CROSS-CULTURAL LEADERSHIP:

THE INTERACTION OF CULTURE, VALUES, AND LEADERSHIP STYLE

By

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CROSS-CULTURAL LEADERSHIP:
INTERACTION OF CULTURE, VALUES, AND LEADERSHIP STYLE

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“The spirit of a country, if it is to be true to itself, needs continually to draw great breaths of inspiration from the simple realities of the country; from the smell of its soil, the pattern of its fields, the beauty of its scenery and from the men and women who dwell and toil in the rural areas.”

Sir George Stapledon
1882-1960

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my father, James M. Battles and my maternal grandmother, Jimmie D. Jones.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Background and Setting

In the global business environment expansion into new markets, outsourcing, changing employee expectations, and increasing pressure for greater productivity are among the long list of challenges presented to leaders. Exacerbating these challenges are rapid and frequently occurring domestic and cross-border mergers, acquisitions, joint ventures, and alliances (Cassidy, 2003; Martin, 2002). To have a bearing on global success, leadership challenges and necessary competencies to face the challenges need to be considered in the context of realities that have yet to present themselves (House & Podsakoff, 1994; Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall & Stroh, 1999). This research study focused upon international leaders working in the wine industry.

International Leadership

The world’s people and nations are more interdependent than any other time in history. The interdependence is an inescapable reality and ever increasing, making isolation from international influences impossible (Lodge, 1995; Parhizgar, 2002; Peterson, 2001). The interdependence and interconnectedness permeates all facets of our lives—cultural, economic, political, technological, and environmental (Lodge, 1995). This permeation has changed the way we view ourselves and the world in which we live. No longer do geographic boundaries hold us in a sheltered world of familiar people, language, cultures, and activities. Hudzik (n.d.) describes national borders as becoming
increasingly more permeable due to streamlining modes of transportation and the rapid introduction and assimilation of technologically advanced electronic communications (Allen, Borda, Hickman, Matusak, Sorenson, & Whitmire, 1998; Peterson, 2001). Because geography and technology are no longer limiting factors, all employees should consider themselves as global citizens and members of an international workforce (Hunter, 2004). In *The Work of Nations* (1991), Reich suggested that the increasing porosity of national borders will eventually lead to the elimination of national products, technologies, corporations, and industries—national will give way to global.

Economic, social, and political forces are accelerating international mobility, immigration, and relocation, introducing changes in societal structures in many countries. A nation’s standard of living, as well as their independence, depends upon its ability to compete successfully in the global economy (Lodge, 1995). The future of organizations is dependent on its capacity to adapt to the nuances of the worldwide marketplace.

Due to the evolving international activities successful leaders need the ability to deal with different cultures and languages. Leaders must be prepared to lead in fast-changing environments that include a multiplicity of cultures and traditions and a complex labor force (Earnest, 2003). Rhinesmith (1993) referred to the variety of influences occurring in cross-cultural situations, both domestic and international, as the “engine that drives the creative energy of the corporation of the 21st century (p. 5)” and that corporate success will be derived from skillfully capitalizing on the innovative and competitive edge provided by cultural diversity.

If multinational firms are to be successful in the competitive international market, people who can successfully function in a global context—formulating and implementing
strategies, inventing and utilizing technologies, and creating and coordinating information must be developed. A talent bank of individuals that have been trained and developed to lead in a global context is an important component facilitating a corporation’s success in international settings.

Need for the Study

From a company’s perspective, a substantial financial cost is incurred when an employee is sent on an international assignment as a transnational leader. Compensation packages for leaders on international assignment include salary, and foreign service premiums encompassing allowances for international differential, cost of living expenses including but not limited to housing (whether temporary or semi-permanent), and reimbursement for the taxes that are paid in excess of what would be paid if the employee had remained in the United States. These costs are rarely less than $300,000/year/employee to in excess of $1 million/year/employee (Burgess, 2000; Ceridian, 2004; Gale, 2003; Grove & Hallowell, 1996; Kang n.d.; Klaff, 2002; O’Boyle, 1989; McNulty, 2001; Tung, 1981). In cases of the expatriate assignments, premature termination of assignment (either at the request of the employee or the company) occurs in 16 to 40% of expatriate assignments (Kealey, 1996; Martin & Harrell, 1996; Tu & Sullivan, 1994). When the expatriate assignment is based in a host country that is a developing nation the early return rate can be as high as 70% (Copeland & Griggs, 1985). Of the average 60 to 84% of expatriate assignments that do not return early, an estimated 50% of those assignments are considered to be ineffective by their firms (GMAC, 2007; Klaff, 2002; Mervosh & McClanahan, 1997; Seward, 1975).
Both prematurely terminated international assignments and assignments that are conducted ineffectively reduce the opportunity for the company to experience a return on their investment. Direct costs per assignment failure are estimated to be between $250,000 and $1 million per failure (Caudron, 1991). In terms of costs not related to human resource expenditures, the company also risks a disruption to their business resulting in a potential damage to their reputation, lost business opportunities and market share (Pucik, Tichy & Barnett, 1992). Copeland & Griggs (1985) estimated that the total cost of failed international assignments by United States transnational leaders amounts to more than $2 billion per year.

From the transnational leaders’ standpoints, failure in an international assignment places the individual in an at-risk situation for loss of self-esteem, self-confidence, status among fellow employees, and commitment to company and job performance upon return to their role with the company in the country of origination (Bhagat & Prien, 1996; Lazarova & Cerdin, 2007; Yan, Zhu, & Hall, 2002).

Besides issues of strategic business management, agriculturally-based industry must address concerns such as whether to incorporate genetic modification, climate changes, and strategies for sustainability and environmental responsibility. Laszlo Vajda (2009) the 2009 president of the International Food and Agribusiness Management Association (IAMA), punctuated this situation in his welcome message to the 2009 conference. He stated that agribusiness is “facing challenges among every sector of the global agri-agro food system” Challenges are not only local, domestic issues; they are issues on a global scale and require strong leadership.
The search for and development of employees that possess both technical and leadership skills play a decisive role in wineries’ plans to advance their ventures into the global market (Thach & Shepard, 2001.)

In response to specific demands placed upon wine industry professionals—Sonoma State University in Rohnert Park, CA has launched the nation’s first graduate program designed to equip attendees for roles in increasingly global or international aspects of the wine industry.

The substantial direct and soft costs of international assignment failure demands further research to provide insight into this phenomenon, providing research based responses to the problem. Research providing more effective measures and methods upon which the selection and development processes may be based are indicated (Kealey, 1996; Solomon, 1996).

Statement of the Problem

The problem is leadership that is responsive to and capable of handling business on a global scale is needed. To better supply the increasing needs of an internationally effective workforce and leadership; agriculturally-based industries must have a better understanding and an enriched insight into the role that culture, values, leadership style, and global mindset play in effective international leadership.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the interaction of culture, values, and leadership style exhibited in cross-cultural leaders working in the wine industry. Data collected was used to provide further insight and understanding of the experiences of American leaders in cross-cultural situations. The enriched insight and understanding
lead to the identification of a set of key competencies (specific knowledge, skills, aptitudes, and attitudes), which can be used to identify and describe leadership practices that are most effective in the international context. The enriched insight and understanding into the cross-cultural phenomenon may be used by corporate executives, human resource professionals and individuals to assist in a heightened awareness of traits of that point toward globally mobile leadership candidates.

Research Questions

Questions that guided this study and the exploration of the multiple challenges that new global leadership frontiers present included:

- What role did culture, values, and leadership style play in effective international leadership?
- How did the internal experience of the leader reflect externally in their practice of leadership?
- What enabled international leaders to have an effective global mindset and perspective, accepting of a new paradigm?
- What competencies did a globally mobile leader need to develop to be effective in international situations?

Significance of the Study

From a business-oriented approach, further examination of the transnational leadership experience has theoretical and practical significance from the corporate perspective and the perspective of the globally mobile leader.

The comments of Harris and Moran in their book, Managing Cultural Differences (1987), rang with great resonance describing the significance and power that studies focused upon globally mobile leaders or in their terms transnational leaders might have.
Globalization and the ensuing changes are a slow process; thereby providing this quote continued applicability.

“Executives in transnational enterprise should join the common struggle for a world cultural rebirth, and assist in conjuring up the new visions that will energize or motivate the human family…..It is the authors’ thesis that transnational managers, because of their knowledge and experience, are in an unusual position to join in the process of renewal. Their role in global enterprises offers an opportunity for re-creation of cultural assumptions, norms, and practices on a planetary scale” (p. 5).

Considering the realities of a growing global economy, successful business ventures will need proficiency in navigating the waters of the global environment. A key component to success will be an ability to identify and implement effective cross-cultural leadership practices. This study provides insight into the identification of effective cross-cultural leaders and their practices.

Basic Assumptions of the Study

Each of the participants in the study has had multiple years experience leading in intercultural situations. An assumption is that each participant was able to accurately reconstruct their international leadership experiences. It is also assumed that the participants provided valuable insight into the events and trends that occur while leading in a global capacity, and that their responses during the telephone interviews were provided freely, honestly and without pretense. It is also assumed that each of the participants understood the written instructions provided for both of the survey instruments.
Operational Definitions

*Communication:* Comes from the Latin word *communicare* which means “to make common” or “to share”. (Pearson, Nelson, Titsworth, and Harter, 2008, p. 10).

“Communication is a systemic process in which people interact with and through symbols to create and interpret meanings” (Wood, 2006, p. 12).

*Competence:* A specific range of skill, knowledge, ability, motivations, and attitudes. Competences are characteristics of the individual, not the position (Hollenbeck, 2001). Competencies are characteristics which motivate outstanding job performance in a specific job, role, or function. (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

*Cross-cultural:* Cultural phenomena from the perspective of the culture in which they occur and from the perspective of another culture (Hoppes & Pusch, 1979). Cross-cultural describes variables relevant to many cultures globally. The terms cross-cultural, global, intercultural, international, multinational, and transnational will appear interchangeably.

*Culture:* The learned and shared knowledge, beliefs, and norms of social groups that influence the group and individual behavior (Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall, & Stroh, 1999).

*Global mindset:* “A highly complex cognitive structure distinguished by an openness to and expression of multiple cultural and strategic realities on both global and local levels and the cognitive capacity to moderate and assimilate across this diversity (Levy, et al., 2007, p. 5).

*Globalization:* The increasing integration of economies and societies around the world, transcending the boundaries of the nation state, particularly through
international trade and flow of capital, ideas and people, the transfer of culture and technology, and the development of transnational regulations (YARA, 2006).

*Global literacy:* Seeing, thinking, acting, and mobilizing in culturally mindful ways. It is the sum of the attitudes, beliefs, knowledge, skills, and behaviors needed for success in today’s multicultural, global economy (Rosen, Digh, Singer, & Phillips, 2000).

*Intercultural communication:* Interpersonal communication between people from different sociocultural systems and/or communication between members of different subsystems (ex. Ethnic or racial groups) within the same sociocultural system (Gudykunst, 1987). Intercultural communication involves an attempt to exchange a set of ideas, feelings, symbols and meanings. The implication is that the parties do not share the same assumptions, beliefs, values or same way of thinking, feeling and behaving. The lack of shared culture makes the communication process more difficult and challenging than communication conducted between members of the same culture. (Casse, 1980).

*Intercultural sensitivity:* A developmental process in which one is able to transform oneself affectively, cognitively, and behaviorally from ethnocentric stages to ethnorelative stages (Bennett, 1993b).

*Leader:* Any person who influences individuals and groups within an organization, helps them in the establishment of goals, and guides them toward achievement of those goals, thereby allowing them to be effective (Nahavandi, 2003).
Leadership: The act of transforming followers, creating vision of the goals that may be attained, and articulating for the followers, the ways to attain those goals (Bass, 1985).

Values: Dimensions that member of a particular group consider important and desirable, what it values, what guides the behavior of its individuals, forms the basis for group norms, and dictates lifestyles that are deemed appropriate for group members (Carter & Helms, p. 106).

Overview of the Dissertation

There are five chapters in this dissertation. Chapter One provides a brief overview of the current state of international leadership, introduces the problem and the industry that framed the study, explains the purpose, the research questions, significance of the study and the key terms. Chapter Two is a review of the literature pertinent to the research and a theoretical framework that is responsive to the challenges of international leadership. Chapter Three is a detailed description of the research design and methodology that was used to collect and analyze the data. Chapter Four presents the demographic data collected, the quantitative findings resulting from the administration of two instruments, the qualitative findings from the interviews and an analysis of the data. Chapter Five summarizes the results, offers recommendations, presents conclusions, and discusses the implications of the study for future research and practice.

Summary

This chapter provided a brief overview of the current state of international leadership, introduces the problem and the industry that framed the study, explained the purpose and research questions, defined the key terms, and provided an overview of the
dissertation. The study focused upon providing support for recruiting global leadership
talent, guidance for appropriate professional development and training and assistance in
the preparation of succession plans. The four research questions sought to start
conversations that would provide insight into the experiences of American leaders in the
international context. Primary objectives of the study were the identification of the role
that culture, values, and leadership style play in effective international leadership and
how the development of a global mindset enables leaders to succeed in international
situations.
CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Within the body of literature on leadership, there is extensive scholarship on the role and importance of the leader within the business environment. This particular area of study is enriched with not only theoretical models, but also a breadth of evidence provided by empirical study. This chapter focuses upon the following themes: (a) changing times require changing thought processes; (b) culture, values, leadership style, and global mindset (c) the interaction between culture, values, leadership style, and global mindset; (d) globalization, intercultural sensitivity, global competency, and the globally mobile leader; and (e) an overview of the wine industry.

While considering culture, the underlying concepts of national culture and cultural identity and its effects on the international leader is addressed. The overview of the wine industry provides a look into the industry that is the focus in this study, while offering a snapshot of the significant issues that affect the individuals that are leaders in this field. Historical, economic, environmental, and global perspectives will be addressed in brief.

The chapter ends with a summary of the literature review that places the present research study within the larger body of literature reviewed here and also provides a leadership theory that is responsive to the challenges that are delineated in the literature
The leadership theory provides a strong framework upon which to focus efforts to create a new paradigm.

New Millennium, New Paradigm: Changing Times Require Changing Thought Processes

All around the globe the new millennium was ushered in with great hope, expectancy, and opportunity. Along with the opportunities, the twenty-first century brought with it numerous threats and challenges. One challenge in the field of management and management development is that the traditional models and views which have been used to facilitate hiring, training, controlling, motivating, and measuring employees are outmoded. Even terms such as management and management development suggest a dated approach. These traditional models were created to address domestic, not global issues. New ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving are required to function in the world of global business. This is especially important for those who aspire to be a successful global leader (Rhinesmith, 1993). It is anticipated that the people, government, and corporations of the United States will play an important role in the creation of a new paradigm (Lodge, 1995) which is necessary to resolve the challenges brought with the new millennium.

A paradigm is a “basic framework through which we conceive and perceive the world, giving shape and meaning to all our knowledge, experiences, providing a basis for interpreting and organizing both our conceptions and perceptions” (Palmer, 1989 p.15). Global conditions and the international workplace require a new worldview, and strategies to ensure continued financial viability and solvency along with the new leadership paradigm that includes intercultural sensitivity (Allen, Borda, Hickman, Matusak, Sorenson, & Whitmire, 1998).
Culture, Values, Leadership Style, and Global Mindset

Culture

Credit for the first definition of culture is attributed to Edward Tylor in his work entitled *Primitive Culture* which was originally published in 1871. He provided a starting point for the description of culture. He stated “(culture) taken in its broad, ethnographic sense, is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society” (1871, p. 1).

Since Tylor’s early definition, many definitions of culture have been proffered; Kroeber & Kluckhohn (1952) provided over 200 definitions in their publication over half a century ago. They categorized the definitions into six groups: (a) descriptive, (b) historical, (c) normative, (d) psychological, (e) structural, and (f) genetic. Kroeber & Kluckhohn placed each definition in a category based on the analytical emphasis of the definition. The categorizations still provide a solid set of lenses through which the plethora of definitions of culture may be viewed. Table 1 lists the culture categorizations by definition emphasis.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Culture Definition Category</th>
<th>Emphasis of Definition</th>
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<tr>
<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>Provides inventory of content</td>
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<tr>
<td>Historical</td>
<td>Represents a social heritage or tradition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative</td>
<td>Provides rules or code of behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological</td>
<td>Used as a problem-solving mechanism; encourages learning; stresses ability to adapt; is an active concept not passive</td>
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Viewed through the lenses provided by Kroeber & Kluckhohn, “culture forms the mechanism through which people construct and enact meaning”. (Rubinstein, 2003, p. 30) is an example of a psychological definition. In the definition people are active—they are constructing and enacting—the definition emphasizes the dynamic nature of culture and also the learning aspect. Hofstede (1992, p. 39) described culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the member of one category of people from another.” This is another definition that emphasizes culture as a learned process, a product of nurture, not nature. Each emphasis describes important aspects of the role that culture plays in the personal and professional lives of individuals and societies.

Many theorists have provided a tiered concept of culture (Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall and Stroh 1999; Schien, 1985; Trompenaars 1994; and Weaver, 1986). Schein (1985) suggested that culture can be observed on three different levels: (a) behaviors and artifacts, (b) beliefs and values, and (c) underlying assumptions. Trompenaars’ (1994) multi-layered model of culture is similar to Schein’s idea. His model is comprised three layers—the outer most layer (easily observed items), the middle layer (norms and values) and the core (basic assumptions). The idea that culture goes beyond what is visible is well-described by Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall and Stroh (1999), they suggest envisioning a tree. Part of the tree is visible, above the surface and parts of the tree are below the surface—the supporting roots. The visible or tangible aspects of culture—items that can be seen, heard, smelled, tasted, or touched—are

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Culture Definition Category</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structural</td>
<td>Patterns of systemizing or organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genetic</td>
<td>Product or artifact</td>
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Schein’s behaviors and artifacts and are a small percent of what exactly exists. Beliefs, values and underlying assumptions cannot be seen; however, they serve as the supporting roots, providing life and vitality to the culture. Weaver (1986) provides an analogy of culture similar to that of Black, et al., (1999) using an iceberg in place of the tree. Each of these vivid analogies provides a tool to help describe the complex effects of culture on the lived experience. Each analogy draws a strong parallel between a concrete item (tree/iceberg) and the abstract concept of a layered approach to the manifestations of culture. The prevailing thoughts in each of these explanations is frequently the things that cannot be seen, yet have a profound effect on one’s life.

