

CULTURAL ASPECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR: THE RELATIONSHIP
BETWEEN CULTURAL DIMENSIONS OF POWER DISTANCE,
UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE, AND INDIVIDUALISM
AND ATTITUDES TOWARD PARTICIPATION,
LOYALTY, LEADERSHIP CAPACITY,
AND NATIONALITY PREFERENCE

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Poona, India

1981

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Department of Management of the
College of Business Administration
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Master of Business Administration

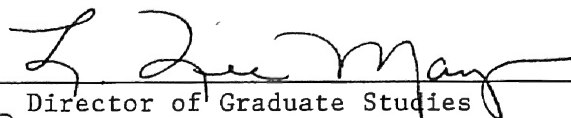
December, 1984

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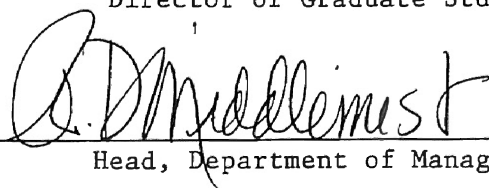
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Title of Study: Cultural Aspects of Organizational Behavior: The Relationship Between Cultural Dimensions of Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Individualism and Attitudes Toward Participation, Loyalty, Leadership Capacity, and Nationality Preference

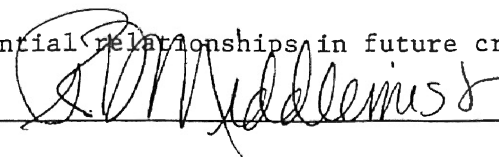
Pages in Study: 85

Candidate for the Degree of
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Purpose and Method of Study: The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between the cultural dimensions of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism and attitudes toward participation, loyalty, leadership capacity, and nationality preference. The independent variables were taken from a study by Geert Hofstede (1980). A questionnaire was designed to measure the dependent variables. A sample of 360 students from Venezuela, India, Pakistan, Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand, Iran, and the United States were asked to answer the questionnaire concerning their attitudes toward participation, loyalty, leadership capacity and their preferences for organizational and boss nationality. Stepwise and linear regression models were used to analyze the data.

Findings and Conclusions: Nationality preference was found to have a negative relationship with power distance. Nationality preference was found to have a marginally significant and positive relationship with individualism. None of the other dependent variables were found to have a relationship with power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism. Functionally equivalent samples are needed to establish potential relationships in future cross-cultural studies.

Advisor's Approval



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to take this opportunity to thank Dr. Dennis Middlemist for his valuable advice and encouragement. I would also like to express my thanks to the following fellow OSU students who voluntarily helped me with the field work for the survey and without whose help this study would not have been a success: Khalid Perwaiz Chaudhry (Pakistan), Syet Rashid Noor (Pakistan), Juan Mendez (Venezuela), John Y. Chong (Singapore), Pan Chien-Chun (Republic of China), Chantra-urai Suang (Thailand), Ramanan Gopalan (India), and Fatemeh Nazarieh (Iran).

I would also like to thank Bob Wilson who helped me a great deal with the analytical part of the study.

And finally, I would like to thank my brother, Ibrahim A. Kalib, without whose moral and material support throughout my schooling this could not have been accomplished.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of Study

Many theories of organizational behavior abound in the literature from Weber's Protestant Ethic, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory to Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership. In recent years, the cultural aspect of organizational behavior has attracted a great deal of attention, and the culture-boundedness of many theories has been recognized. Using an interdisciplinary approach and tapping the disciplines of sociology, social-psychology, and anthropology, organizational theorists have increasingly focused their inquiries on the potential influences of the cultural environment on human behavior in organizational settings.

One major difficulty in cross-cultural research has been the lack of consensus on operational dimensions of culture. One major cross-cultural study, certainly the most comprehensive I have come across, has been done by Geert Hofstede (1980). In this study, Hofstede administered more than 117,000 questionnaires to 60,000 respondents in 40 countries. Through factor analyses, Hofstede isolated and operationalized the following four dimensions of culture:

1. Power Distance: This is a measure of the interpersonal power or influence between a boss (B) and a subordinate (S) as perceived by the least powerful of the two, S. According to Hofstede, power distance is essentially a measure that describes the basic human inequalities in power, prestige, wealth, etc., in a particular culture.
2. Uncertainty Avoidance: This is a measure of the tolerance/intolerance level for uncertainty in a culture.

3. Individualism: This is a measure of the relationship between the individual and the collectivity in society.
4. Masculinity: Masculinity is a measure of the sex role distribution and perception common in a particular culture.

Hofstede calculated a Power Distance Index (PDI), Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI), Individualism Index (IDV), and Masculinity Index (MAS) for each of the 40 countries in this study. An interesting question that emerges from this study is: How do these operational dimensions of culture affect managerial philosophies and attitudes in different cultures?

The purpose of this study is to explore the answer to that question. More specifically, the relationship between the cultural dimensions of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism and attitudes toward participative management, loyalty to one's organization, leadership capacity, and organizational nationality preferences are examined.

Methodology

Oklahoma State University students from eight different countries were used as respondents in this study. The eight countries included in the survey are: Venezuela, India, Iran, USA, Taiwan, Thailand, Pakistan, and Singapore. The design for this survey is a regression model and multiple correlation using PDI, UAI, and IDV as the independent variables and attitudes toward participative management, loyalty, organizational nationality preferences, and leadership capacity as the dependent variables.

Each respondent was given a questionnaire containing 11 attitudinal and preference items and 6 biographical items. The data was analyzed through linear and stepwise regression and multiple correlation.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Culture

The term culture has been defined in different ways and different words. Although there seems to be a consensus that it refers to the way of life of a particular society, its exact meaning in terms of content is still vague for operational purposes (Linton, 1945). Linton has given a definition that would suffice our purpose in this study. He defined culture as "the configuration of learned behavior and results of behavior whose component elements are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society."¹

Two important elements in this definition are:

- 1) That it is learned (not inborn) behavior and
- 2) That it is shared by the collectivity.

Human beings can make adjustments in their behavior through cognitive calculations depending on the circumstances of the situation. However, the patterns of behavior by which people interact with each other, whether they are at a formal party or the work place, are very much influenced by the common experience that they had from the cultural environment in which they were born and reared. At birth, human beings have no fixed patterns of behavior. They are born positively neutral in the sense that they have certain potentialities or biological equipment that can accept any kind of cultural programming to which they might be exposed through the process of socialization (Winston, 1935). "One begins life as a tabula rasa, a clean slate, on which the relevant aspects of 'human-ness' are to be inscribed."² It is only later that individuals acquire what Hofstede (1980) calls "mental programmes" and

develop culturally determined patterns of behavior such as language, way of dress, speaking and table manners, etc., that identify them with a specific cultural area. Thus, at birth we are all culturally neutral only to become identified later as Americans, French, Japanese or Somalis depending on the particular cultural programming that we receive through socialization by social institutions such as family, church, school and organizations. Stressing that element of cultural neutrality at birth, R.G. Collingwood wrote:

A man is born a red and wrinkled lump of flesh having no will of its own at all, absolutely at the mercy of the parents by whose conspiracy he has been brought into existence. That is what no science of human community must ever forget.³

The influence of culture upon human behavior is so pervasive that it even affects the most basic physiological body reactions such as sneezing (Winston, 1935). In the presence of others, the simple, involuntary body reaction of sneezing may be looked upon with disfavor in one society, and with utter indifference in another. Recognizing that pervasive influence, Winston (1935) writes:

Individualistic human behavior may be separated into its physiological, psycho-social, and cultural components. That integrated pattern of behavior which in its totality may be called personality is compounded of these three basic elements.⁴

Thus, the individual members of different societies owe their varying personality configurations much less to their senses than to their nurseries (Linton, 1945). Gordon (1984) states that "the common experiences which make up a peoples' social and political history do result in customs, traditions, norms and preferences."⁵

How do cultural factors affect the organizational life and structure of a society? How do they affect the motivational patterns of workers in different societies? What could be done to better understand

the similarities, if any, and differences in motivation patterns in different societies? These are some of the pertinent questions that could be raised regarding the need for the development of a cross-cultural approach to organizational theory. The element of subjectivity in social science cannot be eliminated completely. The world's societies are so diverse and complex that we can only draw conclusions based on research from our own cultural perspective. In this sense, the researcher's subjective conclusions always color the outcome (Hofstede, 1980).

The complexity of today's societies and our inability to comprehend them in their totality without approaching it from different cultural perspectives brings to mind the famous parable about the blind men and the elephant: the one who touched the leg thought it was a big tree; the one who got the tail thought it was a rope; but none of them had the slightest idea of what the shape of the whole animal was really like. In a sense, social scientists are like those blind men in the face of the "social elephant", and we can only make headway in better understanding today's societies and their problems by "collaborating with other blindmen and women" (Hofstede, 1980). The cultural frame of reference of any one researcher is so limited that we can only describe but not prescribe as Hofstede (1980) aptly put it:

The battle for the recognition of a cultural component in our ideas is worth being fought. More so now than a generation ago, most of us meet people with cultural backgrounds different from our own and are expected to work with them. If we maintain the assumption that because they look like us, they also think like us, our joint efforts will not get very far.⁶

On the surface, people seem to be getting along well despite cultural differences. This mostly happens through conscious efforts to compromise and conform despite inner feelings to the contrary. It is

the old adage of "While in Rome, act like the Romans." In the face of these superficial appearances, actual and real differences may not be apparent. As Hall put it in *The Silent Language*: "surface differences (between societies) can be seen and dealt with. What defeats us all are the hidden elements in man's psychological make-up whose presence are all too often not even suspected."⁷

Hofstede (1980), in his study across 40 countries, takes classical organizational theorists to task. He argues that most of the classical organizational theorists took the cultural component as a big constant, and in that light formulated a wide array of theories that were, in fact, culture-bound and had limited universal applications to modern management. According to Hofstede (1980), only comparison between cultures can show that other ideas are possible. The capacity to understand and appreciate one's own society and its way of living demands a certain measure of objectivity. It is only when we come into contact with "strange" people speaking a "strange" language and doing things in "strange" ways that we begin to be conscious of our own way of living. Thus, an individual researcher would only appreciate his own subjective culture when he gets exposed to other cultures and societies.

Hofstede's study and other cross-cultural studies clearly show that different motivation patterns exist in different cultures. Blind extrapolations of findings of any study beyond the particular culture in which the study was carried out is an exercise in ethnocentrism (Hofstede, 1980).

An opposing view is that of the adherents to the Convergence Theory which states that industrialization, being a universal phenomenon, inculcates the same organizational values and work-related behavior everywhere since it demands a keen sense of responsibility, high pace of

work and responsibility for assigned tasks in modern industrial organizations (Kerr et al., 1964). The basic premise of the Convergence Theory is the universal transferability of industrial technology across cultures coupled with the diminution of the role of the basic, culturally indoctrinating social institution, the family, in modern societies (Kerr, 1964). Inkeles and Smith (1974), in a cross-cultural study involving six countries explored how cultures were transformed from traditional orientation to a more homogenizing modern orientation through the process of industrialization.

Granted that industrialization, with the consequent emergence of large enterprises and heavily populated urban centers, creates common problems and challenges to all societies. Yet the assumption that this somehow creates an "industrial man" without regard to cultural variations is no less erroneous than the "economic man" of the "dismal science". Different societies have found different ways of solving the same problems, and this has been so for ages. There is no "one best way" of solving a problem (Hofstede, 1980).

To bring the point home, Hofstede (1980) quotes three authors on the same organizational issue - authority. For the same issue of exercise of authority, Weber (a German) stresses the office; Fayol (a French) stresses the person; Follett (an American) stresses the situation. This indicates that even organizational theorists, let alone workers and laymen, do not see the rule of the game in the same way in different cultures. Thus, the new theory of cultural relativism challenges the notion of absolute and undiluted standards of judgement applied uniformly without regard to time and culture (Christensen, 1962). Christensen rightly argues that questions of right and wrong are relative to the particular culture in which the behavior occurs. As a result, indi-

viduals reared in different cultures rarely share common and predictable modes of behavior in interpersonal and organizational situations. The danger of drawing universal conclusions on the basis of samples from a unicultural statistical universe cannot be over-emphasized. Triandis (1967) writes:

Differences in personality and national character, habits, reference groups, contingencies of reward in different cultures add to the dimensions along which members of international organizations are likely to be different.⁸

From an organizational point of view, there is a gap between the actual and the potential productivity performance of industrial workers in most of the modern nations today. Among other things, this had been one of the major factors that gave impetus to the search for theories of human motivation. What is it that motivates human beings to work hard and produce more in industry? The quest for an answer led to a proliferation of theories on motivation, job satisfaction, and leadership. Though we have come a long way since Maslow and Taylor, there is no common consensus among students of organizational behavior as to the "precise" answer if there ever could be one. This is so because different cultural antecedents lead to different motivation patterns in different societies. While individual success and achievement in the form of wealth, and the drive to keep up with the Jones' and ahead of the Smiths may be a highly motivating factor for the Bensons in Boston, a sense of belonging and other-worldly matters may be important to the Bharats in Bombay.

A review of the current literature, on cross-cultural research clearly shows the indisputable fact that the individual member of society is to a great extent a product of his/her own culture. Basic social institutions such as family, church, and school instill in the person the fundamental "mental programmes" characteristic of that particular

culture. Organizations and other social agents reinforce these mental programmes later in life. Out of all these processes emerge certain patterns of behavior collectively shared and transmitted by members of society.

