | -.040** |
| 6. Customer Service/Support (Function) | .011 | .000 |
| 7. Engineering (Function) | -.051** | -.061** |
| 8. Engineering Services (Function) | -.028** | -.012 |
| 9. Facilities (Function) | -.008 | -.008 |
| 10. Finance (Function) | .040** | -.040** |
| 11. Human Resources (Function) | .002 | -.010 |
| 12. Information Management (Function) | -.022** | -.022** |
| 13. Legal (Function) | -.006 | -.028** |
| 14. Marketing (Function) | -.025** | -.025** |
| 15. Marketing Support (Function) | -.008 | -.007 |
| 16. Operations (Function) | -.021** | .029** |
| 17. Outsourcing Management (Function) | .018* | .068** |
| 18. Public Aff. & Comms. (Function) | .005 | -.010 |
| 19. Quality (Function) | -.004 | -.021** |
| 20. Sales (Function) | .066** | .061** |
| 21. Sales Operations (Function) | .041** | -.012 |
| 22. Technical (Function) | -.021** | .094** |
| 23. Training (Function) | -.004 | .001 |
| 24. Unknown (Function) | .050** | .016* |
| 25. Executive (Level) | -.043** | -.019* |
| 26. Manager (Level) | .007 | .004 |
| 27. Individual Contributor (Level) | .015* | .006 |
| 28. Employee Power Distance | .890** | -.069** |
| 29. Employee Individualism/Collectivism | -.060** | .947** |
| 30. Manager Power Distance | 1.00 | -.084** |
| 31. Manager Individualism/Collectivism | | 1.00 |

Regression

Table A.4 Predictor and Outcome Variable Correlations: Acquiescence Regression

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | |
|--|------|-------|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|--|
| 1. Acquiescent Response Difference | 1.00 | -.005 | .065** | -.011 | .033** | -.044** | .039** | .017* | .006 | .024** | -.009 | -.048** | .017* | .021** | -.007 | |
| 2. Gender | | 1.00 | .068** | -.226** | -.080** | .140** | .123** | .001 | .007 | -.127** | -.090** | -.009 | -.047** | -.084** | -.023** | |
| 3. Length of Service | | | 1.00 | -.005 | .043** | .142** | .024** | .011 | .028** | -.084** | .000 | -.052** | -.006 | -.013 | .005 | |
| 4. Administration (Function) | | | | 1.00 | -.031** | -.077** | -.078** | -.013 | -.021** | -.035** | -.015* | -.030** | -.013 | -.030** | -.003 | |
| 5. Business Planning (Function) | | | | | 1.00 | -.101** | -.103** | -.016* | -.027** | -.046** | -.020* | -.039** | -.017* | -.039** | -.004 | |
| 6. Customer Service/Support (Function) | | | | | | 1.00 | -.254** | -.041** | -.068** | -.115** | -.049** | -.097** | -.043** | -.096** | -.010 | |
| 7. Engineering (Function) | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.041** | -.069** | -.118** | -.050** | -.099** | -.044** | -.098** | -.010 | |
| 8. Engineering Services (Function) | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.011 | -.019* | -.008 | -.016* | -.007 | -.016* | -.002 | |
| 9. Facilities (Function) | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.031** | -.013 | -.027** | -.012 | -.026** | -.003 | |
| 10. Finance (Function) | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.022** | -.045** | -.020* | -.044** | -.004 | |
| 11. Human Resources (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.019* | -.008 | -.019* | -.002 | |
| 12. Information Management (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.017* | -.038** | -.004 | |
| 13. Legal (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.017* | -.002 | |
| 14. Marketing (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.004 | |
| 15. Marketing Support (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | |
| 16. Operations (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 17. Outsourcing Management (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 18. Public Affairs & Communications (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 19. Quality (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20. Sales (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 21. Sales Operations (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 22. Technical (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 23. Training (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 24. Unknown (Function) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 25. Executive (Level) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 26. Manager (Level) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 27. Individual Contributor (Level) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 28. Employee Power Distance | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 29. Employee Individualism/Collectivism | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 30. Manager Power Distance | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 31. Manager Individualism/Collectivism | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Table A.4 (continued) Predictor and Outcome Variable Correlations: Acquiescence