Five Dimensions of Culture

After extensive study, Hofstede (1980) identified five dimensions of culture. Hofstede’s cross-cultural framework offers a basis for understanding both professional and personal interactions. Hofstede described these dimensions as points along a continuum which maintain a relationship of tension between one another. The conflicting elements help identify possible sources of cultural tensions and facilitate the development of strategies to increase a leader’s effectiveness.

In his extensive studies, Hofstede (1991) assessed many national cultures and created a descriptive matrix ranking the country in relationship to each of the five dimensions of culture. Table 2 lists the five cultural dimensions and a description of each dimension.
Hofstede’s Five Cultural Dimensions are frequently quoted and used as an explanation of cultural differences. His work however has not been without strong criticism. The criticism contends that the Five Cultural Dimensions are an over simplification of complex cultures, and exhibits high levels of ethnocentrism and parochialism. The over simplification can lead to erroneous stereotyping (Bartholomew & Adler, 1996; Kirkman, et al., 2006; Hampden & Trompenaars, 1997; McSweeney, 2002; and Sivakumar & Nataka, 2001). In spite of the criticism, Hofstede has provided a framework that functions as a starting point for examining different perspectives and paradigms held by diverse populations. Culture provides a starting point to commence the building of a new paradigm. To most effectively implement cultural knowledge, cultural self-awareness is the next step in the continuum.
Cultural Self-Awareness

Cultural self-awareness involves understanding one’s internal culture and state of mind thus facilitating the development of empathy for others. Cultural self-awareness also involves the ability to recognize and understand the effect of culture on one’s values and behaviors, and thus enhancing an individual’s ability to understand others (Cassidy, 2003).

Cultural self-awareness is an important variable for a leader’s cross-cultural effectiveness (Adler, 1986; Adler, 1991; Hofstede, 1997; Moffatt, 2004, Soukuvitz & George, 2003), and is one of the most important practices a global leader can cultivate (Chang, 2007; Kealey, 1996; Rhinesmith, 1993). The rapid pace of globalization has brought to the forefront the importance cultural self-awareness.

Cultural self-awareness is closely related to intercultural sensitivity which is discussed later in this chapter. Without some level of cultural self-awareness, intercultural sensitivity is a mute point. Cultural self-awareness provides a global leader with insight that is necessary to effectively deal with the complex situations that arise when interacting with a diverse workforce.

National Culture

In order to transact business in the global arena, multinational companies must understand the national cultures of all of the countries in which they do business. A company can realize a competitive advantage based on an understanding of the role national culture plays in their business transactions (Porter, 1990). National culture effects the way companies negotiate market, organize, lead, and communicate. National culture plays such a strong role that it explained more of the differences in work-related
values and attitudes than did age, gender, employee position within the organization, or profession in Hofstede’s study of national culture (1980).

Unless globally operating companies recognize cultural differences and address the issues, the inattentive companies’ philosophies, objectives, products, and services will not be understood or receive acceptance from culturally different employees, customers, and partners. Organizations may attempt to be uniform or objective; however, the attempted uniformity or objectivity may not have the same meanings for individuals from different cultures.

While some consider culture as an obstacle or a deterrent, cultural differences can provide tangible benefits for a company and can be used to provide a competitive edge (Hoecklin, 1995). Values, ideas, and all aspects of culture result in diversity that provides opportunities for multiple perspectives and innovation thinking. Differing national culture and the accompanying advantages and disadvantages represent a set of challenges encountered by transnational leaders.

*Cultural identity and the international leader*

People view, interpret and evaluate thing differently, often based upon a set of assumptions and perceptions that are derived from one’s culture (Tomlinson, 1999). These differences can set the stage for misinterpretations and misunderstandings. Overlay a variety of cultural conditions, interwoven the corporate culture, and the level of complexity can increase significantly. He observes that “Culture simply does not transfer in this unilinear way. Movement between cultural/geographic areas always involves interpretation, translation, mutation, adaptation … as the receiving culture brings its own cultural resources to bear… upon cultural imports” (1999, p. 84).
Laurent (1983) contends that the more experience a leader has had with another culture’s way of doing things, the greater the identification and alignment with their own cultural beliefs becomes. “As the process of globalization accelerates the more conscious we become of the pull of localism in all its forms” (Barnet & Cavanaugh, 1994, p.21).

In contrast to Laurent’s view of cultural identity, Adler sees cultural identity evolving differently. Adler (1998, p. 209) stated “cultural identity is the symbol of one’s essential experience of oneself as it incorporates the world view value system, attitudes, and beliefs of a group with which such elements are shared.” Adler contended that international leaders often develop a unique cultural identity stemming from their multiple perspectives and frames of reference. This experience is called cultural marginality. The term cultural marginality describes a cultural lifestyle on the edge of two or more cultures (Bennett, 1993a).

The international leader that is able to move comfortably and consciously between their cultural identities, recognizing the benefits of alternatives and choices are said to be constructively marginal (Adler, 1998; Bennett, 1993a). To acquire constructive marginality a high level of understanding and comfort level with a new cultural situation is necessary. Both understanding and comfort level results from a transfer of tacit knowledge occurring from personal contact and trust (Polanyi, 1967). The absence of the transfer of tacit knowledge ends up with many aspects of the cultural complexities escaping the outsider. The constructively marginal international leader is able to integrate the multiple perspectives and frames of reference into a resource that provides an advantage in both their professional and personal lives (Aycan, 1997; Bennett, 1993a).
Another situation similar to the constructively marginal, perhaps a precursor to constructive marginality is the production of a “transaction culture”. A transaction culture is one in which a middle ground for interaction is created by two individuals of differing cultures. The cultural rules of each individual culture are deferred to a set of rules that are developed for the purposes of interaction (Bell & Williams, 1999, pp. 452-3).

The transfer of culture occurs in stages or phases. Faithorn (1992) provides a description of the multi-phase transference. This multi-phase transference process is depicted in Table 3.

### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perspective</th>
<th>Descriptive Phrase</th>
<th>Attitude Toward Diversity</th>
<th>Emphasis in Relationship to Diversity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>“Me or you”</td>
<td>Repression of diversity, emphasis on the status quo</td>
<td>Status Quo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercultural</td>
<td>“Me and you”</td>
<td>Tolerance</td>
<td>Bridge building between differences, assimilation, incorporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transcultural</td>
<td>“Us”</td>
<td>Celebration</td>
<td>Coordination of multiple views, integration, synthesis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The integration of multiple worldviews does not always occur easily. Because culture, the foundation of an individual’s worldview, involves nearly every aspect of their lives; the process of integrating multiple worldviews can be chaotic, stressful, and emotional for leaders (Chang, 2007). When engaging in the integration process, people do not leave behind their culture, they “carry their own cultural baggage” (2007, p. 230). The opportunity for negative experiences is exacerbated by a contradicting set of cultural beliefs and values. Encountering and interacting with different cultures, values, and lifestyles necessitates departure from one’s comfort zone. A range of feelings from
reluctance to resistance is a natural reaction. Tolerance for the unfamiliar does not come easy nor does it come automatically to leaders (2007).

While trying to internalize multiple worldviews it is common for an individual to experience internal culture shock (Bennett, 1993a). Internal culture shock is cited as a key factor for many assignments terminate prematurely. Herein lies a significant challenge for the globally mobile leader.

Values

Anthropologists, sociologists, psychologists, and economists have documented the fact that people in different cultures hold divergent value systems (Parhizgar, 2002). All social behavior is embedded in a particular context and is connected to other deeply held values and beliefs. The values and beliefs act as the filter through which people view reality (Cassidy, 2003; Hoecklin, 1995).

It is difficult to observe a person’s values; however the behavioral patterns that are a manifestation of a person’s values are readily visible to an observer (Markus & Kitayama, 1994, Prosser, 1978). Other visible manifestations of values are present in the laws, norms, and practices by the desirable “modes and means of conduct” (Kluckhorn, 1962, p. 396). As the world becomes increasingly more interdependent, leaders are charged with a critical task. It is imperative that leaders examine and gain a better understanding of their own personal and cultural assumptions, values, and beliefs to assure that jointly gratifying intercultural interactions are possible (Hofstede, 1991; Rhinesmith 1993; Triandis, 1994).

Companies commonly behave ethnocentrically, showing a strong belief in the superiority of their culture of origin, frequently forgetting the others “behave rationally,
but in relation to different systems of values” (Walker, 2003, p. vii). Many values have also been observed to be universal, yet the behavioral expression is different from one cultural group to another. There are clear ties between cultural values and behavior (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). A close tie exists between culture and values—so closely interwoven are they that it is very difficult to tease the two apart. Culture and values play significant simultaneous roles in the creation and expression of people’s identities.

The consideration of and integration of different cultural values and perceptions becomes problematic for multinational companies as they attempt to intertwine their cultural differences into the organizational and operational functions of their mission (Parhizgar, 2002). It is important that leaders acknowledge and allow culturally diverse people to maintain their common sense constructs or routine ways of seeing. Individuals enter into employment as whole systems of patterned meanings and understandings. It is a challenge of leadership to try to understand the diversity of thought processes, to do so means starting with the way others think, and building from there (Schutz, 1970).

Culture and values play an important role in creation of people’s identities and behavioral expressions. Leaders must be keenly aware of the role of culture and values in their expression of their behaviors and the behaviors of those they are leading.

**Leadership Style**

There are many theories of leadership, each attempting to contribute to insight to a phenomenon that is practiced in every country, society, and organization. Leadership takes on a multitude of characteristics and is practiced in a myriad of styles. Since the early 1900’s the practice of leadership has been the subject of hundreds of studies. The studies have lead to the creation of a variety of leadership theories, each with unique
characteristics, different areas of emphasis, but all alike in that they seek to provide answers to two basic questions: “What does it take to be an effective leader?” and “What is the most effective leadership style?” These are difficult questions to answer in the domestic work arena - with globalization the level of complexity is increased.

**Brief Overview of Early Leadership Theory**

Early studies of leadership were based on the assumption that leaders were born, not made. Later this premise became known as the “great man” theory of leadership. The development of the trait leadership theories were based on researchers attempts to identify a set of traits that all successful leaderships possessed (Lussier, 1999).

*Trait leadership era: late 1800s-mid 1940s.* Trait leadership theories “assumes that there are distinctive physical and psychological characteristics accounting for leadership effectiveness” (Lussier, 1999, p. 214). The theories emphasize such as persuasive powers, foresight, intuition, and energy or stamina (Yukl, 2002).

*Behavioral leadership era: mid 1940s-early 1970s.* Behavioral leadership theories emphasized leader behaviors or the behaviors exhibited at work. Behavioral leadership theories “assume that there are distinctive styles that effective leaders use consistently, or, that good leadership is rooted in behavior (Lussier, 1999, p. 217) These theories aspired to identify, describe, and explain the observable pattern of behavior that are related to effective leadership (Chemers, 1997). Douglas McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y are behavioral leadership theories. The two-dimensional leadership style found its home in the behavioral leadership category. The two dimensions of initiating structure and consideration were used to measure followers’ perception of leaders’ behavior.
The contingency leadership theories appeared in the early 1960s. Contingency leadership theories turned leadership theory research in a new direction. The contingency approach was the first to emphasize the importance of situational factors as a consideration of leadership. Contingency leadership theories “assume that the appropriate leadership style varies from situation to situation” (Lussier, 1999, p. 222). There are four of the major directions taken by contingency theory, (a) Fiedler’s Contingency Theory, (b) Path-Goal Theory, (c) Normative Decision Theory, and (d) Situational Theory.

Fiedler’s Contingency Theory is reported to be the most researched model of leadership (Bass, 1990). This theory (Fiedler, 1967) is based upon the personality-motivational orientation of the leader which is measured by the least preferred coworker (LPC) score. The LPC reveals the degree to which a leader’s primary motivation is task-oriented or relationship-oriented.

Path-Goal Theory is a follower-oriented theory in which the followers’ competence and personality needs affect leader behavior. The theory is very complex with four leader behaviors, multiple situational and follower trait moderators, five intervening variables, and two dependent variables (House, 1971).

Normative Decision Theory was originally developed by Vroom & Yetton (1973), revised by Vroom & Jago (1988), and revised again to become the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model. The theory bases leader effectiveness on the manner in which decisions are made. Decision strategies are placed into three categories, (1) autocratic, (2) consultative, and (3) democratic or group. The use of a decision-tree enables the leader to select from one of five leadership styles that is appropriate for the situation.
Situational Leadership Theory (Hershey & Blanchard, 1997) is based upon the leader changing their behavior based upon the ability and willingness of the followers to complete the task in question. The ability and willingness demonstrates various levels of employee maturity.

These four theories are alike in that each attempts to measure leader effectiveness based upon the emphasis a leader places on task-oriented, directive, and structuring issues as opposed to relationship-oriented, supportive, and participative behaviors. Fiedler’s Contingency Theory differs from the other three theories in one major aspect. Fiedler’s theory explains leader behavior as the result of stable, embedded cognitive and emotional reaction patterns. Path-Goal Theory, Normative Decision Theory, and Situational Leadership Theory rest upon the assumption that leaders are capable of changing behavior patterns and using a behavior that fits the situation.

As the early leadership theories lost favor, more recent theories were developed to explain leadership. The more recent theories, transactional and transformational, focus on the leader-follower relationships. Since the 1980s theories of transformational leadership have been dominating the study of leadership (Yukl, 1999).

Recent Leadership Theories

Transactional theories. Transactional theory or in some cases referred to as exchange theory is focused on a leaders ability to motivate followers by generating exchanges and by elucidating mutual responsibilities and benefits. The leader provides resources and rewards in exchange for motivation, productivity and effective task accomplishment “The leader-follower relationships are seen as reciprocal exchanges in
which leaders and followers create a transaction that allows for mutual satisfaction of goals and needs” (Chemers, 1997, p. 61).

One adaptation of the transactional theory is the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory (Graen & Cashman, 1975). One of the features of the LMX is the claim that leaders and followers perform effectively as a result of high-quality relationships based on mutual trust and respect.

Implicit Leadership Theory is another adaptation of the transactional theory and will be more fully discussed in the Theoretical Framework section, p. 43.

*Transformational theories.* Transformational theories use the transactional theories as building blocks, but redirect their focus toward the emotional relationship between the leader and her followers. The essence of transformational leadership is to inspire, develop and empower followers while meeting organizational goals. An important function of the leader is to make tasks meaningful with the acknowledgment that the task is tied to a higher cause. A work environment in which frequent and recurrent changes happen, transformational leadership guides the followers to enact revolutionary change (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; & Conger & Kanungo, 1998).

In summation, the trait and behavior theories focus on the leader’s characteristics; the contingency theories focus on the way in which the situation and characteristics of the followers affected leader effectiveness; transactional theories place their focus on the quality of the relationship between leader and follower; and most recently transformational theories place the emphasis upon the importance of highly motivating behavior and emotion resonance with their followers.
Leadership theory lays the groundwork for leadership to be described as it is played out in the daily operations of business—whether domestic or global. Each venue has its own set of idiosyncrasies that leadership must address.

Unique cultural characteristics such as language, beliefs, values, religion, and social organization are commonly thought to require distinct leadership approaches in different groups of nations—known as culture clusters (Hofstede, 1992; Triandis 1993). A leadership style that is effective in one country will not necessarily be effective in another. To be successful a company may have to adjust the goals and behaviors to be acceptable to different cultures (Ayman, 1993; Lucas & Chambers, 2003; Dorfman & Howell, 1997).

Walker (2003) & Overman (1989) observed that United States multinational leaders should eliminate the notion that the United States approach to leadership is the right approach for every country and every situation. A clearer idea of the unrealistic view of United States leadership superiority may be gained when it is acknowledged that most of the organizational models and principles of leadership that are studied globally have been predominantly developed in the United States (Dimmock, 2002; House, 1995; House, et al., 2004; Walker, 2003; Yukl, 2002).

The basis of these theories involved some very specific and particular underlying assumptions that are Anglo-Saxon in their origination. These assumptions support the notion that organizations can be viewed as machines, with the human beings considered to be resources, much like physical and monetary items are considered as resources. This cultural belief is to a large extent unique to Anglo-Saxon thought processes and not shared by many other cultures (Black, et al., 1999; Hofstede, 1992; Winch, 1970). Two
other idiosyncratic features of United States leadership theory are the emphasis placed upon market processes and the focus upon the manager instead of the workers (Hofstede, 1992).

Another limiting factor of United States originated leadership theories is the highly individualistic nature of the theories (Adler, 1986; Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992; Hofstede, 1980, 1992; House, 1995; Smith & Peterson, 1988; Triandis 1993). A leadership theory that is individualistic by nature will be especially ineffective in cultures in which the people are collectivistic in their thinking and behaving.

House (1995, p. 442) described the character of the dominant leadership theories that have originated in the United States as:

- Individualistic rather than collectivistic; emphasizing assumptions of rationality rather than ascetics, religion or superstition; stated in terms of individual rather than group incentives, stressing follower responsibilities rather than rights;
- assuming hedonistic rather than altruistic motivation and assuming centrality of work and democratic value orientation.”

Leadership plays a critical role in organizations; it is frequently the major driver of the success and a key element in the failure of a company (Bass, 1990). Leadership with the additional complexities that globalization and international leadership adds becomes an important aspect to the survival of a company.