Fortunately, the pervasive influence of culture on human behavior in organizations has been recognized and the pace of cross-cultural research is quite encouraging. In this respect, Hofstede's cross-cultural study stands out as a monumental landmark and a giant step in the right direction. He has operationalized through ecological (societal) factor analysis four dimensions of culture that deal with power, uncertainty, individualism, and masculinity.

Power Distance

In common parlance, power is used to mean the capacity to get certain anticipated outcomes even in the face of opposition. We read in our daily newspapers such references as "the power of gangs", "the power of unions", "the power of the media", "the power of lobby groups", etc. The meanings derived from this everyday usage of the term varies. Even scholarly definitions of power vary widely (Schermerhorn, 1964). Schermerhorn (1964) defines power as "the processual relation between two parties modally characterized by asymmetrical influence and the predominance of negative sanctions as a feature of behavior in the dominant party."⁹ Wrong (1979) defines power as "the capacity of some persons to produce intended and foreseen effects on others."¹⁰ Lasswell (1948) argues that power is an interpersonal situation, and that those who hold power are empowered and depend upon and continue only so long as there is a continuing stream of empowering responses. Power is a process that vanishes when the supporting responses cease (Lasswell,

1948).

Interpretations of the role of power in human interaction has broadened over the years with the advancement of the interdisciplinary field of organizational behavior. Karl Marx's analysis of economic forces caused a reevaluation of the social bases of power and the possibility that power configurations have deeper-lying societal causes (Schermerhorn, 1964). Later, Weber made a typology of power, classifying it into traditional, legal, and charismatic forms.

As old conceptions about power are reexamined and new ones explored, many scholars have called attention to the need for a more adequate analysis of the dimension of power. Notable examples include bargaining (Apfelbaum, 1974), authority (Zimbardo, 1975), equity (Homans, 1976), intergroup relations (Billig, 1976), and collective programming (Hofstede, 1980).

The notion of power implies interaction and human relationships. Human relationships could be either symmetrical or asymmetrical in nature. The idea of power rarely occurs in the former (Schermerhorn, 1964). Power is introduced into the equation when human interaction is asymmetrical in the sense that one party to the relationship (the power holder) exercises more influence on the other party (the power subject), thereby affecting his behavior in intended ways.

One form of asymmetrical human relationship is based on attraction or charisma. One party to the relationship commands submission to his/her power not by coercion or pressure of sanctions but by virtue of personal magnetism and the embodiment of well-established religious or secular values. A second form of asymmetrical human interaction occurs through pressure from above and obedience from below. According to Schermerhorn (1964), submission to power can take five subforms:

1. Submission to a dominant figure who embodies informal group values.
2. Submission to leader with rational qualifications such as expertise.
3. Submission to a leader in view of his/her office (institutional power).
4. Submission to a person because of his/her superior ability to use physical force.
5. Submission to a dominant figure out of habit based on custom and usage.

Wrong (1979) makes a corresponding classification of power: coercive authority, authority by inducement, legitimate authority, competent authority, and personal authority.

Human relationships between individuals do not occur in isolation. They occur within the context of a social environment (Hung, 1980). "Society indeed," writes Bierstedt "is impossible without order and it is authority which serves as the foundation of much of the order which society exhibits."¹¹ Thus, in any human relationship in which the exercise of power is involved, both parties to the relationship represent values, beliefs, and group norms that transcend any set of behaviors unique to the individual. Hung (1980) asserts that the conceptions of power have largely been directed at the individual or interpersonal level, and that power embedded in the collective culture of society has been neglected as if power at the individual level can be undertaken in a social vacuum. Wrong (1979) refers to "collective resources" as one of the major bases of power. Resources here include time, money, prestige, embodiment of values, persuasive skills, and exclusive knowledge. All these material and nonmaterial resources are unequally dis-

tributed in society, and those who possess them are able to exercise power over those who lack them or have less of them. Hofstede (1980) states that "human species belongs to the category that shows dominance behavior and human pecking orders are part of the 'universal' level of human mental programming."¹² Thus, collective "mental programming" in society has been recognized as a major antecedent of power on the basis of which societies could be differentiated (Hofstede, 1980; Hung, 1980; Schermerhorn, 1964; Wrong, 1979).

Hofstede, in his monumental study involving 40 countries, shows that the way societies treat fundamental inequalities inherent in social existence is different from culture to culture. Some societies are highly stratified and have formal systems of dominance; others go to great lengths to deemphasize it (Hofstede, 1980). Hofstede has made a great contribution to the understanding of the concept of power from a cross-cultural perspective. Through ecological (societal) factor analysis, he has operationalized power as a dimension of culture on the basis of which societies could be differentiated and located on a continuum measuring what he called "power distance". For each of the 40 countries in his sample, he calculated a country Power Distance Index (PDI). Power Distance Index values for eight of these countries which are included in this study are given in Table 2.1. Power distance, according to Hofstede, is a measure of the level of interpersonal power between a power holder and a power subject, and that the level of submissiveness to power (and therefore lack of disagreement with power holder) is societally determined. This submissiveness would be high in countries high on the power distance measure and low in countries low on the power distance measure. This corresponds to Schermerhorn's classification of societies into rigid and flexible on the dimension

TABLE 2.1

Country Power Distance Index Values

Country	Power Distance Index (PDI)
Venezuela	81
India	77
Singapore	74
Thailand	64
Iran	58
Taiwan	58
Pakistan	55
USA	40

Source: Hofstede, Geert. *Culture's Consequences* (1980).

of power (Schermerhorn, 1964). In rigid societies, the reaction of power subjects to the exercise of power is one of relative submissiveness, while in flexible societies, it is one of cognitive and rational calculation to test its legitimacy. Blais (1974) made distinctions between "pluratist" and "elitist" societies. Bohannan (1969) made distinctions between caste, estate, class, and tribe as forms of social stratification in different societies on the basis of which power is distributed.

Illustrations of how power is distributed in different societies are legion both in observational accounts and in scientific cross-cultural literature. For example, the Zulus of South Africa, considering themselves a warrior race, prefer obedience to traditional authority, and think it degrading to accept the discipline of industrial labor

(Mead, 1960). In India, the caste system, although legally abolished, is still a conspicuous feature of Indian society. According to the caste system of stratification, the "Harijans" are placed at the lowest rung of the social ladder. In a study involving American and Filipino students, Stoodley (1962) analyzed attitudinal differences between the two groups. Referring to the Filipino group, he states: "in the dominant institution, the family, authority is carefully allocated among siblings according to age and culminates in the parents. Obedience in accordance with this ladder of authority is strictly enforced . . . family members are separated by considerable authority distance."¹³

The implications of the power distance dimension for organizations doing business across different cultures are matters for further empirical inquiry. The objective and subjective bases of power configurations characteristic of a particular culture are bound to spill over into the organizational life of that society (Hofstede, 1980). Thus, the Indian custom of bowing to and touching the feet of elders and religious gurus to show respect may be carried over into organizational situations of boss-subordinate relationships. Hofstede's analysis of power across cultures suggests that in societies high on power distance measure, subordinates are likely to follow the rules of the organization and look for directions and guidelines from superiors. This implies fear of failure and the consequences thereof in case of independent initiative. Gorden (1984) states that "a cultural orientation which holds the individual as more important than status will minimize authority and hierarchy in its organizations, and will tend to minimize compliance with rules."¹⁴

Linton (1945) writes:

In societies in which the culture pattern prescribes absolute obedience from child to parent . . . the normal adult would tend to be submissive, dependent and lacking in initiative.

. . . his/her first reaction to any new situation will be to look to someone in authority for support and direction.¹⁵

The power distance norm as a dimension of culture carries implications for many facets of organizational life. Probable areas for effect include employee attitude toward participation, independent initiative and leadership, and moral and functional loyalty to one's organization.

Individualism

Individualism, like many other "isms", is a nineteenth century term and has a long semantic and philosophical history. Many of the earlier thinkers of Europe deplored the rise of individualism in nineteenth century Europe, fearing that it would shake the society to its foundations and cause "spiritual anarchy". Notable among them were de Maistre, de Bonald, Lammennais, and Burke who argued that "individuals pass like shadows, but the commonwealth is fixed and stable."¹⁶ Here, however, we are not interested in the semantic or philosophical history of the concept of individualism. Rather, we are interested in the concept of individualism as a dimension of culture on the basis of which societies could be differentiated and implications for organizational life better understood from a cross-cultural perspective. In this sense, the concept of individualism refers to the relationship between the individual member of society and the collectivity (Hofstede, 1980). It will be used in that context throughout this study.

In any society, the interests of the individual do not always coincide with those of the collectivity, and as a result an element of discrepancy and dynamism enters into the equation. For any society to achieve order and stability, certain values and norms of social conduct must be shared so that predictable patterns of behavior are cre-

ated for smooth social interaction (Lukes, 1973).

Different societies have found different ways of dealing with the conflict between self and society. In some societies, emphasis is put on the individual rather than the collectivity. A cursory look at the American Constitution and Declaration of Independence, for example, would reveal the emphasis put on the dignity and freedom of the individual. But even in America, with its religious and cultural diversity, it has been difficult to implement these tenets to the full (Lee, 1962). The forces of individualism have always been pitted against those of conformism in American society. Commager (1954), decrying the decline of individual and intellectual freedom during the McCarthy era, wrote:

From the beginning, our own history was rooted in dissent. The decision to leave England for the New World, the decision to break with community, with church, even with the state was a manifestation of an adventurous, experimental attitude.¹⁷

Although Commager wrote these lines at a time of special circumstances in the history of America, a casual observation of American Society today would reveal that the battle between individualism and conformism is far from resolved. The great debates of today on issues such as abortion, separation of church and state, etc., are all attempts to reconcile conformity and individual freedom of choice for an orderly and stable society.

Some societies, in contrast, relegate the individual to a secondary position. In socialist countries, for example, the individual is demanded of sacrifice for the good of the collectivity; of renouncing self-interest and hailing common interest; of becoming the firewood that will warm up the future generations. In spite of these conscious efforts to bury any semblance of individualism in socialist countries, the fire of individualism is far from extinguished in these countries.

Apart from ideological influences, societies could also differ on the dimension of individualism depending on their level of industrialization and urban complexity (Schermerhorn, 1964). In simple societies, group values and sentiments are very strong, and in the absence of urban complexity, deviant behavior stands out and is quickly noticeable. In such rural, non-industrial societies, group conformity is so strong that there is maximum surveillance of what each member does (Schermerhorn, 1964). In Somali society, for example, knowing so much about the private affairs of friends and acquaintances is a normal, socially acceptable behavior. Mutuality and sharing of decisions, personal or otherwise, as well as economic resources is almost culturally mandatory. As a result, little economic surplus is created through individual savings, and people share what might be called democracy of scarcity.

It appears that the concepts of individualism and collectivism do not represent a discrete dichotomy of societies but rather a continuum. From a practical standpoint, no society is collectivist or individualist in an absolute sense. Rather, each society lies somewhere in that continuum relative to others. Triandis (1977) refers to the variations in value orientations between different cultures on the dimension of individualism. He asks: "are people to do what seems right to them (individualism), what is mandated by their social group (collaterality), or what is correct from the point of view of the elites of their social group (lineality)?"¹⁸

Individualism, as operationalized by Hofstede in his cross-cultural study, is a measure of the level of importance that different societies put on the individual member of society as an entity unto himself.

Some societies live in nuclear families; others in extended families of parents, children, uncles, cousins, nieces, aunts, grandparents, and even distant relatives whose only relation to the family may be at the tribal level (Hofstede, 1980). In India, for example, Hindu-undivided-family as a business entity is a feature of Indian society and is recognized as such in Indian business and tax laws. Other facets of life in Indian society show that collective decision-making is common in social matters. In 1980, this author witnessed a social spectacle bearing on this subject. Thousands of people belonging to the "Harijan" caste were converting to Islam not as individuals but as groups sometimes as large as a whole village. The Iman of Delhi went from village to village to preside over the conversion ceremonies. This reflects a group rather than individual identity in Indian society. In fact, India scores relatively low (48) on Hofstede's measure of individualism against the United States (91) (see Hofstede, 1980).

The Navaho Indians are among the societies that show high collectivism (Lee, 1962). "There is no reward for (individual) success . . . Wealth may be the result of hard work and skill, but obviously it is also a blatant lack of responsibility for one's relatives. No good Navaho becomes and remains "wealthy" in our own terms."¹⁹ In another study comparing the normative attitudes of Filipino youth with those of American and German youth, Stoodley (1962) found that the Filipino youth saw "the individual closely identified with the group, and as a result, make less distinction between group rights and individual rights than either German or American youth."²⁰ The Phillipines has a lower score than both the United States and Germany on the dimension of individualism as measured by Hofstede (see Hofstede, 1980).

In another study involving Chinese and American students at the

Chinese University of Hong Kong and the San Diego State University, Bond, Leung, and Wan tested the following two hypotheses:

1. The high collectivism of the Hong Kong Chinese would be associated with a more egalitarian assignment of rewards for task inputs than would the high individualism of American subjects.
2. High collectivism, with its emphasis on group harmony, would be associated with a more equitable assignment of rewards for group-maintenance inputs than would high individualism.

The first hypothesis was confirmed by the study and the authors called the reward for task-related inputs "superordination rewards". The second hypothesis was disconfirmed by the study. The authors labelled the rewards for group-maintenance inputs "intimacy rewards". In spite of the fact that the second hypothesis was not sustained by the study, the authors conclude that "the collectivist Chinese were more egalitarian in their allocation of both superordination and intimacy rewards than were the individualistic Americans."²¹

Geert Hofstede, in his cross-cultural study involving 40 countries, calculated an individualism index for each of these countries. The index values for eight of these countries considered in this study are shown in Table 2.2.