Regression

| Variable | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 |
|---|---------|---------|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1. Acquiescent Response Difference | .015* | -.018* | .010 | .005 | -.006 | -.008 | .006 | -.011 | -.014 | .032** | .011 | -.025** | -.038** | -.021** |
| 2. Gender | -.054** | .021** | -.018* | -.025** | .068** | -.158** | .056** | -.035** | .071** | .030** | .044** | -.055** | -.008 | .019* |
| 3. Length of Service | .018* | -.075** | -.008 | .021* | -.099** | -.055** | -.021** | .022** | .024** | .084** | .111** | -.141** | -.166** | -.150** |
| 4. Administration (Function) | -.044** | -.033** | -.003 | -.012 | -.055** | -.031** | -.027** | -.014 | -.036** | .016* | -.058** | .045** | -.020* | -.004 |
| 5. Business Planning (Function) | -.058** | -.043** | -.003 | -.016* | -.073** | -.040** | -.035** | -.018* | -.047** | .012 | -.005 | -.001 | -.059** | -.047** |
| 6. Customer Service/Support (Function) | -.143** | -.106** | -.009 | -.039** | -.180** | -.100** | -.087** | -.045** | -.117** | -.063** | -.039** | .066** | .010 | -.004 |
| 7. Engineering (Function) | -.145** | -.108** | -.009 | -.040** | -.184** | -.102** | -.089** | -.046** | -.119** | -.024** | .039** | -.024** | -.059** | -.058** |
| 8. Engineering Services (Function) | -.023** | -.017* | -.001 | -.006 | -.029** | -.016* | -.014* | -.007 | -.019* | -.015* | -.010 | .016* | -.029** | -.013 |
| 9. Facilities (Function) | -.039** | -.029** | -.002 | -.011 | -.049** | -.027** | -.024** | -.012 | -.032** | -.019* | .019* | -.008 | .000 | -.002 |
| 10. Finance (Function) | -.066** | -.049** | -.004 | -.018* | -.083** | -.046** | -.040** | -.021** | -.054** | .039** | .035** | -.051** | .050** | -.030** |
| 11. Human Resources (Function) | -.028** | -.021** | -.002 | -.008 | -.035** | -.019* | -.017* | -.009 | -.023** | .025** | .029** | -.038** | .009 | -.010 |
| 12. Information Management (Function) | -.056** | -.041** | -.003 | -.015* | -.070** | -.039** | -.034** | -.018* | -.046** | -.003 | -.007 | .008 | -.011 | -.024** |
| 13. Legal (Function) | -.025** | -.018* | -.001 | -.007 | -.031** | -.017* | -.015* | -.008 | -.020** | .091** | -.015* | -.031** | -.002 | -.021** |
| 14. Marketing (Function) | -.055** | -.041** | -.003 | -.015* | -.069** | -.039** | -.034** | -.017* | -.045** | .051** | .009 | -.033** | -.014* | -.021** |
| 15. Marketing Support (Function) | -.006 | -.004 | .000 | -.002 | -.007 | -.004 | -.003 | -.002 | -.005 | -.004 | -.007 | .009 | -.008 | -.007 |
| 16. Operations (Function) | 1.00 | -.061** | -.005 | -.022** | -.103** | -.057** | -.050** | -.026** | -.067** | .048** | .075** | -.091** | -.012 | .023** |
| 17. Outsourcing Management (Function) | | 1.00 | -.004 | -.017* | -.076** | -.042** | -.037** | -.019* | -.050** | -.025** | -.019* | .029** | .014* | .068** |
| 18. Public Aff. & Comms. (Function) | | | 1.00 | -.001 | -.006 | -.003 | -.003 | -.002 | -.004 | -.003 | .006 | -.004 | .009 | -.010 |
| 19. Quality (Function) | | | | 1.00 | -.028** | -.016* | -.014 | -.007 | -.018* | .023** | -.007 | -.004 | -.009 | -.017* |
| 20. Sales (Function) | | | | | 1.00 | -.072** | -.063** | -.032** | -.084** | .038** | .012 | -.030** | .065** | .057** |
| 21. Sales Operations (Function) | | | | | | 1.00 | -.035** | -.018* | -.047** | -.016* | -.006 | .013 | .033** | -.011 |
| 22. Technical (Function) | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.016* | -.041** | -.032** | -.068** | .077** | -.024** | .091** |
| 23. Training (Function) | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.021** | -.012 | -.002 | .008 | -.009 | .008 |
| 24. Unknown (Function) | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.025** | -.036** | .045** | .040** | .016* |
| 25. Executive (Level) | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.072** | -.420** | -.035** | -.019* |
| 26. Manager (Level) | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.875** | .019* | .007 |
| 27. Individual Contributor (Level) | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | .000 | .003 |
| 28. Employee Power Distance | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | -.099** |
| 29. Employee Individualism/Collectivism | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 |
| 30. Manager Power Distance | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 31. Manager Individualism/Collectivism | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Table A.4 (continued) Predictor and Outcome Variable Correlations: Acquiescence

| | Regression | |
|---|-------------------|---------|
| Variable | 30 | 31 |
| 1. Acquiescent Response Difference | -.039** | -.023** |
| 2. Gender | -.006 | .020** |
| 3. Length of Service | -.156** | -.150** |
| 4. Administration (Function) | -.017* | -.006 |
| 5. Business Planning (Function) | -.059** | -.040** |
| 6. Customer Service/Support (Function) | .011 | .000 |
| 7. Engineering (Function) | -.051** | -.061** |
| 8. Engineering Services (Function) | -.028** | -.012 |
| 9. Facilities (Function) | -.008 | -.008 |
| 10. Finance (Function) | .040** | -.040** |
| 11. Human Resources (Function) | .002 | -.010 |
| 12. Information Management (Function) | -.022** | -.022** |
| 13. Legal (Function) | -.006 | -.028** |
| 14. Marketing (Function) | -.025** | -.025** |
| 15. Marketing Support (Function) | -.008 | -.007 |
| 16. Operations (Function) | -.021** | .029** |
| 17. Outsourcing Management (Function) | .018* | .068** |
| 18. Public Aff. & Comms. (Function) | .005 | -.010 |
| 19. Quality (Function) | -.004 | -.021** |
| 20. Sales (Function) | .066** | .061** |
| 21. Sales Operations (Function) | .041** | -.012 |
| 22. Technical (Function) | -.021** | .094** |
| 23. Training (Function) | -.004 | .001 |
| 24. Unknown (Function) | .050** | .016* |
| 25. Executive (Level) | -.043** | -.019* |
| 26. Manager (Level) | .007 | .004 |
| 27. Individual Contributor (Level) | .015* | .006 |
| 28. Employee Power Distance | .890** | -.069** |
| 29. Employee Individualism/Collectivism | -.060** | .947** |
| 30. Manager Power Distance | 1.00 | -.084** |
| 31. Manager Individualism/Collectivism | | 1.00 |