Global Mindset

The acceleration of change on a global scale is resulting in transformation of businesses at all levels. Businesses need leadership that can view and interpret situations from a broad and diversified vantage point. In business a mindset is the filter through
which the world is viewed. A mindset guides the manner of thinking and thus drives decision making (Brake, Walker, & Walker, 1995). A traditional mindset functioned well when considerations were domestic, but with changing times and globalization a leaders needs the mental acuity and flexible characteristic of a global mindset.

At the core of global mindset are three types of capital, (a) intellectual, (b) psychological, and (c) social (Thunderbird, 2007).

Intellectual capital encompasses knowledge and understanding of global business, competitors, customers, supply chain partners, and global political systems. It is intellectual capital that affords the mental capacity and knowledge to manage the complexities of international business. A global leader must possess the mental capacity to see many different perspectives and viewpoints at once, discern what is significant, and decode the essence of a situation. Contradictory, competing and/or complementary interpretations of occurrences may exist. Ambiguity and paradox may be frequently present situations that the global leader must confront. A keen sense of intuition, highly developed common sense, and strong learning agility provide the type of cognitive prowess required of a global leader (Beechler & Baltzley, 2008). Mansour Javidan, the President and Chairman of the Board of GLOBE reinforced the importance of intellectual capital in international leadership with this simple statement “The global world of business is more complex than the national world of business” (Thunderbird, 2007). The cognitive process of an international leader is fundamentally different than that of a domestic leader (Beechler & Baltzley, 2008).

Psychological capital incorporates attributes such as, openness, flexibility, and respect for an understanding of and a willingness to work with people of other cultures.
Social capital involves the ability to build relationships with people that are
different from themselves. Trust is a key element in building sustainable relationships
and sustainable relationships are a cornerstone of any business.

Traditional versus global mindset comparisons reflect the differences between the
two and demonstrate the basis of the effectiveness and necessity of a global mindset in
international leadership. Table 4 provides a comparison of some differences between
domestic and global mindsets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4</th>
<th>Comparison of Domestic and Global Mindsets</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Mindset</td>
<td>Global Mindset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional expertise</td>
<td>Bigger, broader picture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prioritization</td>
<td>Balance of Contradictions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>Process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual responsibility</td>
<td>Teamwork and diversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No surprises</td>
<td>Change as opportunity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trained against surprises</td>
<td>Openness to surprises</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Global mindset is a change from traditional thought process to a broader, more
highly complex cognitive process that enables an international leader to more readily
make the assimilations and adaptations necessary to effectively lead in cross-cultural
situations.

Interaction Between Culture, Values, Leadership
Style, and Global Mindset

National culture affects the behavior of individual leaders and subordinates as
they interact one with another. National culture also influences how employees perceive
their leaders—especially the extent to which the employee differentiates between
different leadership characteristics, behaviors and expectations (Adsit, London, Crom, and Jones; 1997; Ardichvili & Kuchinke, 2002; House & Aditya, 1997; House, Wright, & Aditya, 1997). The individual’s implicit ethnocentric values, beliefs, and assumptions play a strong role in the performance of a leader (Cassidy, 2003).

Culture and values’ role and effects of the interaction on a business’s activity, resonates in this quote from Harris & Moran,

“Culture is a distinctly human capacity for adapting to circumstances and transmitting this coping skill and knowledge to subsequent generations. Culture gives people a sense of who they are, of belonging, of how they should behave, and of what they should be doing. Culture impacts behavior, morale, and productivity at work as well, and includes values and patterns that influence company attitudes and actions” (2000, p. 4).

Using culture and values as a guide to behavior, as a cast for practices that become traditions, and matrix for social expectations; a society’s cultural understanding takes form.

At the intersection of culture, values, and leadership style there are many questions about the transferability of leader behaviors and followers’ perception of effective leadership. Although opposing viewpoints exist in the leadership literature concerning the transferability of specific leader behaviors and processes across cultures the studies of Dorfman & Howell (1997) offer a framework that may unite the opposing viewpoints. Their studies supported that there were three leader behaviors which possessed universality (supportive, contingent reward, and charismatic) while the other three were culturally specific (directive, participative, and contingent punishment).
Many international leadership researchers (Hoecklin, 1995; Hofstede, 2001; House, et al., 1999; Parhizgar, 2002; Porter, 1990; Rhinesmith, 1993; & Walker, 2003) agree that effective leadership processes should reflect the culture in which the processes are occurring. Focusing on the national culture and the resulting behaviors enables leaders to create effective strategies to create situations that will produce mutually agreeable and beneficial results (Parhizgar, 2002).

Integrating a variety of values, mechanisms, and processes allows a company to successfully manage differences in culture which can lead to innovative business practices, faster and better learning within the organization, and sustainable sources of competitive advantage in a constantly changing global marketplace (Hoecklin, 1995; Rhinesmith, 1993). The on-going work of the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Project (GLOBE) is expanding the current understanding of the interrelationships between culture and leadership. GLOBE is a multi-phase, multi-method project which was conceived in 1991, funded and implemented in 1993, and continues to conduct cross-cultural leadership studies. As of 2004 GLOBE had interviewed over 17,000 managers in 951 organizations in 62 societies throughout the world.

One of the GLOBE project’s central questions focuses upon the extent to which specific leader attributes and behaviors are universally endorsed, how these attributes contribute to effective leadership, and to what extent these attributes and behaviors are linked to culture. Their findings support the “cultures can be differentiated on the basis of leader behaviors and attributes that their members endorse” (House, et al., 1999, p. 9).
Globalization can be generally defined as “worldwide processes that make the world, its economic system, and its society more uniform, more integrated, and more interdependent” (Stutz & Warf, 2005, p.13). Globalization permeates all sectors of business. Agriculture, manufacturing, service, technology, and marketing businesses have all created multinational organizations designed to compete in a global arena. The global economy is sensitive to the economic challenges, downturns, and upswings in any country and the stock markets are interdependent upon their performance (Allen, Bordas, Hickman, Matusak, Sorenson, & Whitmore, 1998).

“To continue to compete successfully in the global economy and to maintain its role as a world leader, the United States needs to ensure that its citizens develop a broad understanding of the world, proficiency in other languages, and knowledge of other cultures” (Clinton, 2000).

Bhawak and Brislin (1992) view sentiments very similar to Clinton’s; however they widen the audience and deepen the behavioral and emotional perspectives. They suggest that “to be effective in another culture, people must be interested in other cultures, be sensitive enough to notice cultural differences, and then also be prepared to modify their behavior as an indication of respect for the people of other cultures” (p. 416). Bhawuk and Brislin use the term intercultural sensitivity to describe the ability to discriminate and experience relevant cultural differences. They use the term intercultural competence to describe the ability to think and act with intercultural suitable conduct.
Competencies needed by the globally mobile leader include a wide array of problem-defining and problem-solving skills that transcend continental, cultural, and linguistic boundaries (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1994; Hudzik, n.d.; Hunter, 2004). Cross-cultural, cross-functional, and multilingual knowledge and fluency are among the most highly valued assets sought by employers. (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1994; Bartlett, Ghoshal, & Beamish, 2006; Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall, & Stroh, 1999; O’Hara-Deveraux & Johnasen, 1994; Rhinesmith, 1993; Shay & Tracey, 1997; Treverton & Bikson, 2003).

Success in the fiercely competitive global marketplace will depend upon the ability of transnational leaders to assume high functioning roles as global citizens (Cendant Mobility, 2002; Deardorff, 2004; Levine, 2005; Peterson, 2001, 2003; Riley, 2003). According to a RAND report entitled Global Preparedness and Human Resources (Bikson & Law, 1994) the need is great for a corporate global strategy that supports the increased need to understand representatives of other cultures and thus facilitates successful interactions in cross-cultural situations. The concerns of many executives are summed up by a statement made by Jack Reichert, past CEO of Brunswick Corporation “We just don’t have enough people with the needed global leadership capabilities” (Gregersen, Morrison, & Black, 1998, p. 22).

A more recent RAND report entitled New Challenges for International Leadership: Lessons from Organizations with Global Missions (Bikson, Treverton, Moini & Lindstrom, 2003, p. xi) presents the topic with a stronger sense of priority, “No issue is more critical for America’s role in the world than its capacity to develop among its people the intellectual and professional expertise that will be required for leadership in
international affairs”. The bench strength of intercultural competence within American businesses is weak and problematic (Kealey, 1996).

Intercultural sensitivity can be exercised by either the individual or a corporate entity. In the corporate environment, to be considered intercultural competent, there must be a sufficient number of individuals that exhibit intercultural competency and another key element must be present—there must be a corporate culture that promotes and rewards intercultural competency (Olson & Kroeger, 2001). Hammer, Bennett, and Wiseman (2003) strongly support the idea that the greater an individual’s or corporate entity’s intercultural sensitivity the greater the potential is for the implementation of intercultural competence. Bhawuk and Brislin (1992) and Littrel (2002) go so far as to suggest that intercultural sensitivity is a predictor of success in intercultural contexts.

A 2002 survey revealed that global competency is critical to the success of members of an international workforce. Personal global competency is described as one who has knowledge of current events, can empathize with others, demonstrates approval and maintains a positive attitude, and has an unspecified level of foreign language competence and task performance with the ability to understand the value of something foreign (Hunter, 2004).

Despite slight differences in these approaches to global competency or intercultural competency there is substantial overlap among their contents. These are the skills that will enable an effective domestic leader to transfer their leadership role to the international arena successfully.
The Wine Industry

The wine industry, from a historical, economical, environmental, and global perspective provides an exemplary focus of an agriculturally-based industry facing the issues of globalization. The wine industry holds a time revered place in agribusiness and as such is included in the comments of Gianluigi Zenti, the 2006-2007 president of the International Food and Agribusiness Management Association:

“The traditions of food and drink are as ancient as humankind, and by sharing these customs, people in all the world’s countries share not only the pleasures of gastronomy but a bond created through sharing culture. To appreciate food culture is to take in and appreciate the wealth of values expressed by a specific civilization. When we celebrate food culture, we share, reaffirm, and celebrate a set of values that mean much more than the construction of a wise diet. It is a celebration of human creativity, the achievements of superior skills… Food culture is a sophisticate multi-sensorial enriching experience: it is truly for our body and our mind’”(Zenti, 2007).

Historical Perspective

Historically the European wine vine, Vitis vinifera, is believed to have first appeared in an area that is recognized as Georgia and Armenia. Georgian archeologists believe findings of cultivated grape pips (seeds) can be accurately dated back to 7000-8000 BC. Winemaking had already reached a highly developed level of advancement in Egypt by about 3000 BC. Even at that early stage, the Egyptians had connoisseurs that made distinctions between different qualities—much like current practices (Clarke &
Rand, 2001; McGovern, 2003; Beardsall, 2002). The roots of the wine industry are well-aged.

Considering the lengthy history of Old World wines it has not been until fairly recently that domestic wines have gained respect within the industry. It was considered unsophisticated to serve a California wine as recently as the mid 1960’s. Wines from Europe, especially France were perceived to be far superior to any domestically produced wine. California is thought of as the United States’ megaregion (DeBord, 2005). Washington and Oregon follow closely with Virginia, Texas, and New York gaining respect as valued producers within the industry.

**Economic Perspective**

Economically, wine has been an outstanding leading economic indicator in most cultures in which it is prevalent. Since the late 1980’s the international wine trade has increased 200% (Anderson, Norman, & Wittwer, 2004). In 2006, grapes were the sixth-largest crop in America (Frank, 2006).

The wine trade vacillates between small family-owned or boutique wineries and big business conglomerates with global reach and substantial marketing budgets (Pellechia, 2006; Schwing, 2007). Tom Shelton (2005), former president and CEO of Joseph Phelps Vineyards, contends that the frequent consolidations occurring in the wine industry give cause for concern with regard to the “future viability of independent producers”. Strategic partnerships and alliances are required for the independents to maintain their positions.

In the ten-year period between 1994 and 2004 retail wine sales increased by approximately 57%. With the average wine price of slightly over $8.25 per bottle, the
retail sales figures in the United States for 2004 is the equivalent of $27 billion dollars (Pellechia, 2006).

The global economic downturn has affected the United States wine industry as well as most international producers. The country that has experienced the most negative impact of the economic downturn is Australia. Argentina is one of the few regions that is experiencing continued increases. Their success supports that there are opportunities even in the current market environment (Frank, 2009).

Environmental Perspective

Environmental conditions play critical roles in agriculturally-based industry. A review of a map of the world with wine growing areas identified readily reveals a latitude phenomenon. The production of wine grapes occurs mainly between 32 degrees and 51 degrees north, and 28 degrees and 44 degrees south. The effect of latitude on the flavor of wine is enormous and involves much more than just temperature (Clarke & Rand, 2001; Johnson & Halliday, 1992; MacNeil, 2001; Zraly, 2008 ).

A growing environmental challenge within the wine industry is to maintain and raise the bar on environmentally responsible practices across multinational vineyards and wineries (Clarke & Rand, 2001). Organic and sustainable practices are being instigated with a renewed interest in stewardship of the land. Many companies are working on organic or environmental certifications. Parducci Winery in Ukiah, CA was the first winery to receive a carbon neutral certification (Penn, 2007).

Global climate change was increased environmental conversations in the wine industry along with many other agriculturally-based industries. Director of Public Relations for Opus One, Roger Asleson (2008) stated the concerns regarding global
climate change and its consequences for the wine industry eloquently, “Climate change presents so many vulnerabilities for an agriculture-based business, and they are magnified when you’re producing a luxury product that depends on agriculture.”

Another environmental issue affecting the wine industry along with agriculturally-based industries as a whole is the growing concern about the worldwide scarcity of water (California Sustainable Winegrowing Alliance, 2009).

Global Perspective

Globally, grape vines cover only .5% of the world’s cropland and only one-third of that area produces wine grapes (Anderson, Norman, & Wittwer, 2004). Despite this diminutive land mass, the wine industry continues to grow with some markets ebbing and some surging. In the international market the best prospect for expansive growth is China. In 2004 the bottled wine exports to China increased by an impressive 54%. In 2005 China reduced its import wine tariffs from 43% of value to 14%. These changes in consumer behaviors and governmental regulations are setting the stage for business opportunity in China. Japan is considered to be a market in which imported wines will continue to dominate due to the exceedingly high price of croplands. Asia is an attractive emerging market with over 1 billion potential consumers (Workman, 2008).

Historically, economically, environmentally, and globally the wine industry exemplifies agriculturally-based industry and was a good fit for addressing the research questions because globalization and its inherent issues require leaders to develop enhanced leadership competencies and a heightened sense of global awareness for sustainable success.
Theoretical Frame

The literature strongly supports the importance of culture and cultural sensitivity with regard to leadership. The literature also supports that not all leadership qualities are universal and many leadership behaviors are misunderstood or problematic. After examining numerous leadership theories, I determined that the most appropriate theoretical backbone for this study was the Culturally Endorsed Leadership Theory (House, et.al., 2004; House, Wright, Aditya, 1997). The Culturally Endorsed Leadership Theory (CLT) provides a linkage between national cultural, organizational culture, and leadership. One of the primary assertions of the CLT is the premise that leadership qualities are not universal, but there are prototypical leadership behaviors that are specific to certain cultures.

The CLT is an integration of four theories, the implicit leadership theory (Lord & Maher, 1991); the value/belief theory on culture (Hofstede, 2001); the implicit motivation theory (McLelland, 1985); and the structural contingency theory of organizations (Donaldson, 1995; Hickson, Hinings, McMillan, & Schwitter, 1974). The integration of the four theories resulted in the establishment of twelve propositions which provide the foundational basis for the CLT. The twelve propositions are:

1) Societal cultural values and practices affect what leaders do.
2) Leadership affects organizational form, culture, and practices.
3) Societal cultural values and practices also affect organizational culture and practices.
4) Organizational culture and practices also affect what leaders do.
5) Societal culture and organizational form, culture, and practices both influence the process by which people come to share implicit theories of leadership.

6) Strategic organizational contingencies affect organizational form, culture and practices, and leader behaviors.

7) Strategic organizational contingencies affect leaders’ attributes and behaviors.

8) Relationships between strategic organizational contingencies and organizational form, culture and practices will be moderated by cultural forces.

9) Leader acceptance is a function of the interaction between CLTs and leader attributes and behaviors.

10) Leader effectiveness is a function of the interaction between leader attributes and behaviors and organizational contingencies.

11) Leader acceptance influences leader effectiveness.

12) Leader effectiveness influences leader acceptance.

Based upon these propositions stated as the central theoretical propositions of the CLT, the attributes and practices that serve to differentiate one culture from another, as well as the strategies demands of the organization, function as predictors of leader attributes and behaviors as well as organizational practices are the most frequently perceived as acceptable and are most frequently enacted and are the most effective (House, et al., 2004).
To better understand each of the four theories used to create the CLT, the following is a brief overview of the four instrumental theories.

*Implicit leadership theory*

Implicit Leadership Theory suggests that individuals hold implicit beliefs about the characteristics and behaviors of effective leaders (Lord & Maher, 1991). The better the person matches a leader prototype stored in followers’ minds, the more likely that person will be perceived as an effective leader. An implication for perspective leaders is that they must create a fit between their own behaviors and characteristics and schemas of prototypical leaders held by the followers. The better the perceived fit, the more likely the leader will be considered an effective leader (Foti & Loch, 1992; Offerman, L., Kennedy, J., & Wirtz, P, 1994).

There are two major assertions of the implicit leadership theory. The first asserts that the degree of fit or congruence between leader and follower is the basis for acceptance of the leader. The second assertion states that the implicit leadership theories constrain, moderate, and guide the practice of leadership, the acceptance of leaders, the followers perception of the leaders’ ability to influence and perform effectively, and the level of privilege and status that leaders are granted (Hanges, Braverman, & Rentsch, 1991; & Lord & Maher, 1991).