Hofstede suggests that the cultural dimension of individualism has many implications and connotations for a society's organizational life. Among other things, collectivist cultures are likely to discourage individual initiative and encourage group decision-making; employees are likely to have a sense of moral involvement with their organization. In contrast, individualism inculcates in employees a high regard for initiative and a calculative, and more utilitarian, involvement with

TABLE 2.2

Country Individualism Index Values

Country	Individualism Index (IDV)
USA	91
India	48
Iran	41
Singapore	20
Thailand	20
Taiwan	17
Pakistan	14
Venezuela	12

Source: Hofstede, Geert. Culture's Consequences (1980).

their organizations (see Hofstede, 1980). Other research findings show that in cultures where equality and personal achievement are highly valued, individual initiative and participation by subordinates are likely to be encouraged (Bass and Ryterband, 1979).

Thus, the concept of individualism constitutes a cultural dimension on the basis of which societies could be differentiated. The consequences of individualism for business organizations across cultures could be better understood if we take into account the cultural factors that determine group and societal values and norms.

Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty is a basic fact of human existence with which we have to cope through various mechanisms (Hofstede, 1980). Different indi-

viduals have different preferences concerning their need for certainty, as well as different perceptions of the uncertainties surrounding them (Milburn and Billings, 1976). These differences are likely to be magnified across cultures.

In assessing investment strategies, financial analysts assume that "rational" investors are risk-averse. But their risk-aversion differs across individual investors. On one side of the spectrum, we have pathological gamblers who seem to enjoy the excitement and anxiety created by the uncertainty of the outcomes of their behavior. These individuals may be considered least risk-averse. On the other side of the spectrum are those who stick to whatever seed capital they may have and invest only in the "safest" of investment channels, foregoing the possibility of a higher return for fear of losing all.

At the organizational level, uncertainty takes the form of uncontrollable factors with which the organization has to cope. Cyert and March (1963) refer to "negotiated environment" and "uncertainty absorption" as ways that organizations cope with an uncertain or "turbulent" environment over which they have no control. Organizations cope with uncertainty through technology, rules and regulations, and various organizational rituals. When environments grow turbulent and uncertain, special skills and information command a premium (Fiddle, 1980). The uncertain environment surrounding an organization includes competitors, suppliers, unions, consumers, government, the physical environment, and even foreign states. Spying on competitors, signing agreements with suppliers and unions, establishing standard operating procedures (to reduce unpredictability of employees' behavior), establishing public relations and government liaison offices, and economic forecasting are all ways to produce a "negotiated environment" and reduce uncertainty.

At the societal level, uncertainty is a fact of social existence for which each society devices its own ways of dealing with it. Social norms serve as standards of behavior to reduce uncertainty (Motagna, 1980). Lerner (1978) asserts that the social context is "fluid and unclear", and that collectivities may vary in their adjustment to this climate of uncertainty.

Uncertainty, according to Motagna, is nothing but degrees of lack of knowledge about the physical and social environment (Motagna, 1980). "Man", writes Mueller "lives into an unknowable future for whose political shaping he takes a personal risk without ever having any assurance of success."²² For the politician, the confidence gained by winning a certain measure of security is counterbalanced by the fear that the political order may change and new threats may appear, changing the power arrangement into a new configuration (Mueller, 1936). Friendships, alliances, covenants, and connections are all ritualistic manifestations to reduce the anxiety created by an uncertain environment.

Extreme uncertainty creates anxiety, and every society has developed its own ways of dealing with it. These ways and means come under the domains of technology, law, and religion. Technology helps us guard against the uncertainties of nature. Law against the behavior of fellowmen; religion against all other uncertainties for which we have no defenses (Hofstede, 1980). While sacrifices in honor of dead ancestors to guard against evil practiced by some societies do not reduce uncertainty in any objectives sense, they give those who practice them peace of mind.

While the concept of uncertainty has long been recognized in the social sciences, Hofstede's (1980) treatment of it as a dimension of culture on the basis of which societies could be differentiated represents a new and positive development. Hofstede asserts that the vari-

ous ways of coping with uncertainty prevalent in a society indicate the degree of tolerance/intolerance for uncertainty exhibited by that particular society. For each of the 40 countries included in his study, Hofstede developed and quantified uncertainty in what he called country Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI). For the eight countries considered in this study, uncertainty avoidance index values as computed in the Hofstede study are shown in Table 2.3.

TABLE 2.3

Country Uncertainty Avoidance Index Values

Country	Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)
Venezuela	76
Pakistan	70
Taiwan	69
Thailand	64
Iran	59
USA	46
India	40
Singapore	8

Source: Geert Hofstede. *Culture's Consequences*, Sage Publications, Beverly Hills, CA (1980).

Among other things, Hofstede suggests that a high uncertainty avoidance index is likely to be associated with such consequences as fear of failure, less risk-taking, preference for clear-cut instructions, compliance with company rules, suspicion toward foreigners, and pessi-

mism about people's leadership capacity. It would be interesting to see the implications of the uncertainty avoidance dimension for attitudes toward employee participation in decision-making, independent initiative, loyalty to one's organization, and a host of other attitudinal measures. This study is designed to explore some of these issues.

Summary

Over the past few years, the cultural aspects of organizational behavior have gained recognition and the current pace of cross-cultural research is quite encouraging. Various cross-cultural studies have opened new doors and contributed new insight into human behavior in the work place.

Culture refers to the way of life of a particular society - a way of life reflected in the patterns of behavior and modes of social conduct in interpersonal relations. Research studies have shown that this culturally determined pattern of human behavior in a particular society spills over to that society's organizational life both functionally and structurally (Hofstede, 1980). It follows that we would not expect the same motivational patterns among employees belonging to different cultures because each society inculcates in its members its own brand of "mental programming" through the process of socialization. These patterns of shared behavior are reinforced in social institutions such as the family, church, school, and organizations.

Though social scientists have devoted a considerable amount of energy on culture and its impact on personality, there has been no unanimous agreement either on its exact meaning or its components in operational terms. Geert Hofstede (1980) has managed to operationalize four dimensions of culture: power distance, which measures the level of

interpersonal power inherent in a particular culture; individualism which is a measure of the relationship between the individual and the collectivity; uncertainty avoidance which is a measure of the level of (in)tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity in human existence; and masculinity, which is a measure of the sex role distribution and perception common in a particular society. This study which involved respondents from 40 countries constitutes a major contribution to the understanding of culture and its consequences for organizations. However, it does not represent an exhaustive operationalization of all dimensions of culture. It reveals some of probably many dimensions of culture.

The cultural dimensions of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism carry certain connotations for societies and organizations (Hofstede, 1980). Among other things, they explain the differences in behavior and attitudes among employees of different cultures in similar organizational situations. The main purpose of this research study is to explore the implications of the cultural dimensions of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism for attitudes toward participation in decision-making, leadership capacity, loyalty to one's organization, and nationality preferences for company and boss for which one would like to work.

Hypotheses

The literature review shows that cross-cultural studies have made rapid strides in contributing to the understanding of the relationship between culture and human behavior in organizations. Specifically, Geert Hofstede's cross-cultural study involving 40 countries stands out as a monumental, empirical treatise in the operationalization of

cultural dimensions. Hofstede has provided us an important step in the direction of better understanding culture from a cross-cultural perspective. One way of following that lead is to explore in both quantitative and qualitative terms the various implications of dimensions of culture for human behavior in organizations. It is the purpose of this study to analyze the effects of the cultural dimensions of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism on attitudes toward work-related matters as participation, belief in people's capacity for leadership, loyalty, and a priori protectionist tendencies in different national groups.

The cross-cultural research literature suggests certain relationships between culture and human behavior in organizations. The following conceptual premises could be made out of the current literature:

1. A low tolerance for uncertainty is likely to encourage group decision-making in order to absorb some of the uncertainty. This suggests a positive relationship between uncertainty avoidance in a culture and participative attitudes.
2. In individualist societies, the relationship between the employee and the organization is a calculative and utilitarian one. The individual is likely to show loyal attitude only to the extent that the organization contributes to his/her personal ends. Why would I break my neck so that my boss can have a holiday in Switzerland?
3. High power inequality in a society creates a "we" versus "they" atmosphere and is likely to be an obstacle to the inculcation of a sense of belonging to the organization.
4. Low tolerance for uncertainty in a society results in fostering conformism as a mechanism to control unpredictability in indi-

vidual behavior.

5. In individualist societies, the belief in the capacity of the individual human being could be a fertile ground for individual initiative, independence, and experimentation.
6. A high inequality in power relationships in a society creates dependent relationships, fear of failure and a tendency to avoid the consequences of individual actions.
7. A low level of tolerance for uncertainty in a society is likely to create a tendency to stick with the same employer instead of facing joblessness and uncertain prospects for another job. This tendency could translate into some sort of moral loyalty to one's own organizations.
8. Low level of tolerance for ambiguity in life in a society may translate into some kind of fear of foreigners and the element of unpredictability in the behavior of alien companies and superiors.

Based on these conceptual premises and suggested relationships by the literature, the following hypotheses will be tested in this study:

Culture and Participative Attitudes

1. High uncertainty avoidance is associated with a high level of participative attitude (positive correlation).
2. High power distance norm is associated with a low level of participative attitudes (negative correlation).

Culture and Leadership Capacity

3. High uncertainty avoidance norm is associated with low level of independent initiative and belief in people's capacity for leadership (negative correlation).
4. High individualism societal norm is associated with a high

level of independent initiative and belief in people's capacity for leadership (positive correlation).

5. A high power distance norm is associated with a low level of independent initiative and belief in people's capacity for leadership (negative correlation).

Cultural Dimensions and Loyalty

6. A high individualism norm is associated with a low level of attitude toward loyalty to one's organization (negative correlation).
7. High uncertainty avoidance norm is associated with a high level of loyalty to one's organization (tendency to stick with company and avoid the cold)(positive correlation).
8. A high power distance norm is associated with a low level of loyalty to one's organization ("we" versus "they" attitude kills the sense of belonging)(positive correlation).

Cultural Dimensions and Company/Boss Preferences

9. A high uncertainty avoidance norm is associated with a high preference for a national company and a national boss (tendency to avoid unpredictability of aliens)(positive correlation).

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH AND DESIGN

Sample

Eight countries were selected for this cross-cultural survey. Each of these countries satisfied two criteria for inclusion in the study: (1) Each country was well represented at the Stillwater campus of Oklahoma State University and (2) All the eight countries were among 40 countries covered in a cross-cultural study done by Geert Hofstede (1980) from which the independent variables were taken.

The eight countries considered in this cross-cultural survey are the United States, Venezuela, India, Pakistan, Iran, Singapore, Taiwan, and Thailand. A countrywise mailing list was obtained from the Office of the Registrar, Oklahoma State University, and a random sample of 45 students was selected from each of the eight countries. A questionnaire containing 11 attitudinal and preference items and 6 biographical items was sent to each of the students selected, a total of 360 questionnaires. 210 completed and usable questionnaires were received and used for analysis.

Independent Variables

The independent variables for this study were taken from Geert Hofstede's cross-cultural study involving 40 countries (see Hofstede, 1980). The cultural dimensions of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism were used as the independent variables. The values obtained by Hofstede (1980) for these variables for each of the eight countries of Venezuela, India, Pakistan, Iran, Singapore, Thailand,

Taiwan and the United States were used without any modification. Thus, the three independent variables of country Power Distance Index (PDI), Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI), and Individualism Index (IDV) were used.

Dependent Variables

Four dependent variables were created through the use of a questionnaire instrument containing 9 attitudinal items, 2 preference items, and 6 biographical items. The four dependent variables were called participative attitude, loyalty attitude, leadership capacity, and nationality preference.

Participative Attitude

Questionnaire items A1 and A5 were used to calculate a Participative Attitude Score (PAS) for each country (for complete questionnaire items refer to Appendix A). The responses were measured on a scale of from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). Country participative attitude scores were calculated according to the following formula:

$$\text{PAS} = 100 - 9 [\text{mean (A1)} + \text{mean (A5)}]$$

Country participative attitude scores theoretically range from 82 (all respondents strongly agree with both A1 and A5) to 10 (all strongly disagree). A participative attitude score was thus calculated for each of the eight countries.

Loyalty Attitude

A Loyalty Attitude Score (LAS) was calculated for each country to operationalize the second dependent variable. For this purpose, items A2 and A3 on the questionnaire were used (for these items see

Appendix A). Item A2 was considered a negative item and the scale was reversed -- i.e. measured on a scale of from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Item A3 was measured on a scale similar to A1 and A 5 above. The same formula was used to calculate country loyalty attitude score (LAS):

$$\text{LAS} = 100 - 9[\text{mean (A2)} + \text{mean (A3)}]$$

LAS theoretically ranges from 82 (all respondents strongly disagree with item A2 and strongly agree with item A3) to 10 (all respondents strongly agree and strongly disagree with A2 and A3, respectively). Item A2 was designed to measure leadership in Haine et al., (1966), but a factor analysis has shown it to be a loyalty item (see Chapter IV).

Leadership Capacity

A Leadership Capacity Score (LCS) was calculated for each country to operationalize the third dependent variable. Item A9 (strong factor loading) was used for this purpose (see Appendix A). The following formula was used to calculate country Leadership Capacity Score (LCS):

$$\text{LCS} = 100 - 4[(\text{mean (A9)})^2]$$

Leadership Capacity Score (LCS) theoretically ranges from 96 (all respondents strongly agree with item A9) to 0 (all respondents strongly disagree). Item A9 was measured on a scale of 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree).