*Value/Belief theory*

Culture serves as a group’s mental map to interpret and understand the world around it (Hofstede, 2001). Value/Belief Theory asserts that the values and beliefs held by members of collectives influence the behavior of individuals and the degree to which selected behaviors are viewed as legitimate, acceptable, and effective (Hofstede, 1980;
Triandis, 1995). Hofstede’s version of the value/belief theory also includes the dimensions of culture (see earlier discussion this chapter, p. 18). GLOBE included an additional three dimensions: Humanistic, Performance, and Future Orientation. They also substituted two dimensions in the stead of Hofstede’s single Masculinity dimension. Added were the dimensions of Gender Egalitarianism and Assertiveness. These comprise the nine dimensions upon which GLOBE theorists build the Value/Belief theory.

Implicit motivation theory

Implicit motivation theory (McClelland, 1985) asserts that the essential nature of human motivation can be understood in terms of three implicit or non-conscious motives: achievement, affiliation and power. Table 5 provides a description of the three implicit motives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implicit Motive</th>
<th>Identifying Characteristic</th>
<th>Identifying Actions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Desire for personal accomplishment</td>
<td>Seek challenging or competitive situations; establishes realistic and achievable goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>Need to belong to a group or seeks the company of others</td>
<td>Demonstrates concern for establishing, maintaining, or restoring a positive emotional relationship with another person; relationship is described as “friendship”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>Need to possess social influence</td>
<td>Seeks to influence; seeks to affect and guide people to think a certain way</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This theory provides a leader with a tool to better understand the employees’ motivational needs. A leader with an ability to recognize and understand the psychological needs of their employees’ will be more likely to obtain high-quality, consistent performance from their employees (McClelland).
*Structural contingency theory of organizations*

The central proposition of this theory is the organizations have a set of demands or requirements that must be met if the organization is to remain solvent and effective. These demands are called organizational contingencies. The contingencies affect the manner in which the organization conducts its processes (Donaldson, 1995). The four contingencies are strategy, size, technology, and environment.

The integration of Implicit Leadership Theory, Value/Belief Theory, Implicit Motivation Theory, and Structural Contingency Theory of Organizations produced a theory that assisted in the examination of cross-cultural leadership issues from a more culturally sensitive perspective.

**Summary of Literature Review**

Advances in technology and transportation have moved the world of business from a local, domestic activity to a global enterprise (Hunter, 2004; Lodge, 1995; Parhizgar, 2002; Peterson, 2001). To remain competitive, businesses have had to forge new frontiers on a global scale (Lodge, 1995). The process of globalization has presented leaders with many unfamiliar challenges. Traditional ways of doing business are no longer applicable (Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall & Stroh, 1999; House & Podsakoff, 1994; Rhinesmith, 1993).

Cultural differences, with the accompanying differing values and belief systems (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 1992) have necessitated a new type of leader -- a leader that is capable of navigating the uncharted waters on the high seas of globalization (Dorfman & Howell, 1997; & Walker, 2003). Cultural self-awareness provides a foundation for the development of intercultural sensitivity and intercultural competence and is essential for

The international leader’s cultural identity is in a tenuous position, leaving her vulnerable to failure unless she adjusts to multiple perspectives and frames of reference, and achieves cultural marginality (Bennett, 1993b). Ethnocentricity and ethnocentric behaviors can become detrimental to the success of an international leader and to a company, thus resulting in ineffective international assignments or premature return from international assignments (Aycan, 1997; Ayman, 1993; Bennett, 1993a; Chang, 2007; Dorfman & Howell, 1997; Harris & Moran, 1987; Hofstede, 1991; Lucas & Chambers, 2003; Overman, 1989; Rhinesmith, 1993; Tomlinson, 1999 & Triandis, 1994; Walker, 2003).

Many studies have been conducted seeking the universality of leadership styles and character; and although several characteristics have been identified and deemed universal (Dorfman & Howell, 1997; House, et al. 1999) there still remains many questions with regard to successful intercultural leadership styles and behaviors. For many years the focus was singularly on the leader but more recent studies have taken a more holistic view and have incorporated the relationship between leader and follower into the search for answers (Bartlett, Ghoshal, & Beamish, 2006; Beechler & Baltzley, 2008; Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall, & Stroh, 1999; Brake, Walker, & Walker, 1995; House & Javidan, 2004; Rhinesmith, 1993; Shay & Tracey, 1997; Thunderbird, 2007; Treverton & Bikson, 2003).
With changing times comes a need for a fundamental change in the way we think about business. The global mindset is respondent to the need for redirected cognitive processes in business. Globalization has made it imperative that leaders who possess the global mindset are developed and available to lead in a work environment that requires global leadership capabilities (Beechler & Baltzley, 2008; Brake, Walker, & Walker, 1995; & Levy, et al., 2007)

Embedded in the intersection of culture, values, leadership style, and leadership theory the study sought insights into intercultural sensitivity, global competence, effective global mindset, globalization, and the successful globally mobile leader.

Cross-cultural leadership literature has increased substantially (House & Javidan, 2004); however, there still remain many unanswered questions. The many researchers involved in the GLOBE project suggest that “far more answered questions than answers exist regarding the culturally contingent aspects of leadership” (2004, pp.10-11). These questions will persist until sufficient attention is focused upon the issues of international leadership that transcend ethnocentricity and borders.

A brief overview of the wine industry provides a background of the business from a historical, economic, environmental, and global perspective. The wine industry is globalizing and facing many of the same issues that are felt in industry of similar and differing nature. Leaders in the wine industry must be prepared to deal with strategic business issues as well as the complexities brought about by globalization.

A theoretical frame is provided to facilitate the understandings discussed in Chapter Four. The Culturally Endorsed Leadership Theory is an overarching theory that represents the basic assumptions and tenets of transactional and transformational
leadership (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Chemers, 1997; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Graen & Cashman, 1975). Bass (1985) emphasizes that transformational leadership is an expansion of transactional leadership, it does not replace transactional.

Culturally Endorsed Leadership Theory is a full range leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2002) theory and provides a good fit as a theoretical frame for the study. The gap in the literature is empirical evidence focusing on culture, values, leadership style, global mindset and the role this variables play in an individual’s ability to be an effective international leader. This study provides additional insight based on sound research to add to cross-cultural leadership literature.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the epistemology that guided the study, rationale for the method selected, participants, research design and procedures, participant selection, instrumentation, validity and reliability, and data collection and analyses.

Epistemology

The epistemological stance that guided this study is constructionism and the theoretical perspective is interpretivism. This study is grounded in a social constructivist perspective in which knowledge is seen to be “collectively generated and transmitted by society” (Crotty, 1998; Otto & Gunzenhauzer, 2003). The social realities of a selected group of participants were explored in this study. Participants were provided the opportunity to tell their stories, which were borne out of their interactions and interpretations of the events and relationships that constitute their lives. These are their collective stories—the views and accounts of leadership roles from the participants’ vantage point. Social constructivism emphasizes the role culture plays in the way we perceive the world and is the basis of our world view (Crotty, 1998). This epistemological perspective is a good fit for a study whose focus is on the role culture plays in professional interactions.

Rationale for Methods Selected

This study adopted a case study design (Yin, 2002). Case study allows the researcher to see multiple meanings and realities of the human experience. This approach helps “extend horizons of insight and create new possibilities” (Morgan, 1997, p. 351). To make the most of the organizational and leadership stories collected in a qualitative
approach, it is critical that “people actually listen and seek to unearth their meaning. . .
When people listen to stories, they rarely question what the narratives convey about the
person, the organization, or the culture from which the story is derived—all of which can
provide rich insights into how and why leadership is exercised” (Quong, Walker &
Bodycott, 1999, p. 441). The depth of information collected, in the voices of those
actively participating in the workplace, is greater than if the researcher were to frame
responses quantitatively.

Case studies have been described as the “preferred strategy when how or why
questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when
the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real life context.” (Yin, 2002,
p.1)

The information gathered during the interview process stretches across a wide
range of affective, cognitive, physiological, and motivational elements. The exclusive use
of a traditional quantitative survey method would have missed the complexities and
richness of the real-life experiences. The qualitative case study approach allows the
complexities of a social entity such as an organization to be understood as a whole—not
as isolated quantitative relationships (Anderson, Crabtree, Steele, & McDaniel, 2005;
Yin, 2002). The experience of international leadership is complex with a wide array of
factors influencing the outcomes. The flexibility and context-sensitive aspects of case
study were put to service in this study. The findings of this case study are presented in a
thick, rich descriptive format, providing insight into the uniqueness, nuances, and depth
of the experiences of cross-cultural leaders.
Case studies allow the researcher to study phenomena as they exist in the natural setting. This case study provided a greater understanding of the selected industry, setting and the multitude of interdependent complexities that affect the participants and their experiences.

During the course of this research study I looked for new “paths of discovery to emerge” (Patton, 2002, p. 40). Consistent with the constructionist epistemology that grounded this research study, as Crotty noted (1998) “At best, outcomes will be suggestive, rather than conclusive” (p.13) which describes the intent and results of this case study.

Eisner’s Considerations for Judging the Merit of Qualitative Studies

Eisner (1991) presented the following six features of qualitative research:

1. Field focused
2. Researcher is an instrument
3. Interpretive in nature
4. Use of expressive language and presence of voice in the text
5. Highly detailed
6. Believable because of its coherence, insight, and instrumental utility

I sought to frame this study around the six Eisner features. The study was field focused as I identified participants that had first-hand international leadership experiences, interviewed them in their natural setting, without manipulation.

As the researcher, I became an instrument of the study. I was cautious to use my semi-structured interview protocol to guide the interviews but not as a rigid imposing structure. This approach enabled the participants to relate their experiences in their own voices. Using the stories of the participants I followed Eisner’s (1991, pp. 33-4) directive to “see what was to be seen, given some frame of reference and some set of intentions.”
The self is the instrument that engages the situation and makes sense of it”. I became an instrument of the study.

Due to the interpretive nature of qualitative research, it was also my responsibility to provide meaning to the stories of my participants. I did not merely relate the stories, I provided synthesis and interpretation based upon the evidence provided in the quantitative instruments and the interview text from all study participants. I did heed Eisner’s caution with regard to interpretive license. He admonishes the researcher that “appreciation for personal insight as a source of meaning does not provide a license for freedom” (Eisner, p. 35).

Qualitative research seeks to provide greater understanding through expressive and descriptive language. The distant and mechanical voice of quantitative research gives way to a more personal approach in which first person language is desirable. Eisner (1991, p. 37) poses a question that is demonstrative of the qualitative approach, “Why take the heart out of the situations we are trying to help readers understand?” Eisner encourages the use of metaphor, an artistic, even poetic approach—and I have tried to present this research study with great heart.

Eisner’s fifth feature of qualitative research stresses the detail orientation of this method of research. Qualitative research provides opportunity to explore the uniqueness of characteristics and the distinctiveness of situations. This feature of qualitative study is like using a microscope and a set of binoculars in the same instant. Qualitative study allows the researcher to examine the very specific while never losing sight of the big picture.
And Eisner’s last feature speaks to the criteria by which the entire study will be evaluated. In quantitative research the validity and reliability of the study are the measuring sticks of viability. Statistical data supports causal agents or correlations in quantitative studies. In qualitative research, Eisner suggests that the study is deemed believable or plausible based upon the “coherence, insight, and instrumental utility” (1991, p. 39). The findings in this study are presented in a coherent manner with cautious insight to serve as a resource of greater in-depth understanding of the interaction of culture, values, leadership style, and global mindset in cross-cultural leaders in the wine industry. Eisner explains that instrumental utility occurs in two forms, (1) usefulness of comprehension, and (2) usefulness of anticipation. Usefulness of comprehension provides understanding of a situation that has previously been unclear. Usefulness of anticipation provides help or guidance for future interactions with the subject of the study. The findings and recommendations provided by this study respond to both types of instrumental utility—comprehension and anticipation.

Research Design and Procedures

The study followed a mixed-method design. Information was collected using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The collected data were analyzed to investigate the interaction between culture, values, leadership style, and global mindset. Conclusions were drawn from survey as well as long interview data.

Quantitative Design and Procedures

After participant selection had been made, two quantitative instruments were administered to each participant. The first instrument was used to determine the personal leadership style of the participant. The second instrument was used to determine the
cross-cultural adaptability of the participant. A detailed description of each instrument is provided in the Instrumentation section of this chapter.

The instruments were mailed to each participant with specific instructions with regard to completion of the questionnaires. I instructed the participants to leave the packet intact and I would score the surveys when they were returned to me via mail in pre-addressed, postage paid envelope. When the completed instruments were returned, I manually scored each one according to the instruction manual supplied with the instruments (Avolio & Bass, 2002 & Kelley & Meyers, 1995), systematically recorded their scores in an Excel spreadsheet. Feedback regarding each participant’s survey scores was forwarded to the participants at the conclusion of the study.

Qualitative Design and Procedures

The primary technique of data collection was the long interview conducted with each participant. Qualitative interviews with the participants were conducted to seek a detailed description of their experiences. The interviews were conducted using a semi-structured interview process (Merriam 1998). Open-ended questions were used to guide the interviews. The design of the interview questions was based on the literature reviewed and the underlying conceptual framework for the study. The questions were designed to elicit information regarding the relationship between culture, values, beliefs, leadership style, and global mindset that the participants have experienced during their international leadership assignments. The questions focused upon how the leaders viewed themselves in their roles, philosophies, and practices in relationship to cultural issues and leadership style.
By using a semi-structured interview format an authentic understanding of the leaders’ and their followers’ attitudes and experiences was gained, including how they perceived the impact of their leadership style on their followers. The interactive nature of the interviews allowed flexibility for the structure to adapt during an individual interview and throughout the study. The developed interview protocol (Appendix C) was used as a guide, but was not so strictly adhered to that it would have a limiting effect on the flow of the interview.

The structure of the interviews allowed the leaders to reflect at length on the issues that influenced the relationship between culture, values, beliefs, leadership style, and global mindset in their personal experiences.

The interviews were conducted over the telephone and were captured with the assistance of a digital voice recorder. The recordings of the interview were transcribed into a text file. In text format the data collected was more accessible for analysis, making it easier for the interview to be reviewed multiple times to assure that the essence of the responses was accurately captured and categorized, also allowing for immersion in the data.

The qualitative approach used in the study provided “opportunity to discover themes, threads, patterns, and relationships to add holistically to the foundation knowledge” (Merriam, 1998, p. 7) in relation to the participants’ perspectives on international leadership.

**Participant Selection**

The participants in this study were individuals that are employed in the wine industry and have had international assignments that included leadership responsibilities.
This population was selected as an exemplar of agriculturally-based business. The wine industry provided an opportunity in which to consider the interaction of culture, values, leadership style, and global mindset.

The sample selection was based upon a purposeful and criterion-based selection process (Patton, 2002) I sought individuals who had a wide variety of heterogeneous experiences as leaders who worked internationally. I used a variety of industry-specific sources to identify perspective interviewees. The identification of key individuals within the wine industry relied heavily upon industry-specific literature. Wine Spectator and the People on the Move section of http://winebusiness.com were used extensively.

From these sources I constructed a wide-ranging spreadsheet of potential candidates. The internet was used extensively to acquire contact information and professional biographical information for the potential candidates. I called each person on the potential candidate spreadsheet and conducted a conversation to screen individuals and distill the list to individuals that fit the criteria necessary to qualify to participate. The criteria used to evaluate and identify qualified candidates were:

- Current employment in a leadership capacity within the wine industry
- Participation in an international assignment that included leadership responsibilities
- Number of international assignments and duration of assignments were also considered

During this process I also used a snowball or chain technique (Gay & Airasian, 2000) requesting personal recommendations of individuals involved in the industry that based on the criteria would make good potential participants. Through this process I
identified and recruited eight participants, with a list of several other individuals that were willing to participate if needed. After interviewing the seventh and eighth interview did not produce any new information. According to Lincoln & Guba (1985) the purposeful sampling selection had reached a “point of redundancy…and redundancy (was) the primary criterion” (p. 202) for the sample selection size.

After the preliminary contact was made and it was determined that a viable participant had been recruited, a packet containing a copy of the approved Institutional Review Board Application (Appendix A), two copies of the Letter of Informed Consent (Appendix B), and both qualitative instruments were mailed to each of the participants. The Letter of Consent was a thorough, formal indication of the purpose and goals of the study. The letter also provided an explanation of expected length of the interview and anticipated timeframe for completion of the two qualitative instruments, and procedures to provide the participant with protection from any ill effects as a result of participating in the research study. One important item addressed in the Letter of Consent involved the measures that would be taken to ensure the anonymity of the participant. A key measure taken to ensure confidentiality and anonymity of the participants was the assignment of pseudonyms. In the discussion of this study’s findings, pseudonyms are used to protect the identities of the participants. The gender remained consistent with the use of female names assigned to female participants.

An industry-recognized group called flying winemakers has been created by viticulturists and oenologists that are seeking to broaden and expand their experience by changing hemispheres during the off-season (Anderson, Norman, & Wittwer, 2004). One
of the participants fell into the category of flying winemaker. He commutes between California and Spain to capture harvest and crush in the two different regions.

Instrumentation

The two instruments used in this research study were selected on the basis of extensive reading and searching for instruments that would best match the purpose of this research study. Avolio and Bass’s (2002) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQx5) and Kelley and Meyers’ (1995) Cross-cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI) were the two instruments selected.

Leadership Style

Avolio and Bass’s (2002) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQx5) was used to assess the participants’ leadership style and behaviors. The questionnaire consists of forty-five items, each of which relate to one of the nine leadership factors assessed. Bessai (1995) and Kirnan (1995) both provide supportive comments in critiques of the MLQ.

The nine leadership factors assessed in the MLQx5 can be placed within three leadership constructs. These constructs are transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant leadership. The perspective provided by the integration of these constructs provides an expansive model of leadership which Bass and Avilio (1990) refer to as full range. Their intention was to broaden the range of leadership styles considered in the leadership field and to challenge the field of leadership to broaden their thinking and embrace the full range description of leadership style.

Table 6 illustrates the distribution of the nine factors assessed in the MLQx5 between the three constructs of leadership.
Table 6

*Distribution of Nine Factors between Leadership Constructs*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Construct</th>
<th>Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>Idealized influence (attributed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Idealized influence (behavior)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inspirational motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intellectual stimulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individualized consideration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>Contingent reward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management-by-exception (active)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management-by-exception (passive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive/Avoidant</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The factors attributed to the leadership construct of transformational leadership are characterized by Avolio and Bass (2002) as:

Idealized Influence is divided across two factors in the MLQx5, Idealized Attributes and Idealized Behaviors. Leaders that rank high in these categories are admired, respected, and trusted. They consider their followers’ needs over their own and share risks with followers. These leaders are driven by conduct that is consistent with underlying ethics, principles, and values.

Idealized Attributes (IA) – instills pride in others for their mutual association, goes beyond self-interest and focuses on the good of the group, manages personal conduct in such a manner that builds respect from others, and displays a sense of power and confidence.

Idealized Behaviors (IB) – discusses personal values and beliefs, stresses the importance of having a strong sense of purpose, considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions, and emphasizes the importance of a collective sense of mission.
Inspirational Motivation (IM) is exhibited in leaders that motivate those around them using meaning to the followers’ work and challenge in their tasks. Enthusiasm and optimism are openly displayed creating a sense of individual and team spirit. The IM leader articulates a positive future in which goals are achieved.

Intellectual Stimulation (IS) creates an environment in which innovation and creativity are solicited and encouraged innovation and creativity from the followers. Differing perspectives are sought for decision-making and problem-solving.

Individual Consideration (IC) is demonstrated by the leader taking on the role of coach or mentor to assist the follower to fulfill their individual need for achievement and growth. Recognition of the individual’s needs and desires promotes development to successively higher levels of potential accomplished in a supportive setting.

The factors in the MLQx5 attributed to transactional leadership are:

Contingent Reward (CR) this factor is exhibited with the clarification of expectations, goals, and objectives. Once the goals are achieved recognition is granted. Assistance from the leader is offered in exchange for follower effort. Clarity and specificity characterize this factor.

Management-by-Exception: Active (MBEA) is established by the specification of standards for compliance and detail of what constitutes unacceptable performance. Unacceptable performance may result in punitive
action. Close monitoring for deviance form compliance standards, with much effort expending upon tracking mistakes and failures.

MLQx5 factors that are attributed to the Passive/Avoidant leadership construct are:

Management-by-Exception: Passive (MBEP) is reactive in nature, and does not respond systematically to situations or problems. The failure to respond or offer involvement frequently results in situations escalating from minor to serious before leader takes any action.

Laissez-faire (LF) is characterized by avoidance of involvement and decision-making. This leader is frequently unavailable when needed.

The MLQx5 also measures the outcomes of leadership. There are three measurements in this category, the ability of the leader to elicit extra effort from the followers, the effectiveness of the leader at all levels of the organization, and the level of satisfaction is perceived of the leader’s overall leadership abilities.

Extra Effort (EE) is exhibited by the leaders’ ability to get others to do more than they expected to do, by creating a heightened desire among other to succeed, and by increasing the willingness to try harder.

Effectiveness (EFF) is demonstrated by an ability to meet others’ job-related needs, representing followers to higher levels of authority within the organization, and effectively meeting organizational requirements.

Satisfaction with the Leadership (SAT) speaks to an overall level of satisfaction with the methods, means, and implementation of leadership skills.
This description of the factors and constructs is to provide the reader a better understanding of the MLQx5 when assessing the results provided in Chapter Four.

Validity and Reliability. The estimates of Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient are above .80 in all but one scale (Management-by-exception: Active – MBEA) and its Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient is above .70. Three of the scales have a Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient in excess of .90 – this falls into the exceptional reliable status. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients for each of the nine factors are displayed in Table 7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7</th>
<th>Reliability for the Nine-Factor MLQ Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor</td>
<td>Cronbach’s Alpha Reliability Coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealized influence (attributed)</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealized influence (behavior)</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational motivation</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual stimulation</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualized consideration</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingent reward</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management-by-exception (active)</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management-by-exception (passive)</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laissez-faire leadership</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The MLQx5 with its nine factor attributes distributed between three leadership constructs addressed many of the aspects of leadership that were of particular concern to this research study. The internal reliability ranged from satisfactory to exceptional. This
assessment tool provided useful information in the identification of the participants’ leadership style.

Cross-cultural adaptability

To discern the participants’ worldview orientation toward cultural differences and their potential for cross-cultural effectiveness, Kelley and Meyers’ (1995) Cross-cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI) was administered. The CCAI was designed to provide insight into the understanding of the factors and qualities that aid and facilitate cross-cultural effectiveness. The fifty items in the inventory are distributed across four scales. These scales or skill areas are key components of cross-cultural adaptability. The scales are emotional resilience (ER), flexibility/openness (FO), perceptual acuity (PAC), and personal autonomy (PA). Kelley and Meyers (1995) provide a description of each of the scales.

The emotional resilience (ER) scale provides information with regard to aspects that may produce negative and unpleasant feelings. Frustration, confusion, and loneliness are emotions that are often felt when interacting with people from other cultures. An emotionally resilient person is able to cope with stressful feelings in a constructive way, they like new experiences and have confidence in their ability to deal with ambiguity. A risk-taker that is not overly concerned with making mistakes, strong sense of humor and positive self-regard and attitude characterize the emotional resilient individual. The ER scale measures the extent to which a person can regulate their emotions, maintain emotional equilibrium in a new and/or changing environment, and deal with setbacks which are a normal part of the cross-cultural experience.
The Flexibility/Openness (FO) scale seeks to measure the extent to which a person enjoys the different ways of thinking and behaving that an individual involved in a cross-cultural experience typically encounters. Descriptors of highly flexible/open individuals include tolerant, nonjudgmental, inquisitive, and creative thinkers. A key word when considering FO in a cross-cultural context is difference. The individual having a cross-cultural experience is confronted with difference frequently. A flexible/open person is a bridge builder—someone that approaches, appreciates, and forms bonds with people from other cultures.

The Perceptual Acuity (PAC) scale provides a quantitative assessment on the extent to which a person pays attention to and accurately perceives various aspects of the environment. Verbal and non-verbal cues become especially important in a situation in which language is a barrier. Without PAC, cross-cultural communication is an easy mark for misinterpretation and distortion of message. PAC individuals tend to be very strong and accurate communicators, empathic, possess strong attention to visual detail, sensitive to subtlety and nuance, and are able to interpret cues in the context of the culture.

The primary focus of the PA scale is the extent of confidence in which an individual holds in their personal system of values and beliefs when in an unfamiliar setting. This scale also provides measurement for the extent to which the individual respects others and their value systems.

Reliability of the CCAI. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient of three of the four scales were .80 or above, placing them in the “quite good” range. The fourth scale, PA was slightly below the satisfactory range, however; the total Cronbach’s alpha reliability
coefficient statistic is .90 (Kelley & Meyers, 2002). The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients for the four scales are displayed in Table 8.

Table 8  
*Reliability for Cross-cultural Adaptability Inventory*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha Reliability Coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Resilience (ER)</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility/Openness (FO)</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptual Acuity (PAC)</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Autonomy (PA)</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The four scales of the CCAI addressed many of the aspects of leadership that were of particular concern to this research study. This assessment tool provided useful information in the identification of the cross-cultural adaptability and propensity for success in a cross-cultural situation.

**Validity and Reliability**

Due to the combination of methodological practices used in this study it is necessary to consider the validity and reliability from both quantitative and the qualitative aspects.

Rubin & Rubin (1995) provide a description of validity and reliability. They suggest that research can be deemed valid if it “closely reflects the world being described (p. 85)”. The criteria for reliability provided by Rubin & Rubin are equally as simplistic. The test to determine reliability is if two researchers studying in the same arena would deliver compatible observations? Viewing this study from the vantage point provided by Rubin & Rubin, the study passes their litmus test for validity and reliability, the study
closely reflects the experiences as related by the participants and the observations would be replicated. Understanding that a more stringent test of validity and reliability is considered desirable for scholarship I have taken several measures to support the validity and reliability of this study.

To enhance the validity of the overall research findings, I triangulated the results of the surveys and interviews. Patton (2002, p. 560) stated that the “point of triangulation is to study and understand when and why there are differences.” Triangulation has been defined as a process to corroborate evidence from multiple sources in order to expose emerging themes (Creswell, 1994). Denzin (1978) outlined four types of triangulation; however, he suggested that there are actually only three types of triangulation that can plausibly be used. The three plausible types of triangulation Denzin outlined are:

- Data triangulation, involves gathering data through several sampling techniques. Data comes from different segments of time and social situations and a variety of people.

- Investigator triangulation implies the use of more than one researcher gathering and/or interpreting data.

- Methodological triangulation, referring to the use of more than one method for gathering data.

I incorporated data and methodological triangulation in the completion of this research study. This was to “enhance the validity of research findings” (Mathison, 1988 p. 13). The purpose of triangulation is not to produce more data, but to test the validity of the data collected by cross-checking with another method. It provided a strategy for the
researcher to see if the quantitative data and the qualitative data arrived at converging or conflicting findings.

Validity and Reliability of Quantitative Findings

The selection of both of the instruments used in this study was based upon their fit to the purpose of the study and for their established internal validity.

Internal Validity and Reliability

In a quantitative study the concern for internal validity rests primarily in the concern of possible measurement error. Is the instrument measuring what it is supposed to measure? Is the assessment instrument sound and effective?

Avilio and Bass’s (2002) Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQx5) had high internal consistency statistics (see Table 7, page 62). The user’s manual provided with the survey continued extensive information related to the development and testing of the instrument.

Kelley and Meyers’ Cross-cultural Adaptability Inventory had high internal consistency statistics (see Table 8, page 65). The authors provided evidence supporting the face validity, content validity, and construct validity of the instrument.

The eight main threats to internal validity of a quantitative design (Campbell & Stanley, 1971; Cook & Campbell, 1979) are history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, statistical regression, differential selection of participants, mortality, and selection-maturation interaction. History, maturation, and selection-maturation were not considered as possible threats because the participants’ interview and survey completion were snapshots in time, eliminating the possibility of issues of time or occurrences to effect the outcome. Participants were not given a pretest. The two instruments administered were
established instruments with acceptable validity and reliability. Purposeful selection was used based on specific criteria, eliminating concerns of selection and statistical regression.

*External Validity*

To assure external validity, the results of the assessment instruments were used to triangulate the data collected in the participants’ interviews.

*Validity & Reliability of Qualitative Findings*

Qualitative research is utilized extensively in a variety of disciplines when the purpose of the study is attempting to understand human experience. Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research is not concerned with generalizability in the statistical sense. The focus of qualitative research is with issues of transferability of findings, trustworthiness, credibility, and dependability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Eisner’s (1991, p. 39) viewpoint on evaluating qualitative research discussed earlier in this chapter is based upon “coherence, insight, and instrumental utility”. Coherence, insight, comprehension and anticipation have been addressed in the design, implementation, and reporting of findings of this study.

Aiming at the same target with a slightly different caliber, Rubin & Rubin (1995) judge the credibility of qualitative research using transparency, consistency-coherence, and communicability. Transparency allows the reader to assess the intellectual strengths and weaknesses, biases, and conscientiousness of the researcher. Consistency-coherence by their definition is the presence of explanation of why inconsistencies occurred in the findings and providing meaning to the apparent contradictions. Communicability describes how well the researcher translates and transfers by means of report writing the findings of the study. The reader of a qualitative study should have a sense of *been there*
after the vivid, detailed, transparent, carefully documented report of findings that is coherent and consistent. Those are the standards (1995) that provide qualitative research with credibility.

Multiple methodological practices were used in the study to create “rigor, breadth, complexity, richness, and depth (Flick, 1998, p. 231).

Internal Validity

Merriam (1998) provided the qualitative researcher with six basic strategies for enhancing validity:

- **Triangulation** – use of multiple investigators, sources of data or multiple methods to confirm the emerging findings. Multiple sources of data and methods were used in this study.

- **Member checks** – taking data and tentative interpretations back to the people from whom they were derived. Transcripts of audio-taped interviews were sent to participants – only minor corrections were made.

- **Long-term observation at the research site:** this strategy was not used, contact with participants was done on telephone and site visits were not made.

- **Peer examination** – requesting colleagues to comment on findings as they emerged. Dissertation chair examined, advised, and mentored throughout the study. Two colleagues, one with a doctorate in education and the other with a degree in English read findings and made recommendations.

- **Participatory or collaborative modes of research** – involving participants in all phases of research, starting a conceptualization through the writing up of findings. Researcher’s advisor, Dr. Kelsey and colleague in education were primary sources of collaboration and direction.
Researcher’s biases: clarifying the researcher’s assumptions, worldview, and theoretical orientation at the outset of the study. From the outset of the study I was keenly aware of my preconceived ideas and assumptions as they related to the subject of the study. My worldview and theoretical orientation greatly influenced the selection of method for the study. I acknowledged the influence that my personal biases could have on the collection and analysis of data.

External Validity

External validity addresses to what extent the finding of the study can be applied to other situations. As stated above, qualitative research is not based upon generalizability of findings. Erickson (1986) stated that seeking generalizable findings is an inappropriate goal of interpretive research. From his viewpoint the goal of qualitative research is based in finding “concrete universals” (p. 130). The approach to identifying a concrete universal is to study a specific case in great detail and then compare the findings to another case that has been studied in equal detail. This creates knowledge that can be transferred.

Stake (1978, p. 6) also discussed the “full and thorough knowledge of the particular” which allows individuals to see similarities in different contexts. He referred to this as naturalistic generalizations.

Data Analyses

Interview transcripts and quantitative inventory data collected formed the body of the data analyzed. The results of the quantitative instruments and the analysis of the coded interview texts for each participant were combined used to create within-case analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Following the within-case analyses, cross-case
analyses examined and discussed the intersections of the within-case work (Schwandt, 2001).

**Quantitative Data Analyses**

The MLQx5 was analyzed by clustering the scores for transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. A mean score for each participant in each category was calculated and then compared to the means for the normative sample.

The CCAI was used to identify areas of strengths and weaknesses within the four categories. The intent of the inventory is not for comparative scores, therefore after the strengths and weaknesses were identified there was no further statistical analysis.

**Qualitative Data Analyses**

Data was analyzed using the constant comparative method described by Glaser and Strauss (1967). The development of categories came from the data, upon the receipt of new data the existing categories were tested and new categories were created, tested and changed with each subsequent receipt of data. The process was continuous and emerging. “As events are constantly compared with previous events, new topological dimension, as well as new relationships, may be discovered” (Goetz & LeCompte, 1981, p. 58). Content analysis was used to identify themes and issues that emerge from both sources (Patton, 1990). I searched for words and phrases that represented themes, topics, and patterns. A coding system was developed to organize the emerging themes from the collected data. The emerging themes are taken from the data instead of using a set of categories and themes that were “imposed on them prior to data collection” (Patton, p. 390). Regularities and patterns were noted. This resulted in discovering points of
commonality and areas of significant divergence. Analytic insights and interpretations begin to emerge and take shape. Patton describes this process as “the qualitative analyst’s effort at uncovering patterns, themes, and categories is a creative process that requires making carefully considered judgments about what is really significant and meaningful in the data” (Patton, p. 406).

Coding can produce categories either drawn from their own common sense knowledge or applied in ‘vivo codes’ words which were used by interviewees.

The collected data was interpreted using a conceptual framework (Miles & Huberman, 1994). As the interview transcripts were examined and re-examined the data was coded according to the framework I had developed. New categories were allowed to emerge as the transcription examination progressed. With each new transcript I continued to watch for the emergence of potential new categories. “Flexibility is required to accommodate fresh observations and new directions in the analysis” (Dey, 1993, p. 111). The constant comparison lead to categories that were both descriptive and explanatory (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Qualitative analysis is a complex process requiring a theoretical foundation, imagination, intuition, flexibility, and innovative thinking.
CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

Vit, the latin root of the word viticulture,
is also the source of vita—life itself.

McNeil

Guided by four research questions, this research study examined the interaction of
culture, values, leadership style, and global mindset exhibited in cross-cultural leaders within the
wine industry. Chapter Four presents the demographic data collected, the quantitative findings
resulting from the administration of two assessment instruments, the qualitative findings from
the participant interviews and an analysis of the data collected from the eight participants.

The collected data provided an enriched insight and understanding into the experiences
of leaders in cross-cultural situations. This enriched insight and understanding lead to the
cultivation of an updated set of competencies (specific knowledge, skills, aptitudes, and
attitudes) which can be used to identify and describe leadership practices that are most effective
in the international context. Before the findings of this study are described, a brief
acknowledgement of an individual with exceptional talent and significant effect upon the wine
industry is presented.

Tribute to an Icon

A career that spanned over eight decades ended on May 16, 2008 with the death of wine
industry legend Robert Mondavi. He was considered to be extremely instrumental in shaping and
defining the modern wine culture. Many attribute Mondavi’s vision and impact as
decisive factors in the rise of the wine industry in California to international renown. This
research study sought to understand the success of international wine leaders and one need not
look any further than to the career of Mr. Mondavi to gain insight into successful international
leadership. As one of the most influential and admired winemakers in California history,
descriptions of the man and his style include: led by example, passionate, a flair for innovation,
developed friendships, exchanged ideas with many people, charismatic, always seeking to
improve wine quality, made everyone in his organization feel at home, enormous drive,
ambition, perseverance, creativity, and resiliency.

“Rarely does one person make such an impact on an industry – indeed, upon generations
of people. Inspired by passion and with the personal strength to succeed, Robert Mondavi will be
remembered for many important accomplishments” (Kriebiel, 2008).

Robert Mondavi, an iconic figure within the wine industry epitomized the quintessential
highly effective leader both in the domestic and international contexts. This tribute is intended to
both pay homage to a key figure within the industry and to serve as a keystone in the cultivation
of a set of competencies which can be used to identify and describe leadership practices that are
most effective in the international context.