Nationality Preference

The fourth dependent variable was called nationality preference after a factor analysis. Items B1 and B2 were used for this purpose (see Appendix A). Item B1 was measured on a scale of from 1 (foreign

nationality) to 3 (no preference). Item B2 was measured on a scale of from 1 (foreign company) to 3 (no preference). A Nationality Preference Score (NPS) was calculated for each country using the following formula:

$$\text{NPS} = \%B1 + \%B2$$

Where %B1 = percent of respondents choosing boss of same nationality, and %B2 = percent of respondents choosing national company.

Nationality Preference Score (NPS) theoretically ranges from 200 (all respondents choose national company on item B2 and boss of same nationality on item B1) to 0 (none of the respondents chooses national company and boss of same nationality on B2 and B1, respectively).

All the questionnaire items used to measure the dependent variables were first validated through factor analysis (see Chapter IV).

A frequency analysis with chisquare test for independence was made on all the biographical variables of sex, major, class, age, and duration of stay in the United States. None of these variables satisfied the requirement of an expected count of at least five in each cell of the contingency tables. In spite of this, a test of independence was made between each questionnaire item and each biographical item. None of them were found significant at the 0.05 alpha level. It was thus assumed that these biographical variables do not affect the responses in this study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Preliminary Analysis

For the establishment of validity and reliability of the data, a preliminary analysis was made using country mean scores on all questionnaire items (see Table 4.1).

TABLE 4.1

Country Mean Scores on all Questionnaire Items

Country	N	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	B1*	B2*
USA	30	2.10	2.66	1.90	1.46	2.13	1.70	3.53	2.50	2.53	57	62
Venezuela	30	1.56	3.46	2.26	1.63	2.50	2.26	2.10	2.56	2.63	27	27
Thailand	20	2.25	2.40	2.00	2.00	3.50	2.30	2.55	2.95	2.50	20	25
Taiwan	20	1.80	3.50	2.45	1.45	2.70	2.20	1.75	3.25	3.70	45	35
India	31	1.70	2.48	2.00	1.54	2.38	2.29	1.83	2.87	2.74	3	16
Iran	30	1.60	2.83	2.26	1.60	2.50	1.60	2.73	3.16	3.13	33	40
Singapore	20	1.90	3.00	2.50	1.60	2.75	2.10	2.25	2.70	2.25	25	10
Pakistan	29	2.10	2.41	1.86	1.31	2.79	2.03	2.79	2.41	2.79	10	24

*Percent of respondents choosing company/boss of their nationality.

The internal consistency of the data was tested through reliability analysis. A Cronbach Alpha of 0.50 was found when internal consistency procedure of reliability analysis was done on all questionnaire items. When the reliability test was done on only those items that have shown strong loadings and were consequently used for calculating country scores

on dependent variables, a Cronbach alpha of 0.62 was found. Both of these measures met the 0.50 alpha level required.

To validate the questionnaire items and see if they actually measure the factors or variables originally contemplated, a principal components method of factor analysis was done. The across-countries factor analysis results after orthogonal rotation are shown in Table 4.2

TABLE 4.2

Factor Loadings After Orthogonal Rotation

Variable	Factor			
	I	II	III	IV
A7	0.66			
B1	0.93			
B2	0.94			
A2		0.92		
A3		0.89		
A1			0.51	
A4			0.88	
A5			0.84	
A8				0.87
A9				0.90

Items that were originally designed to measure dependent variables but were not validated by the results of the factor analysis were dropped from the calculation of dependent variables. Item A2 which was originally designed to measure leadership capacity was grouped with loyalty items. This, in fact, makes a lot of sense conceptually. Where there

is loyalty, minimum supervision and direction would be needed.

Final Analysis

Using the formulas outlined in Chapter III, country scores on dependent variables of participation, loyalty, leadership capacity, and nationality preference were obtained as shown on Table 4.3 along with the independent variables.

As shown on the bottom right hand side of Table 4.3, a correlational analysis of the data shows that most of the dependent variables do not have significant correlation with the independent variables. However, there is a negative and significant correlation between power distance and nationality preference. The correlation coefficient was found to be -0.75 . This is significant at the 0.03 alpha level. The correlation between nationality preference and individualism was found to be positive (0.62). This is marginally significant at the 0.10 alpha level. None of the other correlation coefficients between the dependent variables of participation, loyalty, and leadership capacity and the independent variables of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism were found significant (for details see Appendix B).

A series of one to one linear regression analysis between the dependent variables and the independent variables was made. A stepwise regression procedure was also made between each of the dependent variables and the three independent variables of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism. The two models gave similar results. Only nationality preference was found to have a negative and significant relationship with power distance in both cases. The linear regression results are shown on Table 4.4 (see also Appendix B).

The general linear regression model shows that there is a negative

TABLE 4.3

Country Scores on Dependent Variables and Country
Indices on Independent Variables^a

Country	Independent Variable			Dependent Variable				
	PDI	UAI	IDV	NPS ^b	PAS ^c	LAS ^d	LCS ^e	
USA	40	46	91	120	62	59	74	
Venezuela	81	76	12	54	63	49	72	
Thailand	64	64	20	45	48	60	75	
Taiwan	58	69	17	80	60	46	45	
India	77	40	48	19	63	60	70	
Iran	58	59	41	73	63	54	61	
Singapore	74	8	20	35	58	51	80	
Pakistan	55	70	14	34	56	62	69	
Mean	63.37	54	32.87	57.5	59	55	68	
Product-moment correlation with:				PDI	-0.75***	0.07	-0.31	0.24
				UAI	0.18	-0.08	-0.03	-0.50*
				IDV	0.62**	0.39	0.38	0.16

***significant at 0.03 level

**significant at 0.10 level

*significant at 0.21 level

^aIndependent variable indices taken from Hofstede (1980)

^bNPS - Nationality Preference Score

^cPAS - Participative Attitude Score

^dLAS - Loyalty Attitude Score

^eLCS - Leadership Capacity Score

TABLE 4.4

Regression Results Between the Dependent and Independent Variables

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Beta	T	Probability
Nationality Preference	Power Distance	-1.79	-2.77	0.03
Nationality Preference	Uncertainty Avoidance	0.26	0.45	0.66
Nationality Preference	Individualism	0.75	1.9	0.10
Participation	Power Distance	0.03	0.18	0.86
Participation	Uncertainty Avoidance	-0.02	-0.21	0.84
Participation	Individualism	0.08	1.03	0.34
Loyalty	Power Distance	-0.14	-0.80	0.45
Loyalty	Uncertainty Avoidance	-0.01	-0.07	0.94
Loyalty	Individualism	0.08	1.00	0.35
Leadership Capacity	Power Distance	0.19	0.59	0.57
Leadership Capacity	Uncertainty Avoidance	-0.24	-1.39	0.20
Leadership Capacity	Individualism	0.07	0.41	0.69

correlation between nationality preference and power distance. The t-value was found to be -2.77. This is significant at the 0.03 alpha level (see Table 4.4). All the other dependent variables of participation, loyalty, and leadership capacity show no significant correlation with any of the independent variables of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The results in this study show some interesting findings. First, none of the hypotheses contemplated were confirmed at the 0.05 alpha level chosen as the minimum criterion. However, some relationships, though very weak, are in the expected direction. The relationship between the dependent variable of leadership capacity and the independent variable of uncertainty avoidance is in the expected direction. The negative correlation between these two variables is significant at the 0.20 alpha level. This, no doubt, is a very weak relationship and fails to meet our criterion. However, the incompatibility in functional equivalence between the sample used in Hofstede's (1980) study (employees) from which the independent variables were taken and the sample used in this study (university students) may have obscured a potential relationship. A future study using functionally equivalent samples may confirm this relationship.

The correlation between leadership capacity and individualism was also in the expected direction, but the relationship is extremely insignificant. The relationship between leadership capacity and power distance was not in the expected direction. Thus, the hypotheses that high power inequality in a particular culture is associated with a low level of belief in people's capacity for leadership and independent initiative was directionally disconfirmed. The relationship between loyalty and power distance was found to be in the expected direction (negative).

In spite of the fact that none of the hypothesized relationships was confirmed at the 0.05 alpha level chosen as the minimum criterion

for this study, some directional relationships point to the expected directions and may possibly prove to be significant in future research if the disadvantage of lack of functional equivalence between the samples is avoided.

The results also point to some new directions not contemplated in the original hypotheses. The dependent variable of nationality preference was found to be negatively and significantly correlated with power distance. Thus, students from a country with a high power distance norm (high power inequality) have shown a tendency to prefer a foreign company and a foreign boss. This could mean that individuals from a culture with high power inequality norm in its social structure tend to break that inequality by preferring to work under foreign boss who may not subscribe to these power inequality norms.

Another interesting finding in this study is the marginally significant, positive relationship between nationality preference and individualism. In fact, the percentage of American students preferring a company and boss of their own nationality was almost twice as high as the closest of all the other seven countries (see Table 4.3). The correlation coefficient between nationality preference and individualism was found to be significant at the 0.10 alpha level. The United States scores highest on the nationality preference score (120) against the closest country, Taiwan, which scores 80 on the same dimension. The high preference of Americans for a company and boss of their own nationality could be due to the fact that they were born and reared in the most advanced country in the world and that, therefore, they do not genuinely believe that other countries, least of all less developed countries, have yet attained a level of managerial and industrial competence parallel to that of the United States. In fact, scatter

diagrams of countries on various pairs of variables show that in almost all cases the United States, the only developed country in the sample, does not cluster with any of the other countries (for scatter diagrams, see Appendix C).

NOTES

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APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRES

CODING SYSTEM FOR QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

The following coding system has been used for scoring responses to questionnaire items:

<u>Item</u>	<u>Coding System</u>
A1	strongly agree = 1, agree = 2, undecided = 3, disagree = 4, strongly disagree = 5
A2	strongly agree = 5, agree = 4, undecided = 3, disagree = 2, strongly disagree = 1
A3-A9	strongly agree = 1, agree = 2, undecided = 3, disagree = 4, strongly disagree = 5
B1	boss of foreign nationality = 1, same nationality = 2, no preference = 3
B2	foreign company = 1, national company = 2, no preference = 3
C1	17 or less = 1, 18-22 = 2, 22-26 = 3, 27-31 = 4, 32-36 = 5, 37 or older = 6
C2	freshman = 1, sophomore = 2, junior = 3, senior = 4, graduate = 5, other = 6
C4	business = 1, engineering = 2, agriculture = 3, computer = 4, math = 5, english = 6, history = 7, geography = 8, other = 9
C5	male = 1, female = 2
C6	1 through 10, respectively

PART IINSTRUCTIONS:

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements. We are interested in your candid opinion on each of these statements based on your personal experience and intuition. Place a check mark in the column closest to your degree of agreement or disagreement with each of the statements.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
A1. Employees of organizations should take part in Management decisions directly affecting them as well as in those affecting the organization in general.					
A2. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, and has relatively little ambition.					
A3. If the need arises, an employee should be willing to do sacrificial work for his/her company even beyond the call of normal duty.					
A4. Employee dedication and loyalty to one's company or organization is an admirable quality.					
A5. In a work situation, if subordinates cannot also influence their Manager's decision-making, then the Manager loses some of his/her influence on them.					
A6. In a work situation, group goal-setting and decision-making offer advantages that cannot be obtained by individual goal-setting and decision-making.					

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
A7. An employee should take an independent decision in a particular situation if he/she is convinced that it is in the best interest of the company even though it may be against the rules.					
A8. Most companies have genuine interest in the welfare of their employees.					
A9. Leadership can be acquired by most people regardless of their particular inborn traits and abilities.					

PART II

Please indicate your preference in the following situations by placing a check mark in the appropriate column closest to your preference.

	TO WORK UNDER BOSS OF FOREIGN NATIONALITY	TO WORK UNDER BOSS OF SAME NATIONALITY	NO PREFERENCE
B1. Which would you prefer?			

	TO WORK FOR A FOREIGN COMPANY	TO WORK FOR A NATIONAL COMPANY	NO PREFERENCE
B2. Which would you prefer?			

PART III

Please provide the following biographical information:

C1. Your age: check the appropriate column in the right.

17 or less	18-22	22-26	27-31	32-36	37 or older

C2. Your class: check the appropriate column.

FRESHMAN	SOPHOMORE	JUNIOR	SENIOR	GRADUATE	OTHER (specify)

C3. Your nationality

VENEZUELA	INDIA	SINGAPORE	THAILAND	IRAN	TAIWAN	PAKISTAN	USA	OTHER (specify)

C4. Major: check in column below:

BUSINESS	ENGINEERING	AGRICULTURE	COMPUTER	MATH	ENGLISH	HISTORY	GEORGRAPHY	OTHER (specify)

C5. Sex

MALE	FEMALE

C6. How long have you been in USA?

1 year or less	2 yrs	3 yrs	4 yrs	5 yrs	6 yrs	7 yrs	8 yrs	9 yrs	10 yrs or more

NOTE: In question six, give the number of years to the nearest whole number (i.e., if you stayed in U.S. for 2 yrs. and 6 months, choose 3 yrs.) If you are an American citizen, please ignore the question.