“Wine has been a part of civilized life for some seven thousand
years. It is the only beverage that feeds the body, soul, and spirit
of man and at the same time stimulates the mind.”

― Robert Mondavi
Research Questions

The research questions that guided the study were designed to explore the multiple challenges that are faced in by leaders practicing leadership in the new frontiers created by globalization.

- What role did culture, values, and leadership style play in effective international leadership?
- How did the internal experience of the leader reflect externally in their practice of leadership?
- What enabled international leaders to have an effective global mindset and perspective, accepting of a new paradigm?
- What competencies did a globally mobile leader need to develop to be effective in international situations?

Answers to the research questions were sought through both quantitative and qualitative methods. Avilio and Bass’ (2002) MLQx5 provided a tool for assessing the participants’ leadership style and behaviors. Kelley and Meyers’ (1995) CCAI supplied scales for the participants’ orientation toward cultural differences and potential for cross-cultural effectiveness.

Demographics

Eight leaders in the wine industry were identified and interviewed as the primary source of data. The eight participants provided rich descriptions of the experiences of the participants in their international leadership positions. The interviews provided the basis for the competencies that were recommended for use in selection of international leadership candidates presented in Chapter Five. The synthesis of both quantitative and qualitative data made triangulation possible and is the basis of claims made.
Table 9 provides a graphic view to the demographic data with regard to the study participants. The participants’ pseudonym, gender, age, highest degree earned, current professional position, languages spoken, and citizenship are provided.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Highest Degree Earned</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Languages Spoken</th>
<th>Citizenship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elizabeth</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>Ph.D. in Development Studies</td>
<td>Director of Sustainability</td>
<td>English &amp; Spanish</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>B.S. in Enology</td>
<td>Winemaker</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Australian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mark</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>M.S. in Food Science/MBA</td>
<td>Director of Innovation, Winemaker</td>
<td>English &amp; Spanish</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>B.S. in Communication</td>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matthew</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>MBA</td>
<td>President of large wine group</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>JD</td>
<td>Winemaker</td>
<td>French, English, German, &amp; Italian</td>
<td>Dual Swiss &amp; U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Highest Degree Earned</td>
<td>Position</td>
<td>Languages Spoken</td>
<td>Citizenship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thomas</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>M.S. in viticulture</td>
<td>Winemaker</td>
<td>English, French &amp; Spanish</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Age**

Of the eight respondents, the average age was 45.125 years of age. The eldest respondent (Mary) was a 55 years-old woman, and the youngest respondent (John) was 32 years old man.

**Gender**

Eight males and two females participated in the study.

**Education**

All of the participants had earned Bachelor’s degrees from an assortment of universities and in a variety of disciplines. The range of degrees included, agriculture, biochemistry, communications, enology, fermentation science, marketing, viticulture, and winemaking. Two of the Bachelor’s degrees were earned from institutions of higher learning outside of the United States, with the remaining six degrees having been conferred by universities in the United States.

Three participants had Master’s degrees, again within a variety of disciplines, including agriculture, food science, and viticulture. Two of the Master’s degrees held by this group were conferred outside of the United States. Three participants had earned MBAs, one of which was in international business. One of the Master’s degree holders, Mark, was also one of the participants that earned an MBA.

Two of the participants had earned doctorate degrees, one J.D. and the other a Ph.D. The Ph.D. was in agriculture and both doctorate degrees were conferred outside of the United States.

**Languages Spoken**

This demographic information was especially important related to the ability of a leader to effectively lead in the international workplace. Three of the participants were monolingual.
Monolingualism had not been problematic for two of the participants due to the fact that their leadership experiences have been in countries in which English was the native language. The third monolingual participant used an interpreter.

Two of the participants were bilingual, both of whom spoke English and Spanish. Two of the participants spoke three languages; however one trilingual participant admitted that one of the languages he spoke was not fluent. The three languages included, English, Spanish, and French. One participant was fluent in four languages; English, French, German, and Italian.

From a demographic perspective, the participants were mature, well-educated, and well-spoken.

Quantitative Findings

*Avilio and Bass (2002) MLQx5*

The MLQx5 measures a full range of leadership styles. Results of the MLQx5 are strong predictors of leadership styles across a variety of organization in different cultures and at a broad range of levels in the organizations. MLQx5 measures leadership style by measuring different determinants of behavior (Avolio & Bass, 1995). MLQ scores can provide a better understanding of developmental factors and experiences that contribute to the wide range of adult leadership styles exhibited in organizations.

A five point scale for rating the frequency of observed leader behaviors is used in the MLQx5. The Rating Scale for Leadership Items is:

0 = Not at all  
1 = Once in a while  
2 = Sometimes  
3 = Fairly often  
4 = Frequently, if not always
A table reflecting the percentiles for individual scored based on self rating from the normative sample is provided in Appendix D. Six of the eight participants in the study completed and returned the MLQx5. The participants’ scores are presented in Table 10.

Table 10
MLQx5- Participant Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Andrew</th>
<th>Paul</th>
<th>Mark</th>
<th>Mary</th>
<th>Matthew</th>
<th>Thomas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Idealized Influence - Attributed</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealized Influence – Behavior</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational Motivation</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual Stimulation</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualized Consideration</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational Mean Score</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingent Reward</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management by Exception – Active</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management by Exception – Passive</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional Mean Score</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laissez-faire Leadership</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra Effort</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effectiveness</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thomas’ transformational mean score, 3.60, was the highest of the six participants. Mary’s transformational mean score of 3.50 was a close second to Thomas’ mean score in this dimension. A high mean score in this set of dimensions suggests that these two participants perceive themselves as consistently displaying transformational leadership behaviors. The transformational dimensions mean score of Avolio and Bass’ MLQx5 normative sample was 3.02. Four of the six study participants scored at a level above the normative sample mean score.
A score of 4.00 is an extremely high score falling into the 95 percentile in the normative sample data. Andrew scored 4.00 in the Idealized Influence-Behavior (II-B) dimension of transformational leadership. Leaders with high scores in the II-B dimension possess a high sense of purpose and a strong collective sense of mission. Mary and Paul both rated themselves with a 4.00 score in Inspirational Motivation. A 4.00 score in this dimension also falls into the 95 percentile according the normative sample data. Only 5% of the population would score higher in this category. These individuals are likely to display mentor behaviors.

Matthew and Mary had the highest transactional dimension mean scores, 2.42 and 2.33, respectively. Mary had a high transformational leadership also. This could indicate a tendency to give oneself consistently high scores across all dimensions. Matthew had the second lowest transformational leadership dimension mean score. Matthew’s MLQx5 scores suggest that he displays transactional leadership behaviors more consistently than transformational leadership behaviors.

Thomas and Paul both had the lowest transactional dimension mean scores. Thomas’ transformational scores were high. His scores indicate that his behaviors are consistently more transformational than transactional.

*Kelley and Meyers (1995) CCAI*

Kelley and Meyers (1995) caution that the CCAI is not intended to be used as a selection tool or a predictive device for the success or failure in cross-cultural interactions. The inventory’s intended use is for an individual to identify their capacities, areas of strength and weakness in cross-cultural interactions, and as a learning tool for the individual taking the inventory. The results of the CCAI can assist an individual in identifying measures that may be taken to become a more cross-culturally adaptable person. Best use of the inventory involves
comparing only an individual’s scores as they relate to each other; not a comparison to the possible maximum score or to another person’s scores. Six of the eight participants completed and returned the CCAI. Their scores for each of the four dimensions are presented in Table 11.

Table 11  
*Distribution of Scores between Dimensions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Andrew</th>
<th>Paul</th>
<th>Mark</th>
<th>Mary</th>
<th>Matthew</th>
<th>Thomas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional/Resilience</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility/Openness</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptual Acuity</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Autonomy</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 presents the participant scores for the dimension(s) that was indicated as their area(s) of strength.

Table 12  
*Dimensions of Strength by Participant*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Dimension(s) of Strength</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andrew</td>
<td>Emotional Resilience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perceptual Acuity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flexibility/Openness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mark</td>
<td>Personal Autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perceptual Acuity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>Personal Autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matthew</td>
<td>Emotional Resilience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul</td>
<td>Emotional Resilience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thomas</td>
<td>Emotional Resilience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perceptual Acuity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The dimension of strength that had the highest frequency amongst the six participants that completed the CCAI was the Emotional Resilience (ER) scale. A positive attitude, tolerance
for strong emotions, and ability to cope with ambiguity and stress are the hallmarks of this dimension. Also included is a confidence in one’s ability to cope with the unusual or unknown and positive reactions to new experiences. Courage, risk-taking and a sense of adventure is required for this approach.

Three of the six participants that completed the CCAI had results that indicated an area of strength in Perceptual Acuity (PAC). Results showing an area of strength in the PAC scales indicate that the individual is likely to communicate relatively well, especially in situations with unfamiliar languages both verbal and nonverbal. This individual is self-directed, and possesses a moderately strong system of values. Another characteristic of an individual with an area of strength in the PAC scale is the ability to interpret information objectively.

Two of the participants, Andrew and Mary, had the Personal Autonomy (PA) reflect as an area of strength. Results that show an area strength on the PA scales indicates an individual that focuses on the inner person. Interests lie in management of feelings, values, and self-esteem. These individuals are characteristically self-assured, positive, and resilient.

One participant, Andrew, showed an area of strength in the Flexibility/Openness scale. Results showing the area of strength resting in the FO scales indicates an individual that adapts to different ways of thinking and is open to new ideas. Tolerance, lack of rigidity, and a comfort or even desire to be with all kinds of people are characteristics that a person strong in the FO dimension exhibits.

Two individuals, Mark and Mary, showed a low score on the FO dimension as area of strength.
Table 13 presents the participant scores for the dimension(s) that was indicated as their area(s) of weakness.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Dimension(s) of Weakness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andrew</td>
<td>Personal Autonomy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mark</td>
<td>Emotional Resilience</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Flexibility/Openness</td>
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<td>Mary</td>
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<td>Flexibility/Openness</td>
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<td>Matthew</td>
<td>Personal Autonomy</td>
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<td>Paul</td>
<td>Personal Autonomy</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perceptual Acuity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thomas</td>
<td>Personal Autonomy</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The dimension with the highest frequency of area of weakness was the Personal Autonomy (PA) scale. Four of the six participants (Andrew, Matthew, Paul, and Thomas) fell into this category. This could indicate a lack of sense of identity, or lack of ability to maintain one’s values and beliefs. Another aspect of the PA scale is based on decision-making. All four of the participants that showed a weakness in the PA scale were very outspoken and firm on their commitment to solicit input from their followers prior to making a decision. The tendency to involve others in the decision-making process may explain the scores indicating weakness in this dimension.

Two participants, Mary and Paul, showed an area of weakness on the Perceptual Acuity (PAC) scale. Communication, both verbal and non-verbal in unfamiliar languages is a key factor in this dimension. Mary is monolingual and commented in the interview that “I don’t think the language barrier is that important”. She also prides herself in “being a very open communicator”. Her lack of linguistic skills is a likely contributor to her low score in Perceptual Acuity.
Mark and Mary demonstrated an area of weakness in the Flexibility/Openness scale. This indicates that Mark and Mary are likely to have difficulty with tolerance and judgmental behaviors.

Mark showed an area of weakness in Emotional Resiliency (ER). This indicates a need for improvement in dealing with situations that do not go as planned, are a source of stress and disappointment, and coping skills to deal with stress and negative emotions in a positive and constructive ways.

Qualitative Findings

Introduction

A Japanese executive who was trained at an American business school is asked to run the Chilean manufacturing facility of a British firm – What leadership attributes should she develop? This fictitious scenario is an overstatement of dilemmas that occur within the world of business. Globalization has created many challenging situations with regard to conflicting cultural influences in the workplace. The above fictitious situation embraces all of the research questions that guided the study. What role do culture, values, and leadership style play in international leadership situations, how have the early and previous experiences of the leader be manifest in their practice of leadership, how does an open worldview originate, and how does the attributes of a global mindset take up residence within the mind of a particular individual, and what competencies need to be developed to facilitate successful international leadership assignments?

Culture, values, leadership style, past experiences, global mindset, open worldview, and global leadership competencies are all issues with which globally mobile leaders must deal while trying to continue the functioning of daily life where issues as mundane but necessary as groceries can be sources of additional stress.
The vignette below describes Paul, one of the participants, early experiences in his first international assignment. The vignette provides a snapshot view of experiences that are mirrored by all of the participants of the study. Each participant has not experienced every aspect of this situation; however they have all experienced segments of the vignette.

A Vignette to Set the Stage: Swiss Winemaker Moves to America

Upon receiving his first job in the United States, Swiss-born Paul, had a wide variety of feelings. He describes his initial feelings:

“Destiny-to leave behind the people that you love, the culture you were born in and an environment where you feel very comfortable. Challenge-People give young people chances at higher positions and more possibilities than in Europe, but it is also a very straightforward mentality… I was kind of afraid to leave all this behind and come to an environment where I knew nobody…but myself and my wife.”

Paul’s arrival in the United States was especially poorly timed—he arrived two weeks before harvest. In the wine industry, harvest is one of the busiest times of the year; sometimes at a frantic pace the timely harvest of grapes is paramount to the quality of the end result—wine. No time for a usual new employee orientation. This late season arrival made it necessary for Paul to hit the ground running. Two weeks is not a lot of time to learn the location of the vineyards, where the equipment is kept, who and what the employees do. Little consideration was given to the importance of adjustment time for a successful assimilation of the new employee—let alone a new employee from a different country.

During those first two weeks business concerns were not his only worries. He had to figure out where he “was going to live, what does it take to get a driver’s license, where do you put your garbage, where do you clean your laundry, where is the supermarket, what is PG&E”
Paul attributed many aspects of his upbringing for his ability to deal with cultural diversity. His native country, Switzerland, is “a very tiny little country” that is divided in four different zones – each zone is culturally different. From birth Paul experienced cultural diversity in his own home. His mother is American and his father is Swiss; multi-cultureless is Paul’s by birthright. He felt strongly that his youthful experiences were “pretty key” in his ability to function in a cross-cultural situation. Young people have “less experience and principle behind them. Therefore they are more inclined to be accepting and embracing of different cultures and different environments.”

Interconnected Threads

Paul’s experience sheds light upon the interconnected nature of the research questions. Paul’s multi-cultural origins, his childhood experiences with diversity, and his internships in cultures other than his own helped develop an ability to openly accept difference and fostered attitudes of adaptability and flexibility. These are competencies that are frequently associated with global mindset. The vignette responds to all four of the research questions simultaneously.

One of the study’s participants, Thomas, described culture as the “creative fabric of what societies are made up of” (Thomas, 205-6). I have considered this work (Chapter 4) much like a tapestry, with each new piece of information being a thread interwoven into the existing work. In the beginning little existed besides the framework provided by the literature. Slowly as the
threads grew in number, each placed in the correct area of the tapestry, a vivid picture began to emerge. It was during this part of the process that the placement of the threads began to be more difficult. The very act of trying to tease apart a multi-ply thread damaged its integrity and beauty. It is for this reason that some threads of this dissertation have been allowed, if not encouraged to run throughout the entire picture. Additionally, conclusions, or claims, will be presented immediately following the finding and the literature will be cited to confirm or disconfirm theory. Traditionally dissertations call for separating out these sections into Chapters 4 and 5; however, qualitative research is contextual, holistic, and naturalistic, thus, deconstructing the elements is counterproductive to comprehension of findings.

*Research Question # 1 – What role did culture, values, and leadership style play in effective international leadership?*

*Culture, Values, and the International Wine Industry Leader*

Each of the participants has had the experience of leaving their culture of origin and traveling to lands that did not share their culture and values. Their observations and experiences, although distinctive resonate with analogous input and insight.

*Cultural Marginality*

Claim: Culture plays a fundamental role in effective international leadership. The cultural tensions that globalization has created an imperative. It is imperative that anyone with a desire to successfully lead in an international context must seek to attain cultural marginality.

Theory: An international leader must be able to move comfortably and consciously between their cultural identities, recognizing the benefits of alternatives and choices (Adler, 1998; Bennett, 1993a). The first step is to recognize the function of culture. Culture is what defines an individual and is responsible for creating the lens through which the individual views
their interactions with other people. Hofstede describes culture as “collective programming of the mind” (Hofstede, 1992, p. 12).

Findings: The comments of study participants, John, Andrew, and Elizabeth support the claim that culture is a defining feature in a leader’s attitudes, behaviors, and responses to their followers.

John laid the foundation for a fundamental understanding of the role culture and values play in an international leader’s ability to effectively lead in international setting with this comment, “A person’s culture and values goes into making up the person and who they are, which will then define how they react to everyone else. Culture and values play a significant role in it [leadership] because it defines who you are as a person” (John, 479). Andrew asserts that the role of culture & values is more significant in the effectiveness of an international leader than competencies. Elizabeth upheld Andrew’s assertion although stated slightly differently, “technical skill is less important than guiding principles” (Elizabeth, 444). Guiding principles are underlying assumptions of culture (Schein, 1985).

The findings of this study confirm the conclusions of Adler and Bennett that culture identity and flexibility within their identity are important for international leaders.

Cultural Self-Awareness as a Prerequisite to Intercultural Sensitivity

Claim: Intercultural sensitivity is vital to the development of effective international leaders. Before a person can make progress toward cultural marginality they must first recognize and understand the effect of culture on their values, attitudes, and behaviors. This enhances their ability to understand the same factors in others. Cultural self-awareness is a prerequisite to the development of intercultural sensitivity. Both are necessary to deal with complexities that arise when interacting with a diverse workforce. We must become more aggressive toward the
promotion of cultural self-awareness resulting in intercultural sensitivity. The success of international leaders rests firmly on these competencies as they are fundamental to the developmental of cultural marginality.

Findings: The international leadership experiences of Matthew and Elizabeth provided insight into the value of cultural self-awareness.

Matthew’s international leadership experiences have involved over sixty countries. Concerning cultural self-awareness he stated, “We like to say it is all Asia or all Europe—but that is crazy. They are all very different cultures” (Matthew, 134-5). Through his interactions Matthew came to the realization that because there were many people that were different from him—that did not mean they were all the same. Each culture was a unique situation, with unique “values, local mores, and local business practices…each to be respected…and adapted to in order to be successful” (Matthew 168-9). Matthew’s cultural self-awareness, strong knowledge of his own culture, and sense of confidence in his culture and values of origin provided him with a basis to understand the nuances of other cultures. This has allowed him to adapt and experience success.

Elizabeth’s experiences have supported the value of cultural self-awareness resulting in intercultural sensitivity. “I think that it is one thing we [Americans] tend to do, we tend to lump people all together, which is not right” (Elizabeth, 486-7). Elizabeth does not like the use of stereotypes and uses great sensitivity to the uniqueness of the individual when assessing people and situations.

Theory: Cultural self-awareness and intercultural sensitivity are critical for effective international leadership (Adler, 1986, Adler, 1991; Hofstede, 1997; Moffatt, 2004, Soukuvitz & George, 2003). The findings of this study support the conclusions of Adler, Adler, Hofstede,
Moffatt, Soukuvitz & George which emphasize the importance of intercultural sensitivity, self-awareness, and cultural marginality.

*National culture*

Claim: In their practice of leadership the international leader encounters a broad range of national cultures. The vast differences in national cultures are the root of many of the difficulties that the international leader is faced with. National culture affects not only the behaviors of individuals within the culture but it dictates the manner in which business is conducted in a nation. International leader candidates must develop a consciousness, a keen sense of attentiveness to the national culture in which they will practice. This needs to begin prior to departure and continue throughout their assignment.

Findings: Thomas expressed his thoughts with regard to national culture, “If you don’t understand the culture of where you are working you will never have success. There are a lot of different leadership styles… but culture is the key to adapting your personal leadership style to the place where you are working” (Thomas, 424-7). As an international leader Thomas feels so strongly about the importance culture and values play in the effectiveness of an international leader that his advice to a would-be international leader is “Understand the country that you are going to, understand the history of that country and set aside some of your beliefs. I think that if someone has a very strong ingrained system of values, they are going to run into trouble” (Thomas, 451-3).

For Thomas, a valuable lesson in the art of dinner table conversation has demonstrated in France. He learned that letting go of the behaviors dictated by his cultural background was going to be necessary to become an accomplished conversationalist at the French dinner table. In America, rarely are religion, sex and politics discussed at the dinner table. Thomas quickly found
out that in France if you “don’t talk about religion, sex, and politics...you are not going to be talking at all at the table” (Thomas, 454-6). Understanding the role culture and values play in the code of ethics a people live by helped Thomas understand that “things we consider offensive are not and vice versa” (Thomas, 459-60).

There was resounding agreement from John regarding the importance of the role national culture plays in an international leader’s ability to be successful and effective. “The one thing you need to understand is there is not one thing you need to understand—there are a myriad of things you need to understand. The more you know about the conventions and the cultures of places you are going, the more you are going to be successful”.

Andrew and Thomas both commented on the importance of understanding the culture in which the international leader is to lead. They both believe that the understanding needs to be more than just surface deep to affect successful leadership practice. Their comments also point to the depth of preparation to which a leader should endeavor. As Andrew reflected back on his first international leadership assignment his overriding thought was that, “the waters were a little deeper than what I expected...I needed to take some time to understand history—needed to do more the scratch than surface of culture” (Andrew, 224-6).

Andrew’s sentiments were echoed by Thomas, “I was in over my head” (Thomas, 272). Thomas also stressed the importance of gaining knowledge and appreciation for the history and aspects of culture of the country in which an individual is working. “History is very important to the business culture of a country. It has an effect on how they do business. You cannot work in a historical vacuum” (Thomas, 132-4).

Theory: National culture has a stronger bearing on work relationships than does age, gender, position within the organization, or profession (Hofstede, 1980). Without appropriate
understanding of the national culture of the country in which they are leading an international leader will not be able to achieve success (Porter, 1990).

The findings of this study confirm the conclusions of Hofstede and Porter that stress the vital role that national culture plays in international leadership.

*International Assignment as Instant Immersion*

Claim: To develop a leader to be effective in the international context, international exposure is another critical. It is very difficult to use traditional methods to develop the competencies needed for international leadership with international exposure. Short-term, occasional, or sporadic exposure will not accomplish the needed outcome. To provide the needed exposure to situations involving differing cultures for leadership development an international assignment resulting in immersion is crucial.

Findings: Immersion is “absolute for acclimation” (Andrew, 335) to a new and different culture according to Andrew. Andrew explains that there are a “thousand little almost unrecognizable little bits of information you don’t even know you are taking in. It is important to be immersed in a place long enough to incorporate or internalize the local values and belief system” (Andrew, 337-9). Andrew’s reasoning for the necessity of immersing oneself in another culture for acclimation is what Polanyi (1967) meant about transfer of tacit knowledge through personal contact and trust. Andrew points out that after the tacit knowledge has been transferred, the international leader is able to “honor those things in your subsequent interactions and they will know that you have been paying attention…that what they do and who they are matters to you” (Andrew, 348-50). He also conveyed the thought that a benefit of transfer of tacit knowledge and honor bestowed upon the other individual is an “understanding of how the person will respond in a given situation” (Andrew, 112-3).
The importance of small things and an understanding of the effects of those small things upon the way people live and conduct themselves at work and at play can be exhibited in seemingly insignificant moments. Those moments might be appropriate conduct while placing a food order or the morning rituals of a culture. It is the small aspects of the country that translate into big important issues to the host nationals that Polanyi (1967) described as tacit knowledge.

The importance of tacit knowledge did not escape Thomas when he related, “ordering a cup of coffee in a different country—there are a hundred cultural and historical things that have happened before you order that cup of coffee that dictate everything about it” (Thomas, 208-10).

Andrew related the significance of understanding the morning rituals of a culture, “the time of the morning they get up, how they get up, what they do after they get up” (Andrew, 338-9), seems meaningless but a misjudgment or misinterpretation can be the beginning of problematic times.

Without the immersion neither Andrew nor Thomas would have had the opportunity to experience the transfer of tacit knowledge that Polanyi (1967) described. Without the transfer of tacit knowledge the development of cultural marginality is inhibited if not completely impossible.

Theory: Many companies now require an international assignment as part of their succession planning process. An international assignment is considered one of the most effective development tools (Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall, & Stroh, 1999; Stahl, Chua, Caliguiri, Cerdin, & Taniguchi, 2007; Seibert, Hall, & Kram, 1995). Hall, Zhu, & Yan (2001) refer to an international assignment as a “powerful growth engine” for executives. The findings of this study confirm the conclusions of the related theorists that an international assignment is a key aspect to success.
Cultural Understanding of Motivation

Claim: The cultural influence and grounding of motivation makes it necessary for an international leader to understand what will motivate employees. Without a clear cut understanding of the culture there is room for misunderstanding and failure to meet organizational goals.

Findings: Andrew uses the term “self-actualization” to describe employee behavior that is better described using the term motivation. He found that motivation a significant factor in the performance of people from diverse cultures. Andrew’s observations drawn from first-hand experiences in Spain, France and Asia support his thoughts on self-actualization. “In the western context we usually define self actualization in economic terms…we gauge actualization by how much money we are making. Or the power we have—one of the two. I have found that is really not the case in other places” (Andrew, 153-5).

Andrew had a particular experience in Spain that strongly demonstrates a culturally difference in what motivates employees. The misunderstanding affected the productivity of workers. Andrew stated (Andrew, 164-90),

“When I was in the early stages of setting up our Spanish project, we were having trouble because it was in such a remote region, finding a labor force. So we, through a variety of intermediaries, were able to find and hire a group of Cuban folks. I think six of them who had come to Spain to find work and we brought them up to the project and gave them housing and set them to work in the fields. And we were amazed at just how slow the work was. And they were paid well, it was fine but this work was just excruciatingly slow. I thought well you know they seem to be ok, they are laughing and joking and singing all day long. It was clearly not drudgery for them. So let’s see if we can put some
incentives in place to speed up this work because we’ll never get done this way. The season will be on us and we will fail. We said, look, we’re going to keep your base pay exactly the same, no problem, you’re all guaranteed your base salary but we’re going to put an incentive in place basically on … work. Where if you do “x” number of plants in a day or above “x” number of plants in a day, you get a “y” amount of dollar bonus on top of your salary. And we did that on an evening, the next morning they all came back and walked out to the field and cut the amount of work they did in half. One would assume from western standpoint that you weren’t trying to do anything under handed, you were trying, you were acting out of integrity, you weren’t taking any of their base pay away. You were just giving those who had the ability to succeed the opportunity to make more money. They viewed it as an attempt to split them up. And the most important thing for them was social cohesion, not the money they were going to make. We never could get them to speed up their work. Ultimately we had to bring some other folks in to do the work.”

A basic recognition of the cultural influence on motivation would have helped eliminate the difficulties that Andrew encountered with his Cuban workforce in Spain.

Theory: There is a lack of motivation theories that are cross-culturally sensitive. Most motivation theories are developed in the United States and are reflective of the American culture (Alder, 1991, 1997). Hofstede’s Five Cultural Dimensions (1980) provides a solid starting point for understanding the motivational differences between cultures. Using the Five Cultural Dimensions a leader can develop strategies to increase effectiveness. The findings of this study confirm the work of Adler and Hofstede that an individual preparing for international leader
effectiveness must be keenly aware that motivation is culturally bound and that most motivation theories are reflective of American culture and values.

*Culture: The Thread That Binds*

In conclusion, culture and values play a significant role in the effectiveness of an international leader. To provide the best opportunity for success in the international context a leader must strive for cultural marginality. Increasing cultural self-awareness which enhances intercultural sensitivity and assists the international leader in understanding the importance of national culture is an excellent starting point. However, the literature (Faithorn, 1992, & Polanyi, 1967) and the insight of the study participants support the only effective method of transferring tacit knowledge which is necessary for cultural marginality is by immersion in the form of an international assignment. The knowledge gained during an international assignment is indispensable as a source for understanding the factors that influence employee motivation.

Andrew, Elizabeth, John, Mark, and Matthew provided insight gained from their experiences of cultural immersion. Each of them had been effective international leaders with the wine industry and their experiences have demonstrated the crucial and inseparable role that culture and values play in effective international leadership.

*Leadership Style and the International Wine Industry Leader*

Research question #1 encompassed two main variables, (a) culture and values, and (b) leadership style. The previous section discussed the first variable, culture and values. This section will explore the role that leadership style plays in, effective international leadership.

Throughout the eight interviews with the participants many issues of leadership style were discussed. The similarities between the eight individuals were more frequent than the disparities. Seven of the eight participants exhibited strong characteristics of a transformational
leader in the interview, and was also confirmed by the survey data. The eighth participant’s comments were much more closely identified with transactional leadership behaviors. Although each participant showed strong perceptual preference to transformational leadership, the presence of full range leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2002) was portrayed in most of the interviews and supported by the MLQx5 scores. Bass emphasizes that transformational leadership is an expansion of transactional leadership, it does not replace transactional.

*Emotional relationship between leader and follower - path to acceptance and effectiveness*

Claim: A high-quality emotional relationship between the leader and the follower creates an environment that enables the leader to better understand the followers’ needs. The high-quality emotional relationship also facilitates leader acceptance by the followers and leader acceptance enhances leader effectiveness.

Findings: Thomas describes his relationship with his followers as (Thomas, 10-20):

“I make the most wonderful mistakes in my leadership style, which is to immediately make friends with everybody that is working under me and bring them into a little family. It has been both positive and negative in many ways. I often care too much about the people that work for me, and I am often disappointed when they don’t meet my expectations. Some people thrive under that type of leadership. I enjoy my relationships with people. I like to get to know them better, and get to understand them better, and know their families better; I find it easier to work with people like that. But it often backfires.”

Thomas puts intense efforts into creating the type of emotional connection with his followers. He openly admits that occasionally this approach can turn problematic, but for the most part he is pleased with the results of the bond he shares with his employees.
The average of the five factors that are related to transformational leadership on the MLQx5 (See Table 6 on page #) support Thomas’ transformational approach to his followers. Of the six participants that completed the MLQx5 he had the highest transformational leadership factor average score. Thomas’ transformational leadership factor average score was considerably higher than that of the normative group.

Considering Thomas’ strong propensity toward transformational leadership style it is interesting to note his description of the people that work for him. Several times during the interview he referred to the individuals that work “underneath” him. This hierarchical statement seems to be inconsistent with his other comments. That hierarchical stand can lead to an “us versus them” attitude in the workplace which is in opposition to the transformational leader approach. Thomas’ score was very low for transactional leadership so possibly his use of terms is merely a holdover describing followers using outdated, traditional language.

Andrew is a self-described “egalitarian leader”(Andrew, 6). He says of his egalitarian leadership style “everybody is equal, ideas come from every corner and they are all considered” (Andrew, 257). To exemplify his claim of egalitarianism he offered this explanation (Andrew, 409-15):

“I don’t have a specific parking spot. If I get something, everybody in the company gets it. There are no double standards. I’m not paid the same because we all have different skill sets. But outside of that, if I get gym membership, everybody, including hourly/part-time employees get a gym membership. So everybody knows then that I’m not somehow going to take savings that I’ve found off their back to improve my life and enrich myself. We are all going to get the same things and I think trust relies heavily on the absence of double standards.”
Andrew has experienced success with his egalitarian approach and the ensuing trust relationships he attributes to his style of leadership. Andrew’s score on the MLQx5 five factors that are associated with transformational leadership were higher than the study’s mean score for those factors. His leadership style creates the high-quality emotional relationship and trust that are characteristic of transformational leadership.

Theory: Baron & Neumann (1996) assert that interpersonal relationships and interactions are an important factor in the workplace and need additional attention. Triandis (1995) found that relationships are built differently within a global workforce and that trust is foundational to the success of these relationships. The eleventh proposition of the Culturally Endorsed Leadership Theory states, “Leader acceptance influences leader effectiveness (House, et al., 1999, p. 20). Thomas’ and Andrew’s experiences support the value of high-quality emotional relationships with followers.

Developing and empowering followers – Motivational stimulus for leader and follower

Claim: An international leader that develops employees to reach their optimal potential and therefore empowers the employee is facilitating the accomplishment of organizational goals and improving the leader’s effectiveness.

Findings: Thomas observed that “by promoting the people that were underneath me, I promoting myself—which is a nice place to be. So I am continually trying to invest now in those people that work underneath me, in order to assure that we are more successful in whatever we are doing and also in order to have a more-friendly working environment” (Thomas, 29-32). While developing and promoting the people that work for him, he is producing beneficial results for himself. Thomas has a strong vision of the mutual benefit of that empowering his followers.
Andrew cited an example of employee development and empowerment that had both a monetary and emotional effect on the organization as well as the employee. The development and empowerment also had benefits for him. His assistant winemaker was once again satisfied with her job—he avoids the time and expense of replacing her and the assistant winemaker is now a more productive employee—improving his opportunity to be effective. His assistant winemaker had “lost her spark”. He describes the situation (Andrew, 85-98):

“My assistant winemaker had begun to show signs of restlessness and she had lost her spark. She said ‘you know I’d really like to go get an MBA and so I can be of more value and do more things and I don’t have the money or the time.’ So we paid I think it was $35-45,000 as a company and gave her the space to get her international MBA and wine business. And she traveled around the world and we worked it into her responsibilities. That spark was back, yeah. She felt like she could contribute more. She gained an awareness of the areas that she needed to learn more about. For me the MBA shows you more what you don’t know then any gain of knowledge. It gave her the opportunity to gain experience in different areas.”

Elizabeth describes her leadership style as “very participatory, compassionate, embracing and empowering—a friendly style of leadership. I like an encouraging rather than a dominating type of leadership style. I approach people from a position of mutuality” (Elizabeth, 35-8). Her approach accentuates the emotional connection between the leader and follower with mutual effort, empowerment, and encouragement functioning as the motivator for employee performance. Elizabeth also stated that she encourages her followers to think innovatively and creatively. This type of leader behavior is empowering for the followers and opens the opportunity for followers to
reach their optimal potential. Elizabeth voiced strong satisfaction with the level of effectiveness her style brings about.

Theory: Part of the role of a leader is to motivate and inspire their followers and promote positive attitudes, this is to be done simultaneously with the creation of a sense of contribution and value among the followers (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994).

Thomas, Andrew, and Elizabeth have endeavored to develop and empower their followers. Each have encouraged their followers and provided the resources that have enabled the followers perform beyond expectations (Yukl, 2002).

**Decision Making- More than a Problem-Solving Device**

Claim: An international leader can have a significant effect upon the quality of decisions by soliciting input from a variety of perspectives, including followers. A leader is ultimately responsible for the outcomes of decision, however; follower involvement in the process improves the ability of the leader to make solid, well-informed decisions and fosters an attitude of mutual responsibility toward organizational goal.

Findings: The variety of directions that the topic of decision-making took in the interviews provided large amounts of data that spoke not just to the process but to a wide range of the behaviors that support leadership style. The range of behaviors that were brushed upon during the decision-making conversations included:

- Leader accepting responsibility for organizational and follower well-being
- Leader empowering followers
- Leader acknowledging the existence of and embracing different perspectives
- Leader placing value upon team environment that spurs on mutual accomplishments
Leader’s individualistic approach exhibited by self-interest and discrediting of followers

Some of these concepts are additionally covered elsewhere in this section. The styles and behaviors of leadership do not lend themselves well to compartmentalization.