APPENDIX B

FACTOR ANALYSES OUTPUT AND REGRESSION OUTPUT

SYMBOLS USED FOR INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Independent Variables Symbol

Power Distance Index	PDI
Uncertainty Avoidance Index	UAI
Individualism Index	IDV

Dependent Variables Symbol

Nationality Preference Score	NPS
Participative Attitude Score	PAS
Loyalty Attitude Score	LAS
Leadership Capacity Score	LCS

Biographical Variables Symbol

Age	AGE
Class	CL
Major	M
Sex	SEX
Duration of Stay in U.S.A.	DS

INITIAL FACTOR METHOD: PRINCIPAL COMPONENTS

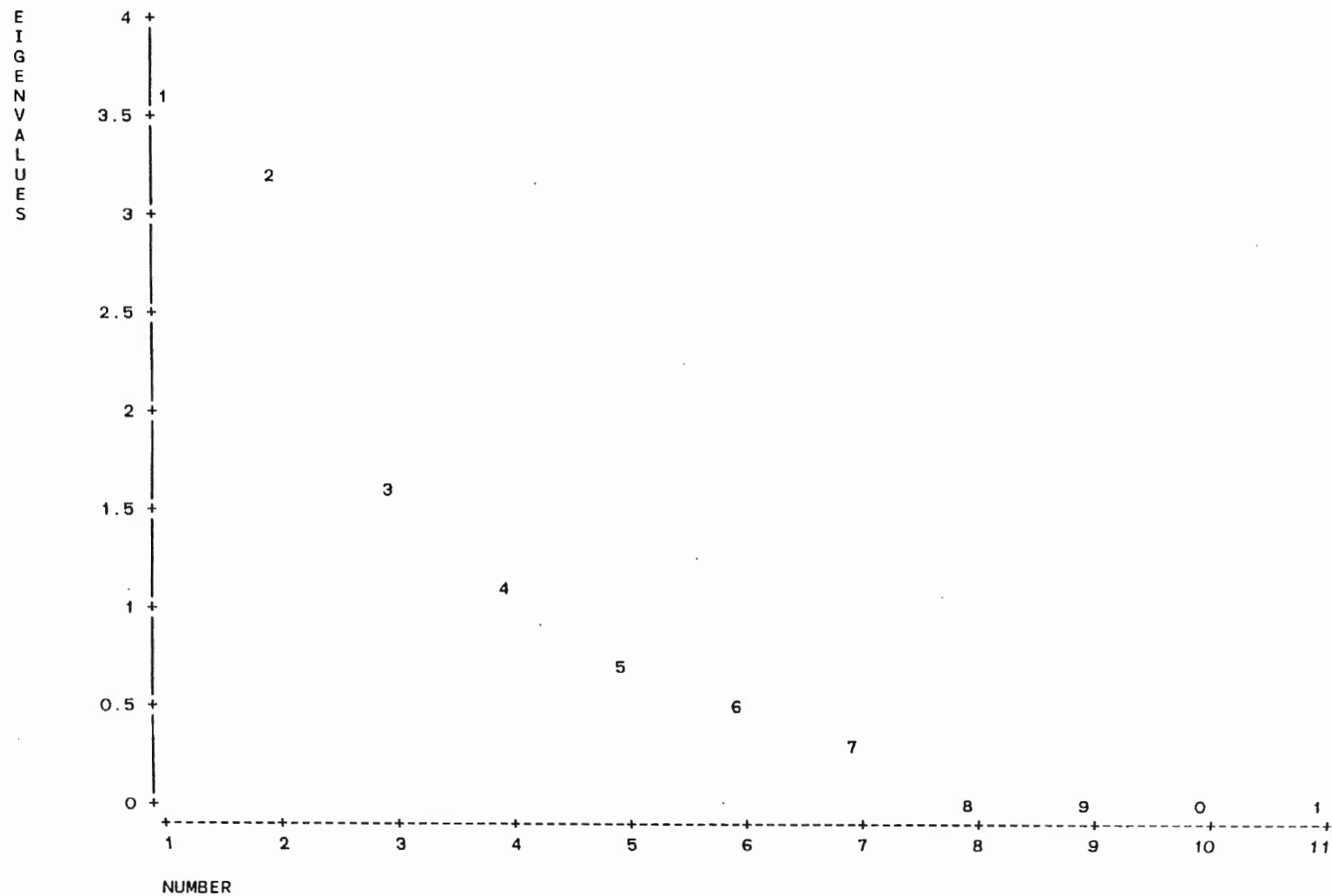
PRIOR COMMUNALITY ESTIMATES: ONE

EIGENVALUES OF THE CORRELATION MATRIX: TOTAL = 11.000000 AVERAGE = 1.000000

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
EIGENVALUE	3.607437	3.197143	1.634052	1.119457	0.719857	0.456212	0.265841	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
DIFFERENCE	0.410294	1.563091	0.514595	0.399600	0.263645	0.190370	0.265841	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
PROPORTION	0.3279	0.2906	0.1486	0.1018	0.0654	0.0415	0.0242	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CUMULATIVE	0.3279	0.6186	0.7671	0.8689	0.9344	0.9758	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000

4 FACTORS WILL BE RETAINED BY THE MINEIGEN CRITERION

INITIAL FACTOR METHOD: PRINCIPAL COMPONENTS
SCREE PLOT OF EIGENVALUES



INITIAL FACTOR METHOD: PRINCIPAL COMPONENTS

FACTOR PATTERN

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3	FACTOR4
A1	0.04362	-0.75840	0.44096	0.12320
A2	-0.02835	0.89221	-0.09996	0.30845
A3	-0.30094	0.84527	0.04045	0.26230
A4	-0.56516	-0.14238	0.58752	0.33641
A5	-0.70077	-0.25851	0.58229	-0.00915
A6	-0.78569	-0.00589	-0.05699	-0.11550
A7	0.84347	-0.35374	0.19222	-0.24250
A8	-0.13411	0.59457	0.62532	-0.38660
A9	0.25852	0.64291	0.28541	-0.59831
B1	0.69448	0.36371	0.36841	0.46453
B2	0.89879	0.00646	0.30875	0.17807

VARIANCE EXPLAINED BY EACH FACTOR

FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3	FACTOR4
3.607437	3.197143	1.634052	1.119457

FINAL COMMUNALITY ESTIMATES: TOTAL = 9.558090

A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	B1	B2
0.786708	0.901981	0.875485	0.798033	0.897043	0.633933	0.932327	0.911973	0.919602	0.966096	0.934908

ROTATION METHOD: VARIMAX

ORTHOGONAL TRANSFORMATION MATRIX

	1	2	3	4
1	0.83632	-0.22453	-0.49682	0.05761
2	0.07918	0.84442	-0.19103	0.49415
3	0.37706	-0.15586	0.76325	0.50098
4	0.39003	0.46070	0.36623	-0.70818

ROTATED FACTOR PATTERN

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3	FACTOR4
A1	0.19075	-0.66218	0.50489	-0.23859
A2	0.12955	0.91745	-0.11969	0.17074
A3	-0.06720	0.89587	0.11497	0.23486
A4	-0.13119	0.07007	0.87961	-0.04682
A5	-0.39055	-0.15592	0.83862	0.13007
A6	-0.72409	0.12711	0.30568	0.00507
A7	0.65530	-0.62977	-0.29357	0.14182
A8	0.01992	0.25661	0.28874	0.87313
A9	0.14137	0.16471	-0.25253	0.89929
B1	0.92970	0.30778	0.03680	0.07534
B2	0.93806	-0.16244	-0.14690	0.08355

VARIANCE EXPLAINED BY EACH FACTOR

FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3	FACTOR4
2.945830	2.738879	2.109165	1.764215

FINAL COMMUNALITY ESTIMATES: TOTAL = 9.558090

A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	B1	B2
0.786708	0.901981	0.875485	0.798033	0.897043	0.633933	0.932327	0.911973	0.919602	0.966096	0.934908

SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATIONS OF THE VARIABLES WITH EACH FACTOR

FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3	FACTOR4
1.000000	1.000000	1.000000	1.000000

STANDARDIZED SCORING COEFFICIENTS

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3	FACTOR4
A1	0.49702	0.15972	0.39802	-1.62819
A2	0.85592	0.52363	0.19808	0.03829
A3	-0.16877	0.32037	0.17024	0.34793
A4	0.44463	0.23010	0.68133	-0.41637
A5	-0.23320	-0.42165	0.30456	1.92775
A6	-0.61276	-0.09395	-0.07497	0.18987
A7	0.46777	-0.42621	0.09751	1.77741
A8	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
A9	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
B1	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
B2	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000

STEPWISE REGRESSION PROCEDURE FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLE NPS

STEP 1	VARIABLE PDI ENTERED	R SQUARE = 0.56040681	C(P) = 1.02877703			
		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F	PROB>F
	REGRESSION	1	4125.71492552	4125.71492552	7.65	0.0326
	ERROR	6	3236.28507448	539.38084575		
	TOTAL	7	7362.00000000			
		B VALUE	STD ERROR	TYPE II SS	F	PROB>F
	INTERCEPT	171.10729238				
	PDI	-1.79262000	0.64816621	4125.71492552	7.65	0.0326

NO OTHER VARIABLES MET THE 0.0500 SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL FOR ENTRY INTO THE MODEL.

GENERAL LINEAR MODELS PROCEDURE

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: NPS

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR > F	R-SQUARE	C.V.
MODEL	1	4125.71492552	4125.71492552	7.65	0.0326	0.560407	40.3906
ERROR	6	3236.28507448	539.38084575				
CORRECTED TOTAL	7	7362.00000000					
					ROOT MSE		NPS MEAN
					23.22457418		57.50000000

SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	PR > F	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	PR > F
PDI	1	4125.71492552	7.65	0.0326	1	4125.71492552	7.65	0.0326

PARAMETER	ESTIMATE	T FOR H0: PARAMETER=0	PR > T	STD ERROR OF ESTIMATE
INTERCEPT	171.10729238	4.08	0.0065	41.89017051
PDI	-1.79262000	-2.77	0.0326	0.64816621

GENERAL LINEAR MODELS PROCEDURE

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: NPS

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR > F	R-SQUARE	C.V.
MODEL	1	239.44633583	239.44633583	0.20	0.6691	0.032525	59.9204
ERROR	6	7122.55366417	1187.09227736			ROOT MSE	NPS MEAN
CORRECTED TOTAL	7	7362.00000000				34.45420551	57.50000000

SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	PR > F	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	PR > F
UAI	1	239.44633583	0.20	0.6691	1	239.44633583	0.20	0.6691

PARAMETER	ESTIMATE	T FOR HO: PARAMETER=0	PR > T	STD ERROR OF ESTIMATE
INTERCEPT	43.30669359	1.28	0.2482	33.86895084
UAI	0.26283901	0.45	0.6691	0.58523186

GENERAL LINEAR MODELS PROCEDURE

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: NPS

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR > F	R-SQUARE	C.V.
MODEL	1	2839.75781734	2839.75781734	3.77	0.1003	0.385732	47.7456
ERROR	6	4522.24218266	753.70703044				
CORRECTED TOTAL	7	7362.00000000					

SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	PR > F	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	PR > F
IDV	1	2839.75781734	3.77	0.1003	1	2839.75781734	3.77	0.1003

PARAMETER	ESTIMATE	T FOR HO: PARAMETER=0	PR > T	STD ERROR OF ESTIMATE
INTERCEPT	32.84476740	2.05	0.0857	15.98600700
IDV	0.74996905	1.94	0.1003	0.38637051

GENERAL LINEAR MODELS PROCEDURE

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: PAS

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR > F	R-SQUARE	C.V.
MODEL	1	0.98852351	0.98852351	0.03	0.8648	0.005234	9.4646
ERROR	6	187.88647649	31.31441275		ROOT MSE		PAS MEAN
CORRECTED TOTAL	7	188.87500000			5.59592823		59.12500000

SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	PR > F	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	PR > F
PDI	1	0.98852351	0.03	0.8648	1	0.98852351	0.03	0.8648

PARAMETER	ESTIMATE	T FOR HO: PARAMETER=0	PR > T	STD ERROR OF ESTIMATE
INTERCEPT	57.36646870	5.68	0.0013	10.09337721
PDI	0.02774803	0.18	0.8648	0.15617473

GENERAL LINEAR MODELS PROCEDURE

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: PAS

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR > F	R-SQUARE	C.V.
MODEL	1	1.37362954	1.37362954	0.04	0.8409	0.007273	9.4549
ERROR	6	187.50137046	31.25022841				
CORRECTED TOTAL	7	188.87500000					
					ROOT MSE		PAS MEAN
					5.59019037		59.12500000

SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	PR > F	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	PR > F
UAI	1	1.37362954	0.04	0.8409	1	1.37362954	0.04	0.8409

PARAMETER	ESTIMATE	T FOR HO: PARAMETER=0	PR > T	STD ERROR OF ESTIMATE
INTERCEPT	60.20001443	10.95	0.0001	5.49523288
UAI	-0.01990767	-0.21	0.8409	0.09495379

GENERAL LINEAR MODELS PROCEDURE

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: PAS

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR > F	R-SQUARE	C.V.
MODEL	1	28.46886992	28.46886992	1.06	0.3419	0.150729	8.7451
ERROR	6	160.40613008	26.73435501			ROOT MSE	PAS MEAN
CORRECTED TOTAL	7	188.87500000				5.17052754	59.12500000

SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	PR > F	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	PR > F
IDV	1	28.46886992	1.06	0.3419	1	28.46886992	1.06	0.3419

PARAMETER	ESTIMATE	T FOR HO: PARAMETER=0	PR > T	STD ERROR OF ESTIMATE
INTERCEPT	56.65638385	18.82	0.0001	3.01074221
IDV	0.07509099	1.03	0.3419	0.07276752

GENERAL LINEAR MODELS PROCEDURE

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: LAS

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR > F	R-SQUARE	C.V.
MODEL	1	23.95590741	23.95590741	0.64	0.4545	0.096257	11.1068
ERROR	6	224.91909259	37.48651543			ROOT MSE	LAS MEAN
CORRECTED TOTAL	7	248.87500000				6.12262325	55.12500000

SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	PR > F	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	PR > F
PDI	1	23.95590741	0.64	0.4545	1	23.95590741	0.64	0.4545

PARAMETER	ESTIMATE	T FOR HO: PARAMETER=0	PR > T	STD ERROR OF ESTIMATE
INTERCEPT	63.78191023	5.78	0.0012	11.04337715
PDI	-0.13659819	-0.80	0.4545	0.17087407

GENERAL LINEAR MODELS PROCEDURE

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: LAS

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR > F	R-SQUARE	C.V.
MODEL	1	0.22619735	0.22619735	0.01	0.9435	0.000909	11.6780
ERROR	6	248.64880265	41.44146711			ROOT MSE	LAS MEAN
CORRECTED TOTAL	7	248.87500000			6.43750473		55.12500000

SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	PR > F	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	PR > F
UAI	1	0.22619735	0.01	0.9435	1	0.22619735	0.01	0.9435

PARAMETER	ESTIMATE	T FOR HO: PARAMETER=0	PR > T	STD ERROR OF ESTIMATE
INTERCEPT	55.56123774	8.78	0.0001	6.32815437
UAI	-0.00807848	-0.07	0.9435	0.10934610

GENERAL LINEAR MODELS PROCEDURE

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: LAS

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR > F	R-SQUARE	C.V.
MODEL	1	35.46032841	35.46032841	1.00	0.3566	0.142482	10.8190
ERROR	6	213.41467159	35.56911193			ROOT MSE	LAS MEAN
CORRECTED TOTAL	7	248.87500000				5.96398457	55.12500000

SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	PR > F	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	PR > F
IDV	1	35.46032841	1.00	0.3566	1	35.46032841	1.00	0.3566

PARAMETER	ESTIMATE	T FOR HO: PARAMETER=0	PR > T	STD ERROR OF ESTIMATE
INTERCEPT	52.36988438	15.08	0.0001	3.47276365
IDV	0.08380580	1.00	0.3566	0.08393425

GENERAL LINEAR MODELS PROCEDURE

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: LCS

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR > F	R-SQUARE	C.V.
MODEL	1	45.70932723	45.70932723	0.35	0.5753	0.055238	16.7250
ERROR	6	781.79067277	130.29844546				
CORRECTED TOTAL	7	827.50000000					
					ROOT MSE		LCS MEAN
					11.41483445		68.25000000

SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	PR > F	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	PR > F
PDI	1	45.70932723	0.35	0.5753	1	45.70932723	0.35	0.5753

PARAMETER	ESTIMATE	T FOR HO: PARAMETER=0	PR > T	STD ERROR OF ESTIMATE
INTERCEPT	56.29198715	2.73	0.0340	20.58893987
PDI	0.18868659	0.59	0.5753	0.31857247

GENERAL LINEAR MODELS PROCEDURE

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: LCS

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR > F	R-SQUARE	C.V.
MODEL	1	200.67974611	200.67974611	1.92	0.2151	0.242513	14.9759
ERROR	6	626.82025389	104.47004232				
CORRECTED TOTAL	7	827.50000000					
					ROOT MSE		LCS MEAN
					10.22105877		68.25000000

SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	PR > F	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	PR > F
UAI	1	200.67974611	1.92	0.2151	1	200.67974611	1.92	0.2151

PARAMETER	ESTIMATE	T FOR HO: PARAMETER=0	PR > T	STD ERROR OF ESTIMATE
INTERCEPT	81.24365263	8.09	0.0002	10.04743925
UAI	-0.24062320	-1.39	0.2151	0.17361275

GENERAL LINEAR MODELS PROCEDURE

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: LCS

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PR > F	R-SQUARE	C.V.
MODEL	1	22.92987299	22.92987299	0.17	0.6936	0.027710	16.9669
ERROR	6	804.57012701	134.09502117				
CORRECTED TOTAL	7	827.50000000					

ROOT MSE	LCS MEAN
11.57994046	68.25000000

SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	PR > F	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	PR > F
IDV	1	22.92987299	0.17	0.6936	1	22.92987299	0.17	0.6936

PARAMETER	ESTIMATE	T FOR HO: PARAMETER=0	PR > T	STD ERROR OF ESTIMATE
INTERCEPT	66.03451264	9.79	0.0001	6.74287397
IDV	0.06739125	0.41	0.6936	0.16297051

VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	SUM	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM
PDI	8	63.37500000	13.54292119	507.00000000	40.00000000	81.00000000
UAI	8	54.00000000	22.25180571	432.00000000	8.00000000	76.00000000
IDV	8	32.87500000	26.85643046	263.00000000	12.00000000	91.00000000
NPS	8	57.50000000	32.43014471	460.00000000	19.00000000	120.00000000
PAS	8	59.12500000	5.19443383	473.00000000	48.00000000	63.00000000
LAS	8	55.12500000	5.96268156	441.00000000	46.00000000	62.00000000
LCS	8	68.25000000	10.87263932	546.00000000	45.00000000	80.00000000

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS / PROB > |R| UNDER HO:RHO=0 / N = 8

	PDI	UAI	IDV	NPS	PAS	LAS	LCS
PDI	1.00000 0.0000	-0.16118 0.7030	-0.57566 0.1354	-0.74860 0.0326	0.07234 0.8648	-0.31025 0.4545	0.23503 0.5753
UAI	-0.16118 0.7030	1.00000 0.0000	-0.28017 0.5015	0.18035 0.6691	-0.08528 0.8409	-0.03015 0.9435	-0.49246 0.2151
IDV	-0.57566 0.1354	-0.28017 0.5015	1.00000 0.0000	0.62107 0.1003	0.38824 0.3419	0.37747 0.3566	0.16646 0.6936
NPS	-0.74860 0.0326	0.18035 0.6691	0.62107 0.1003	1.00000 0.0000	0.28367 0.4960	-0.20427 0.6275	-0.29292 0.4814
PAS	0.07234 0.8648	-0.08528 0.8409	0.38824 0.3419	0.28367 0.4960	1.00000 0.0000	-0.35573 0.3871	-0.25611 0.5404
LAS	-0.31025 0.4545	-0.03015 0.9435	0.37747 0.3566	-0.20427 0.6275	-0.35573 0.3871	1.00000 0.0000	0.47983 0.2289
LCS	0.23503 0.5753	-0.49246 0.2151	0.16646 0.6936	-0.29292 0.4814	-0.25611 0.5404	0.47983 0.2289	1.00000 0.0000

APPENDIX C

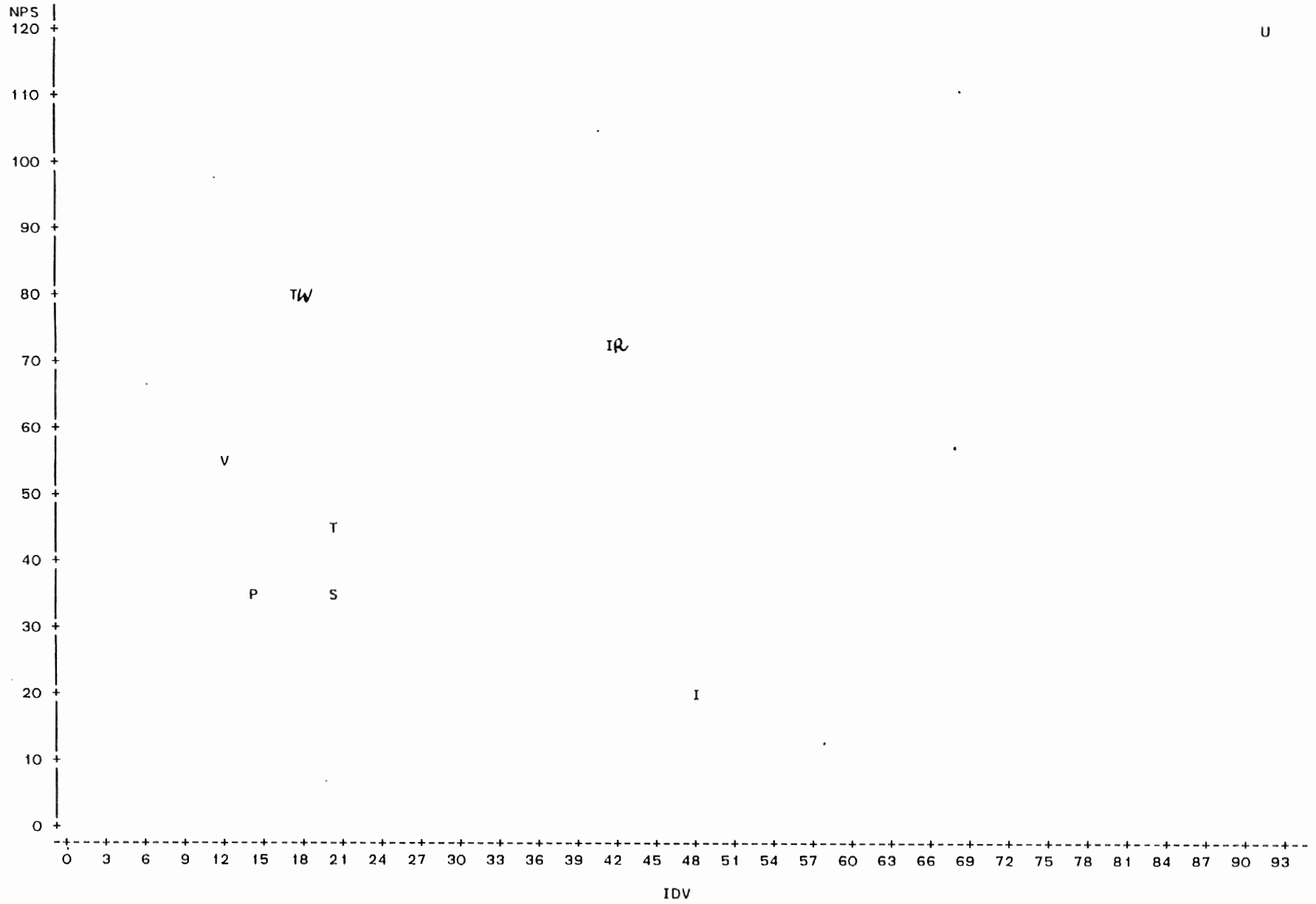
SCATTER DIAGRAMS OF COUNTRY CLUSTERING PATTERNS

SYMBOLS USED TO REPRESENT COUNTRIES

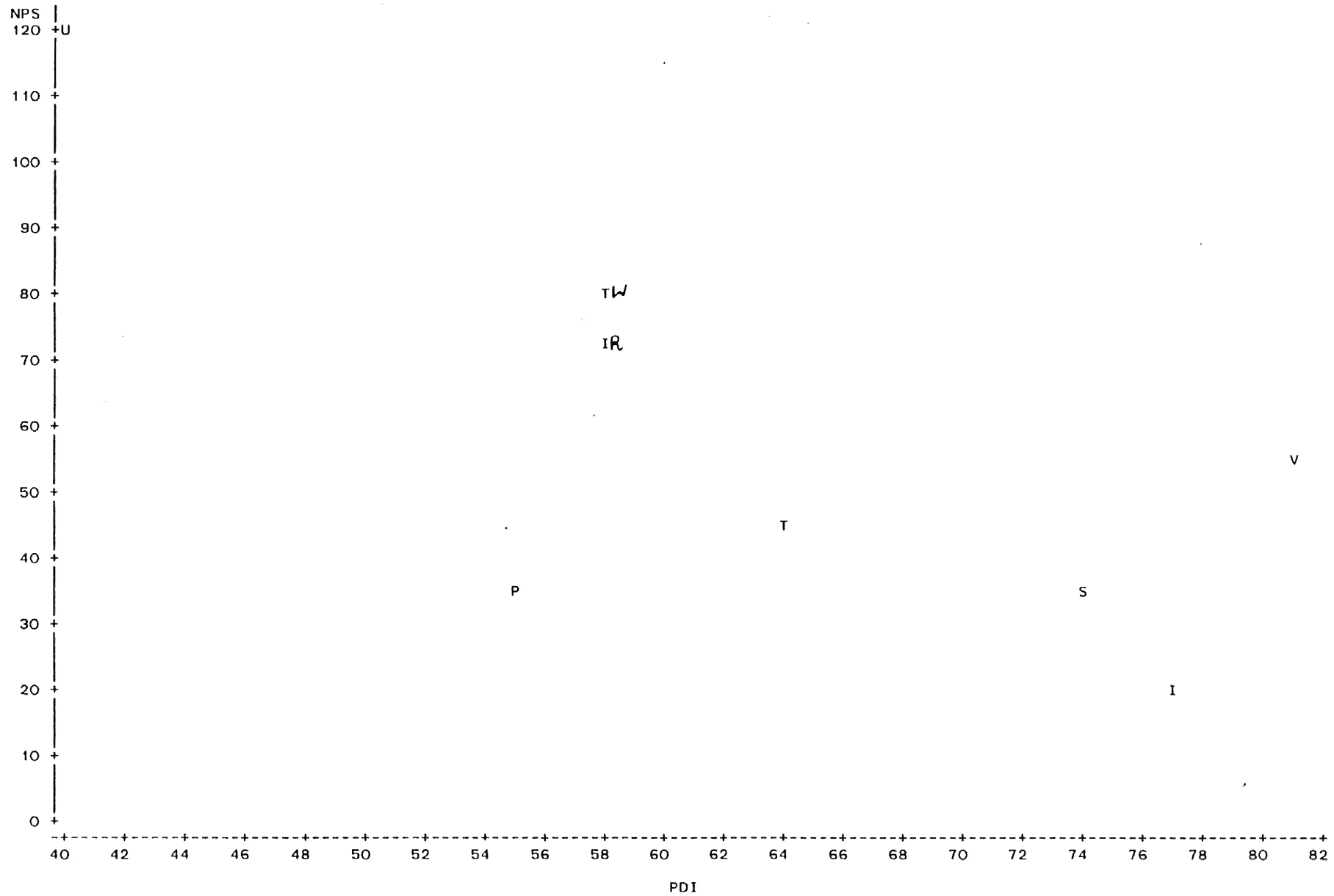
On the scatter diagrams that follow in the next few pages, the following symbols were used to denote names of countries:

<u>Country</u>	<u>Symbol</u>
Iran	IR
India	I
USA	U
Singapore	S
Pakistan	P
Thailand	T
Taiwan	TW
Venezuela	V

PLOT OF NPS*IDV SYMBOL IS VALUE OF COUNTRY

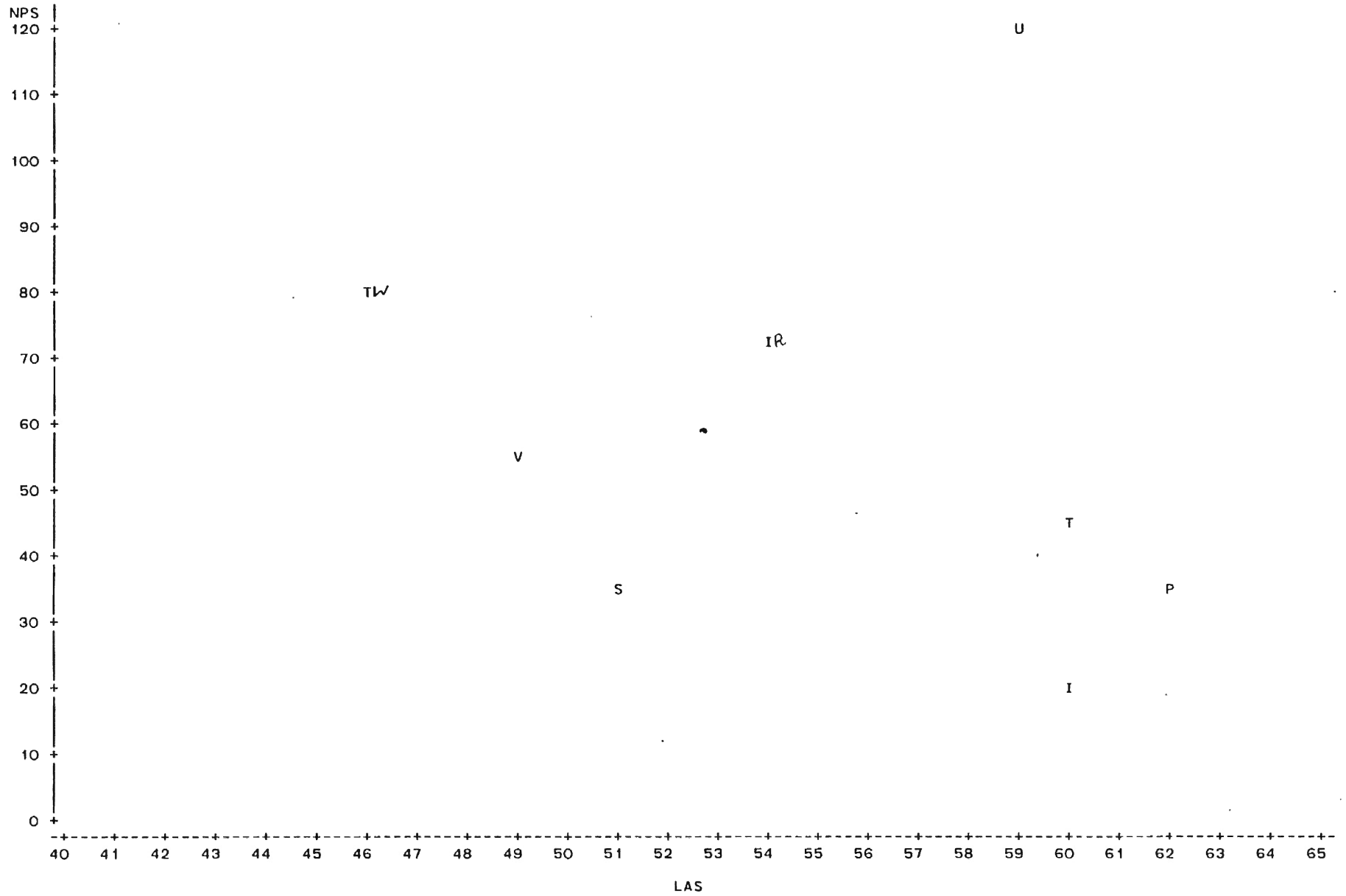


PLOT OF NPS*PDI SYMBOL IS VALUE OF COUNTRY



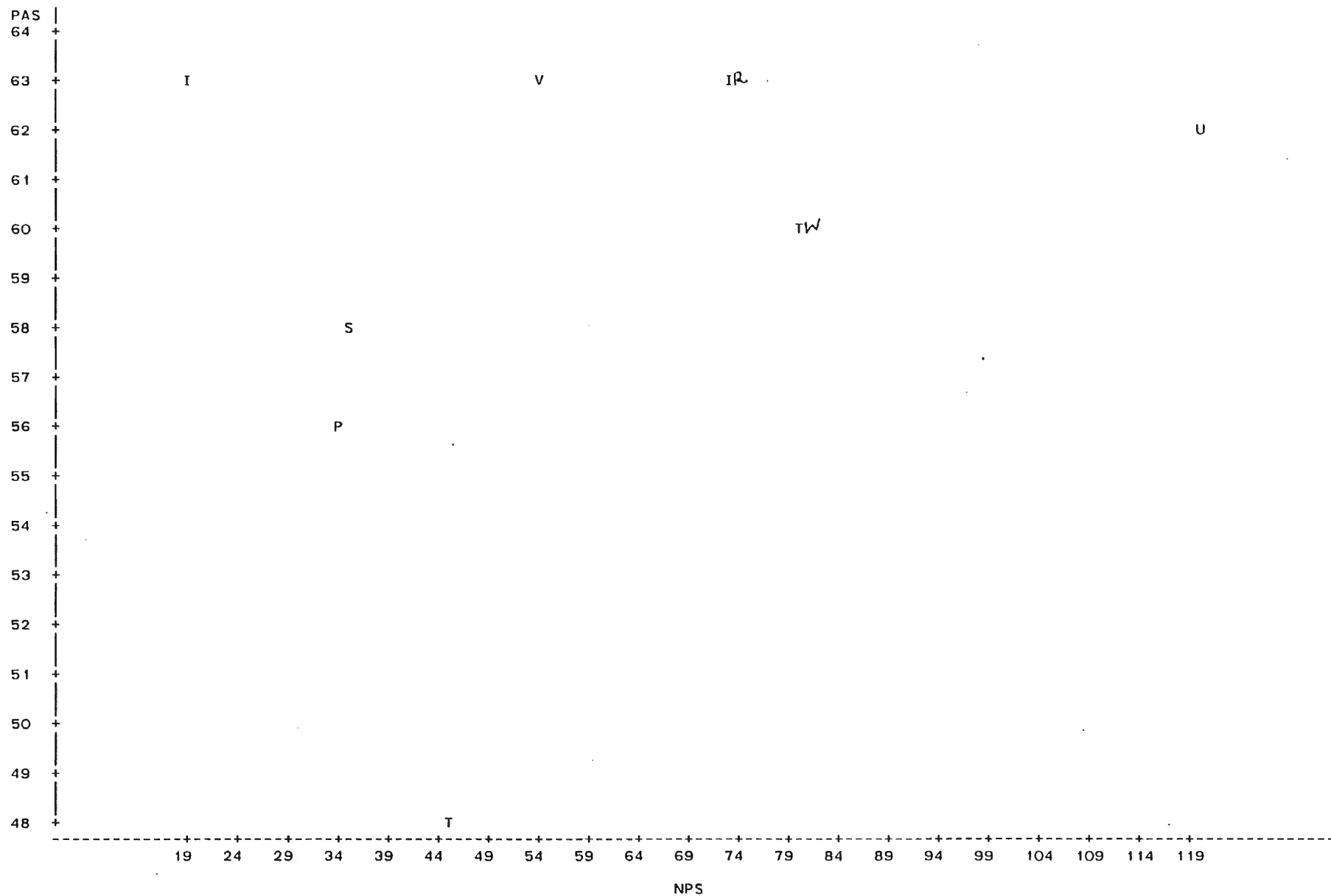
7/1

PLOT OF NPS*LAS SYMBOL IS VALUE OF COUNTRY



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PLOT OF PAS*NPS SYMBOL IS VALUE OF COUNTRY



APPENDIX

RATE DATA BY COUNTRY

OBS	OBS	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	B1	B2	AGE	CL	M	SEX	DS
1	1	2	1	3	1	3	1	2	4	3	3	2	2	5	9	2	7
2	2	1	2	3	1	3	1	1	2	4	3	3	4	5	3	2	6
3	3	2	4	3	2	2	2	4	4	2	3	3	5	5	9	1	10
4	4	3	2	3	2	4	1	5	4	5	3	3	5	5	9	1	6
5	5	2	4	1	1	4	4	3	4	2	2	2	3	2	2	1	2
6	6	2	2	2	2	2	1	3	3	4	3	2	3	5	2	1	2
7	7	1	4	2	2	3	2	2	4	4	3	3	3	5	9	1	7
8	8	2	2	2	2	1	1	4	2	4	2	2	2	5	2	1	6
9	9	1	3	2	2	2	1	2	3	1	2	2	3	5	3	1	6
10	10	2	1	2	1	2	1	3	3	4	2	3	3	4	2	2	6
11	11	1	2	2	2	1	1	5	4	3	2	2	3	5	2	1	6
12	12	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	4	2	2	3	4	2	1	5
13	13	2	5	1	1	2	2	4	4	4	3	3	3	5	2	1	6
14	14	1	4	1	1	2	1	4	2	2	3	2	3	5	2	1	6
15	15	2	4	3	4	2	2	3	2	4	2	2	2	1	9	2	1
16	16	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	5	2	1	6
17	17	1	4	2	2	3	1	4	4	5	3	3	4	4	2	1	4
18	18	2	2	2	2	3	2	4	3	1	3	3	3	4	2	1	5
19	19	4	4	2	1	3	1	1	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	1	7
20	20	1	4	2	1	2	1	4	2	4	3	2	3	5	3	1	6
21	21	2	4	4	2	2	1	1	4	2	3	3	4	4	4	2	5
22	22	1	4	4	1	2	1	4	2	4	3	3	4	3	2	1	4
23	23	1	3	2	1	4	5	1	2	2	3	3	2	3	2	1	3
24	24	1	2	2	1	4	2	1	3	4	3	3	5	5	9	2	7
25	25	1	2	2	2	1	3	2	5	2	2	3	3	5	2	1	9
26	26	2	4	2	1	4	2	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	2	1	2
27	27	1	3	1	1	4	2	1	5	1	2	1	2	2	9	2	2
28	28	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	3	5	3	2	3	4	2	1	5
29	29	2	2	5	2	2	2	4	2	4	2	2	4	5	2	1	6
30	30	1	2	4	4	4	1	2	5	2	3	3	5	5	3	1	7

Tren

SAS

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OBS	OBS	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	B1	B2	AGE	CL	M	SEX	DS
1	1	4	4	4	1	4	4	2	4	4	2	2	4	5	2	1	2
2	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	3	1	3	3	4	5	4	1	2
3	3	1	4	2	1	2	2	3	4	4	3	2	4	5	2	1	1
4	4	2	4	2	2	4	2	1	1	4	2	3	3	5	6	2	1
5	5	2	4	4	2	2	4	4	2	2	2	2	4	4	9	1	2
6	6	3	2	3	1	2	2	3	4	4	1	3	5	5	2	1	4
7	7	2	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	2	4	5	2	1	1
8	8	2	4	3	2	2	2	2	4	4	3	3	4	5	2	1	4
9	9	2	3	2	1	2	3	3	4	4	3	3	4	5	4	1	2
10	10	2	4	1	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	5	1	1	2
11	11	2	4	2	1	4	2	2	3	5	2	2	4	5	4	1	1
12	12	1	4	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	3	3	3	5	2	1	5
13	13	2	4	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	4	5	2	1	3
14	14	2	4	5	1	2	2	2	4	5	2	2	4	5	9	2	4
15	15	2	4	4	1	4	2	2	4	4	3	3	4	5	2	1	3
16	16	1	4	1	1	2	2	4	4	4	2	3	4	5	1	1	4
17	17	1	4	2	1	4	2	5	5	4	2	3	5	5	1	1	5
18	18	2	4	2	2	2	2	4	4	4	3	3	4	5	2	1	2
19	19	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	5	3	3	3	5	4	1	1
20	20	1	4	1	1	3	2	4	2	2	3	3	6	5	3	1	3

Taiwan

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OBS	OBS	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	B1	B2	AGE	CL	M	SEX	DS
1	1	3	2	2	2	3	2	5	2	4	3	3	3	4	3	1	4
2	2	4	4	2	2	2	1	2	1	4	2	2	2	4	2	1	4
3	3	1	4	1	1	2	1	1	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	1	3
4	4	1	4	3	1	1	2	2	3	4	3	3	3	5	1	1	3
5	5	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	3	1	1	1	2	3	2	1	3
6	6	4	4	2	2	4	3	2	3	4	1	1	3	4	2	1	4
7	7	2	5	2	3	3	4	1	2	3	3	3	3	4	2	1	4
8	8	1	5	2	3	2	2	1	1	3	3	3	3	5	3	1	3
9	9	1	2	2	1	2	3	2	2	1	3	3	3	5	4	1	5
10	10	3	4	4	2	4	2	4	3	2	2	2	2	2	4	2	2
11	11	1	4	3	1	3	1	2	2	3	3	1	3	4	2	1	4
12	12	1	4	3	1	1	3	1	3	1	2	3	3	4	2	1	4
13	13	1	4	5	1	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	1	3
14	14	2	3	2	1	2	4	2	3	2	3	2	6	3	2	1	2
15	15	2	1	4	2	4	2	4	2	1	3	3	3	4	2	1	4
16	16	1	2	2	1	4	2	4	4	2	2	3	3	4	2	1	10
17	17	2	3	2	1	2	1	2	3	1	3	3	3	4	4	1	4
18	18	1	4	2	1	3	2	2	3	4	3	3	3	5	2	1	4
19	19	1	4	1	2	2	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	5	3	1	3
20	20	1	4	2	3	1	2	2	3	1	3	3	3	5	4	1	5
21	21	1	4	3	1	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	3	5	3	1	3
22	22	1	3	1	3	4	4	2	3	4	1	1	2	3	2	1	2
23	23	1	4	3	1	3	4	1	2	3	1	1	3	5	3	1	3
24	24	1	4	1	1	1	3	2	3	5	1	1	2	2	2	1	2
25	25	1	4	1	2	2	2	1	3	5	2	2	3	5	3	1	3
26	26	1	4	3	1	3	1	1	3	5	1	1	2	4	4	1	3
27	27	1	3	2	2	4	1	1	3	1	1	1	3	4	2	1	4
28	28	1	3	2	4	5	2	3	5	2	2	2	2	3	2	1	3
29	29	2	3	2	1	1	2	3	2	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
30	30	2	3	2	1	1	2	3	1	2	2	2	3	3	9	1	4

OBS	OBS	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	B1	B2	AGE	CL	M	SEX	DS
1	1	2	3	4	3	2	1	2	4	2	3	2	6	6	3	1	2
2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	6	5	1	1	2
3	3	1	2	3	2	1	2	2	4	4	3	3	3	5	9	2	2
4	4	2	2	3	1	2	2	2	3	1	3	3	1	2	4	2	1
5	5	2	4	1	1	2	1	4	3	4	1	1	2	2	2	1	2
6	6	2	4	2	1	4	4	2	2	4	1	3	3	5	9	1	3
7	7	1	4	1	2	3	2	4	4	1	1	2	3	5	2	1	1
8	8	4	2	1	1	2	4	2	3	4	3	1	3	5	2	1	1
9	9	2	5	1	1	5	4	1	2	4	1	1	3	5	2	1	1
10	10	2	1	1	2	1	3	5	4	1	1	3	5	5	9	1	7
11	11	3	1	5	2	3	3	5	1	4	3	3	3	5	9	2	1
12	12	2	1	2	1	2	1	3	2	4	3	3	3	5	1	1	1
13	13	1	2	2	2	3	1	4	2	2	3	3	4	5	1	1	3
14	14	1	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	4	5	9	2	3
15	15	1	2	2	2	3	2	4	2	2	3	3	4	5	9	2	1
16	16	2	2	2	1	3	1	2	2	4	1	3	3	5	2	1	2
17	17	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	3	2	3	5	2	1	2
18	18	1	2	3	2	2	1	2	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	1	3
19	19	2	1	1	1	2	1	3	4	1	3	1	4	5	2	1	3
20	20	2	3	2	2	2	4	3	2	4	3	3	4	5	1	1	3
21	21	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	4	3	3	3	3	5	2	1	1
22	22	1	3	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	5	1	1	2
23	23	1	1	4	2	3	2	5	5	2	3	3	3	5	2	1	5
24	24	2	2	1	1	3	5	2	1	1	3	3	3	5	2	1	2
25	25	2	4	2	1	4	2	2	4	2	3	2	5	5	6	1	3
26	26	1	4	1	1	2	2	4	4	4	3	3	4	5	4	1	4
27	27	1	1	2	2	2	2	4	2	2	3	3	4	5	2	1	4
28	28	1	4	2	1	2	4	2	3	2	3	3	3	5	4	1	2
29	29	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	3	4	3	1	2	5	4	1	1
30	30	2	4	1	1	4	2	2	4	4	2	2	2	5	1	1	1
31	31	2	4	2	2	3	2	3	2	4	3	3	3	4	9	1	2

OBS	OBS	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	B1	B2	AGE	CL	M	SEX	DS
1	1	4	4	2	1	3	1	3	4	1	3	1	3	4	1	1	4
2	2	1	4	1	1	2	1	2	4	3	3	1	5	6	9	1	1
3	3	2	2	1	1	2	1	4	2	2	2	1	3	4	2	1	5
4	4	5	2	2	1	4	1	2	4	2	3	1	3	5	2	1	1
5	5	2	2	3	2	2	1	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	2	1	3
6	6	1	1	1	1	2	4	2	1	4	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
7	7	2	2	1	1	4	4	1	2	1	3	3	5	5	2	1	3
8	8	2	2	2	1	3	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	1	1
9	9	2	2	1	2	3	2	2	3	4	2	2	2	2	2	1	1
10	10	2	2	1	1	4	1	4	2	4	3	3	2	2	1	1	2
11	11	1	4	2	1	2	1	2	2	4	3	3	3	5	9	1	3
12	12	2	3	1	4	2	1	3	1	4	3	3	2	3	2	1	3
13	13	1	4	2	1	2	1	3	1	1	3	2	6	5	3	1	1
14	14	2	2	1	1	4	5	4	4	5	1	2	2	3	2	1	2
15	15	2	4	1	2	4	2	4	2	2	3	3	2	4	2	1	3
16	16	3	2	2	1	4	4	1	2	2	3	2	4	1	2	1	1
17	17	1	1	2	1	3	2	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	1	3
18	18	4	4	3	2	2	4	4	1	5	3	3	3	3	2	1	3
19	19	1	2	1	1	3	1	4	1	4	3	3	3	4	4	1	4
20	20	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	4	2	3	1	3	3	2	1	3
21	21	1	1	2	1	4	1	5	3	5	3	1	2	1	2	1	1
22	22	2	2	2	2	4	4	2	4	5	3	1	2	1	4	1	1
23	23	4	4	2	1	2	4	2	4	2	2	2	4	5	1	1	2
24	24	2	2	2	1	1	1	4	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	1	2
25	25	2	2	4	2	4	1	2	2	5	3	1	3	5	1	1	1
26	26	2	2	1	1	2	3	2	2	1	3	3	2	1	2	1	1
27	27	2	2	2	1	3	2	2	2	1	3	3	3	3	2	1	3
28	28	2	2	4	1	2	1	3	2	1	1	2	4	5	9	1	1
29	29	2	2	3	1	2	2	3	2	3	3	1	3	3	1	1	3

Palcistan

SAS

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OBS	OBS	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	B1	B2	AGE	CL	M	SEX	DS
1	1	3	1	2	2	2	3	4	2	2	2	1	3	4	4	1	3
2	2	2	2	2	1	4	2	2	3	2	1	1	2	2	1	2	5
3	3	2	4	2	2	4	2	4	4	2	1	1	3	5	9	2	1
4	4	2	2	1	2	4	2	1	4	2	1	2	2	4	1	2	5
5	5	2	4	3	4	4	2	2	4	5	1	1	3	5	1	2	2
6	6	1	2	3	3	2	3	1	2	3	3	1	4	5	4	2	3
7	7	1	1	2	1	5	1	2	4	2	3	3	3	3	1	1	4
8	8	4	4	2	2	4	1	2	4	1	3	2	3	5	2	1	2
9	9	1	1	1	1	4	1	1	1	4	3	3	3	1	2	1	1
10	10	1	2	2	1	4	4	4	1	1	1	1	4	5	9	2	4
11	11	1	1	2	2	5	2	3	2	4	3	3	4	5	2	1	4
12	12	4	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	4	3	3	6	5	3	1	6
13	13	4	2	2	2	4	4	4	4	2	3	3	4	5	5	1	4
14	14	2	3	2	3	2	4	1	4	4	2	2	4	5	9	2	5
15	15	2	4	2	2	4	2	2	2	2	2	2	4	5	3	1	4
16	16	3	4	2	2	4	2	3	3	1	3	3	4	5	3	1	5
17	17	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	4	5	2	1	3
18	18	4	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	5	1	1	8
19	19	2	2	2	1	4	1	3	4	1	3	1	4	5	1	2	8
20	20	2	2	2	1	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	4	5	3	1	5

Thailand

OBS	N	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	B1	B2	AGE	CL	M	SEX
1	1	1	3	2	1	3	2	4	3	4	2	2	2	3	1	2
2	2	1	4	2	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	2	2	4	1	1
3	3	2	4	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	3	9	2
4	4	2	2	2	1	2	1	5	2	1	2	2	2	4	3	1
5	5	2	2	3	2	1	2	4	2	2	3	3	2	4	1	2
6	6	2	3	1	1	3	2	4	2	2	2	3	2	4	1	1
7	7	2	3	2	1	2	2	4	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	1
8	8	4	4	2	1	1	2	4	2	4	2	2	2	5	9	1
9	9	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	3	3	3	4	1	1
10	10	1	2	1	1	2	4	2	2	3	2	2	2	4	1	1
11	11	1	1	2	2	1	1	5	2	2	3	1	6	3	2	1
12	12	3	1	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	3	1	2
13	13	1	5	1	1	5	1	5	4	2	2	3	2	2	2	1
14	14	1	2	3	2	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	4	4	4	2
15	15	1	1	2	2	1	1	4	5	3	3	3	2	3	1	2
16	16	4	1	1	1	2	1	3	2	1	2	3	2	1	1	1
17	17	1	1	2	1	2	2	3	1	1	3	2	2	4	2	1
18	18	4	4	2	2	4	2	5	2	2	3	3	2	3	9	1
19	19	4	2	2	1	3	1	2	2	4	2	2	3	4	1	1
20	20	2	2	2	2	5	1	3	4	2	2	2	2	4	9	1
21	21	2	4	1	1	2	2	4	2	2	3	2	2	1	9	1
22	22	3	2	2	2	2	3	4	4	4	2	2	3	5	1	1
23	23	1	2	2	1	1	1	4	2	2	3	3	2	3	9	2
24	24	5	4	3	1	2	2	2	1	5	2	2	2	2	3	2
25	25	1	4	1	1	2	1	5	2	4	3	2	2	3	1	2
26	26	2	2	4	1	4	2	5	4	4	2	2	2	3	1	2
27	27	4	2	2	5	2	2	4	5	2	2	2	2	4	1	1
28	28	2	2	2	1	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	2	1	4	1
29	29	1	4	1	1	4	1	5	2	1	2	2	3	5	1	1
30	30	1	5	2	1	1	1	1	2	3	2	2	2	3	1	1

OBS	OBS	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	B1	B2	AGE	CL	M	SEX	DS
1	1	2	2	3	2	1	4	2	1	2	2	2	3	2	1	1	1
2	2	2	1	4	1	4	1	2	2	2	3	1	3	3	1	1	2
3	3	2	4	4	1	2	2	2	4	4	3	3	3	2	2	1	1
4	4	2	2	2	4	5	3	1	4	2	3	3	3	3	1	1	2
5	5	4	2	2	1	5	2	4	2	4	2	3	4	4	1	1	3
6	6	2	4	3	1	3	2	3	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	2
7	7	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	3	1	1	1	3	2	1	2	2
8	8	2	4	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	1	1	3	2	1	1	2
9	9	1	5	2	3	3	2	1	2	2	3	3	3	4	1	1	3
10	10	2	4	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	3	2	1	3
11	11	2	4	3	1	2	1	4	2	2	1	1	3	4	9	2	4
12	12	2	4	2	2	2	2	2	3	4	3	3	2	1	1	2	1
13	13	1	4	4	2	3	2	2	4	4	1	1	3	3	1	1	2
14	14	2	3	4	1	2	2	4	3	1	3	3	3	4	1	1	3
15	15	2	4	2	1	4	4	2	4	2	1	1	3	4	9	1	2
16	16	2	4	2	2	4	4	2	4	2	2	1	3	3	1	1	2
17	17	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	4	2	3	1	3	4	1	1	3
18	18	1	2	1	2	4	1	4	2	2	3	1	3	3	1	2	1
19	19	2	1	2	1	4	2	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	1	2
20	20	1	2	3	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	1	3	3	1	2	2

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Thesis: CULTURAL ASPECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURAL DIMENSIONS OF POWER DISTANCE, UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE, AND INDIVIDUALISM, AND ATTITUDES TOWARD PARTICIPATION, LOYALTY, LEADERSHIP CAPACITY, AND NATIONALITY PREFERENCE

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