Paul’s approach to decision making is participatory and empowering for his followers. He acknowledges the responsibility for the outcomes, however; he solicits input from his followers, “I try to debate and discuss with each manager issues within their own department…it is up to me to make the final cut but I think I value all these [his managers] people for their brain, their work, and their attention to work and I can learn plenty from their perspective and therefore I share in decision-making” (Paul, 107-12). His reliance on the solicitation of the opinions and perspectives of those around him is also reflected in this comment, “no success in business is about one person. It is all about a team, therefore you have very little importance in your business if you are not surrounded by people that are as good as you if not better than you” (Paul, 383-5). His comments express an appreciation for his “team” and imply a one for all and all for one attitude that allows the “team” to accomplish organizational goals effectively. This also resonated with the value of leader and follower working together to achieve organizational goals.

Paul’s willingness to involve followers in the decision-making process promotes accomplishment of the organizational goals and a positive team atmosphere. Paul’s MLQx5 scores in the five transformational leadership factors were higher than the mean for this study and the mean sample scores. He has embraced the tenets of transformational leadership and has incorporated the tenets into his practice of leadership.
Andrew’s earlier cited comment about the value of everyone’s ideas being considered mirrors Paul’s approach to decision-making and involving more than just himself. Thomas discussed the important of his followers’ involvement in the decision-making process:

“I have to know everything about what is going on. I need all the information. I need it from more than one perspective…I think everybody, no matter who they are, they have something very bright to say, or they have an interesting observation that is not going to be your perspective. I like to get a lot of different perspectives. In France I had a Moroccan guy working for me, he had very little formal schooling, but he had a very intense understanding of how grape vines work, and he was a great person to bounce ideas off of. I don’t think you can discount anyone when you are looking at difficult decisions” (Thomas, 163-81).

Thomas’ transformational leadership style scores were higher than those of Paul. Both men have put into action the ideas they espoused in the MLQx5.

Participatory leadership is again a strong theme in Elizabeth’s response to decision-making “my whole orientation towards leadership in agriculture is one of appreciation of the farmer perspective and the people who are on the ground. Working in a participatory method can uphold the kinds of innovation and knowledge that comes from the farmer’s perspective. It is extremely important to listen to the people on the ground” (Elizabeth, 96-9). Elizabeth throughout her entire interview relayed convictions with regard to leadership that were in alignment with a transformational leadership style approach. Every aspect remained consistent with the next. Elizabeth however did not return the quantitative assessment tools eliminating the opportunity to triangulate the data.
Mary’s comments with regard to decision-making were aligned with most of her other comments. Mary’s approach to leadership was focused upon her role in the process with less emphasis on those around her. Her decision-making process involves:

“Understand the bigger picture of what is going on with the industry. Always going back to the bigger picture. You have to keep up with the times. If you don’t keep yourself current and if you don’t keep yourself relevant you are never going to be able to climb the scale exactly as you want or meet your personal or professional goals. So try to make sure that you are looking at the bigger picture and that your decision as small as it may be or as insignificant as it might seem in the bigger scheme it could mean something bigger” (Mary, 297)

Her response never mentioned the role of her followers. In most areas of the interview with Mary her focus was on her involvement in the industry “I love the chase…I love reaching the goal…I like to accomplish that goal so that’s what keeps me motivated” (Mary, 132). There was an inconsistency between her MLQx5 scores and the responses in the interview. Her MLQx5 averaged score for the five factors of transformational leader was the second highest average in the group of six MLQx5 respondents. Her responses were focused on herself and her pursuit of individual accomplishment. Her responses increased my awareness of the weakness of self-report quantitative instruments. MLQx5 does offer a 360 degree assessment, the use of which would have strengthened of value of the data collected in the self-rating. Leaders’ perceptions of their style and effectiveness may be different from the perceptions of their followers.

John punctuates this with a very pointed statement “learn to put up with stupid people. Learn to apologize for someone else’s mistakes because the one thing that matters at the end of the day is
to get the job done. If you are managing those [stupid] people, it doesn’t matter if they screw up, it will be your fault. So learn to deal with stupid people really quickly” (John, 46-9).

His decision-making process seemed to be based primarily on “You take the available facts, you put them against your store of experience and then you have a little listen to your guts” (John, 68-70). John referred several times to his “guts”. He explained the role of “guts” thusly, “Doing the job is not the skill, it is knowing when the standard procedure is going to fail before it does. You have got to have that touch, you have got to have that feel. It is knowing when the standard process is going to fail and that is just a gut thing and that you cannot change” (John, 75-80). The solicitation of follower input seemed to be perfunctory. John displayed a very individualistic approach to decision-making and to leadership in general. Being from Australia, a culture that is highly individualistic (Hofstede, 1980), John’s independent, individualistic approach may have been fostered from early childhood in response to his cultural identity. It was not possible to compare some of John’s outspoken, seemingly abrupt statements with the quantitative data due to the fact that he opted not to return the quantitative assessment tools.

Thomas, Andrew, and Elizabeth indicated that they had success with the style of decision-making they have used. Not only has their style enabled them to make solid, well-informed decisions, the ramifications of their approach have stretched into other activities of the organization. John and Mary were satisfied with their personal accomplishments with little acknowledgment of the positive effects of their followers.

Theory: Transformational leaders seek the consensus of their followers prior to making decisions. Alignment between organizational interests and the interests of the individual is the goal of a transformational leader (Bass, 1985). The findings of this study support the conclusions of Bass regarding the decision-making process and transformational leadership.
Mutually working toward organizational goals

Claim: An international leader can enhance the accomplishment of organizational goals by creating a team environment and actively participating as a member of the team.

Findings: The immediate goals of the wine industry are felt acutely by anyone involved during harvest and crush seasons. This is typically a frantic, high stress time of the year when each person must be prepared to contribute to the achievement of the organizational goals. Andrew explains the mutuality of working towards those goals, “all of us will stand on the sorting table at harvest, and all of us will pack orders when consumer orders need to go out”. This is the best example of the transformational behavior of mutually working toward organizational goals that emerged during the course of my interviews.

Andrew treats people with mutual equality and “ultimately people trust you and they are willing to give their all for you” (Andrew, 399-400). Elizabeth related experiences of working in the field with farmers, and John talked about having “good, old dirt under the fingernails” (John, 61). None of the participants were the sit and watch it be done type of leader, each touched upon incidents in which they worked side-by-side with their followers to accomplish their goals.

The mutual efforts enacted to accomplish organizational goals are a thread that has been inextricably woven throughout the participants’ responses to each aspect of the leadership style. The organizational goals are the uniting element with a company.

A Higher Cause, Vision for the Future, and Social Conscience

Claim: A leader that is guided by a vision of the future and commitment to a higher cause can be a highly effective leader and accomplish organizational goals without comprising their social conscience.
Findings: Aside from a strong commitment to a participatory, appreciative approach to leadership, the second most discussed message one receives from Elizabeth is a strong “association between leadership and a commitment to a broader vision. My leadership style and values are connected to a broader social agenda” (Elizabeth, 182-3). Elizabeth is “passionate about sustainability overall with a current focus on sustainable and organic approaches to viticulture” (Elizabeth, 46-7). She is very clear that one must be “cognizant of expectations and goals that are being set by the organization...while maintaining awareness to what the broader context is” (Elizabeth, 58-9). During the interview her vision never wavered from her “broader vision” nor her “participatory approach to leadership” while still obtaining positive results in achieving organizational goals.

Elizabeth did stand out as the only one of the participants that identified with a higher cause in a social agenda context. Her commitment to the quality of the wine she produces is rivaled by her commitment to the well-being of the environment.

Theory: Transformational visionary is a term used in leadership literature (Allen, 2003; Bass, 1985, Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978). Elizabeth epitomized the quintessential transformational visionary. She had a crystal clear vision of her goal and has been willing to relentlessly encourage those around her to follow suit. She has accomplished organizational goals without compromising her “social agenda.”

Passion for Wine and Life – The Ultimate Motivator

Claim: A leader that exhibits a sincere, deep enthusiasm for the organizational goals, the well-being of the followers, and life in general will affect the organization on a functional and personal level while enhancing their leadership effectiveness.
Findings: Andrew, Elizabeth, John, Mark, Mary, Matthew, Paul, and Thomas each stated a strong commitment and identified a “passion” for the product of their work—wine. Passion was a frequently occurring theme throughout all eight interviews. The number of times that “passion” was stated during the course of the eight interviews was amazing. If any prevailing theme was used to identify all of the participants it would easily be their “passion” for viticulture and wine. In response to what motivates you as a leader, Paul answered, “first it is the wine, it is full of passion, a real true passion and something that I fall asleep thinking about and wake up thinking about—it inspires me” (Paul 81-2). John answer was nearly identical, “Wine for life. I love my job. I am one of the few people in the world that actually go to work happy. I wake up happy to go to work. I get a charge out of it” (John, 54-5).

Matthew offers this explanation about a strong commitment, “if you have a solid foundation in some sort of passion on an internal basis then I know there is passion elsewhere, and a commitment and you do not find that very often” (Matthew, 167).

Andrew describes “spark” as an “unquantifiable”. Spark is described as being very different from another frequently cited “unquantifiable”—fire in the belly. Andrew wants someone with spark. He is resistant to having an employee that has fire in the belly. His description of the difference between the two and how spark is so much more desirable is (Andrew, 70-5):

“You know someone with spark is going to get up in the morning and be the best at what they are doing. The fire in the belly is somewhat a term I apply to sales folks, who are going to go out and kick butt and often the fire in the belly leads people to push the boundaries of that integrity parameter that I talked about. Whereas a spark is you know
they are going to shine. They are going approach whatever they do with intensity and joy.

Joy is probably the greater word.

Theory: The provided the framework for the Culturally Endorsed Leadership Theory
(Donaldson, 1995; Hickson, Hinings, McMillan, Schwitter, 1974; Hofstede, 2001; Lord & Maher, 1991; McClelland, 1985) which resulted in twelve propositions (see page 41). Proposition #2 – Leadership affects organizational form, culture, and practices supports this claim.

*Cultural Differences and Leadership Collide: Revisiting the Swiss Winemaker in America*

At the confluence of culture and leadership stand many individuals that are in the midst of an international assignment. As in the opening vignette of this section (page 84), the international leader is faced with many complexities and uncertainties. Paul offered insight into the experience of resistance to an international leader. His perspective was of special interest because the host nationals were American. I asked Paul if he had encountered resistance from followers that did not share his ethnicity, his response was without hesitation “Yes, of course. I don’t know if you can call it racism but their remarks were ‘Just go home or back to where you belong’. I think that it is more of a limitation of intelligence or knowledge than anything else. In business, you have to prove yourself through your actions and not so much your words… What I usually try to do is shut up, buckle up and work harder and prove them wrong” (Paul, 220-9). Paul’s confidence and ability set aside his ethnocentric thoughts and respond as a global citizen helped guide him and his initially resistant followers to a mental state in which they could focus upon organizational goals and create an environment of acceptance.

Many international assignments fail and the reasons for the failures are numerous and often complicated. One factor involved in the failure of so many international assignments is difficulty on the part of the international leader to adjustment to different cultures and people.
Part of the difficulty in adjustment has been attributed to the resistance of the host national to accept the expatriate leader (Caudron, 1991; Copeland & Griggs, 1985; GMAC, 2007; Klaff, 2002; Mervois & McClenahan, 1997; Seward, 1975; Tu & Sullivan, 1994). Paul’s attitude in the midst of resistance is an excellent segue to the next section.

Research Question #2 – How did the internal experience of the leader reflect externally in their practice of leadership?

In Celebration of Transculturalism

Research question #2 sought to explore the internalized experiences of the participants that played a role in the way they practice leadership. Two problems were identified with this question during the study. First, the question was too vague, abstract concepts do not work well in situations in which the parties are only vaguely familiar with one another. To exacerbate the problem was the fact that the interviews were conducted via telephone. Rapport building is comprised with the absence of face-to-face communication.

The second problem is that research question #2 and research question #3 were extremely difficult to tease apart. So closely related were the two questions that if the study was to be conducted again, one of the structural revisions I would make would be to combine the two questions. There was one response that suited itself for exclusive coverage in this section.

Claim: When an international leader passes through the phases of culture transfer and embraces the last phase, transcultural, the relationship between leader and follower is enhanced resulting in a positive outcome for the organization, the leader, and the follower.

Findings: Elizabeth was the only participant that fit this description like a glove. She appreciates and finds satisfaction in acknowledgement of an employee that is “motivated by their interest in what they are doing, with a willingness to learn and to share” (Elizabeth, 69-70). She
states that “my approach and style work for me. It results in effective interaction and
appreciation” (Elizabeth, 452-3). In nearly every comment Elizabeth made about her role as a
leader she stressed the positive bond between she and her followers. Elizabeth provided a very
good example of the last phase of Faithorn’s (1992) culture transfer (Table 3, p. 21) with a
description of a situation in which she was involved. “The effectiveness of the work…there are
results from what we did. What I did, what we did, what we did together” (Elizabeth, 454-5).
This example uses “we”; an indicator of the transcultural phase in which diversity is celebrated.
Elizabeth relies strongly upon her ability to embrace diversity. Elizabeth did not return the
MLQx5 so triangulation was not possible.

Theory: Faithorn (1992) describes the attitude toward diversity in the transcultural phase
as one of celebration. Elizabeth’s description had a celebratory overtones and the enthusiasm she
had in the tone of her voice gave credence to her claims. The summation of Elizabeth’s
experiences has prompted her passage through the first two stages of culture transfer allowing
her to function readily and easily in the transcultural phase. An international leader seeking an
effective leadership approach should strive toward the transcultural phase of culture transfer. The
findings of this study confirms Faithorn’s conclusions regarding the phases of culture transfer.

Research Question #3 – What enabled international leaders to have an effective global
mindset and perspective, accepting of a new paradigm?

A Toast to Global Mindset: Embracing a New Paradigm

Each of the study’s eight participants has had leadership positions within the wine industry in
both domestic and international assignments. In the review of the literature the most frequently cited
reason for a leadership to take an international position was for career development (Black,
Gregersen, Mendenhall, & Stroh, 1999; Hall, Zhu & Yan, 200#; Stahl, Chua, Caliguiri, Cerdin, &
Taniguchi, 2007; Seibert, Hall, & Kram, 1995). This is one area in which the participants in the study differed greatly from the typical situation described in the literature. The participants each addressed their international involvement with a purposeful and willful approach. Without exception each of the participants had intentionally sought positions that would involve working and leading in international situations.

According to Beechler & Baltzley (2008) the cognitive process of an international leader is fundamentally different than that of a domestic leader. They must have the mental capacity to see many different perspectives and distill the important matters from the incidentals. This state of mind with its mental acuity and characteristic flexibility is known as global mindset.

The study participants were able to provide insight into what enables a global mindset and what were some of the factors the cultivated their different view of the world.

_Open Your Mind and Prepare for Change_

Claim: Individuals that embrace a global mindset are receptive to ideas differing from their own and readily accept change.

Findings: Matthew states his reasoning for seeking an international position very clearly “I would encourage anybody that wants a career in anything to go international for part of their life, because remember we live a long, long life and when I am 80 or 90 years old in a rocking chair, I would like to look back and say yeah, I have spent 2 or 3 or 4 or 5 years somewhere outside of the United States” (Matthew, 410-3). His encouragement does not come without an admonishment to “go with an open mind and be prepared for frustrating times” (Matthew, 275), but he quickly follows his admonition with an assurance that the international experience “will change you for the better” (Matthew, 371).
Theory: Viewing global mindset through a framework provided by Thunderbird Global School of Management (2007), Matthew’s openness and willingness to work with people of other cultures is an example of the psychological capital of global mindset. The findings of this study were consistent with the Thunderbird framework.

Release egocentric and ethnocentric mindsets

Claim: Humility is a key characteristic necessary to embrace global mindset. Egocentric and ethnocentric thoughts are deterrents to effective global mindset.

Findings: Matthew’s first international experiences revealed to him the importance of releasing thoughts of self-importance and ethnocentric mindset, replacing those behaviors with an outward expression of humility. “All of these countries were very successful before I showed up” (Matthew, 165) Matthew observed. He further punctuates his realization with “I was very accepting of their differences, and listened, and understood, and realized you cannot do things the way the Americans would do it” (Matthew, 204-6). Paul’s thoughts added strength to Matthew comments, “to understand that you are not more important than anybody else on… the planet” (Paul 330-1).

Theory: Referring again to the Thunderbird (2007) framework, Paul and Matthew are experiencing the psychological capital aspect of global mindset. Respect for other cultures and rejection of ethnocentric behaviors are basic aspects of a global mindset. The findings of this study support the Thunderbird framework regarding global mindset.

A Global Citizen is Cultivated and Nurtured – Childhood Influence of Global Mindset

One of the strongest prevailing themes of the study focused upon the influence of childhood experiences to the cultivation of global citizens with global mindsets.
Claim: Children that are raised in environments that are guided by a perspective of openness and are non-judgmental, culturally sensitive and enriched with a variety of culturally diverse activities adjust to the role of global citizen readily, almost transparently. The cultivation and nurturing of children to assume active roles in a global environment should receive immediate and serious attention from all policy-makers that dictate the direction of the education system in America.

Findings: Paul provided insight into this phenomenon in a quote on page 85. He attributes the high influence of childhood experiences on the ability to accept a global mindset to the fact the young people have “less experience and principle behind them. Therefore they are more inclined to be accepting and embracing of different cultures and different environments”. The study participants’ experiences support these claims.

Elizabeth had a “strong sense of social sensitivity” (Elizabeth, 57) from her early youth. She remembers having a “real fascination for other cultures when (she) was a kid” (Elizabeth, 219-20). She attributes her ability and desire to embrace diversity to several key childhood experiences. First and foremost, she credits her parents for raising her in an environment that was “very, very open, non-judgmental, very culturally sensitive and an open perspective” (Elizabeth 56-7). Elizabeth recalled multiple incidents that spanned over a number of years, starting when she was a pre-school aged child, culminating with an international trip after high school graduation. Brief snippets from a very lengthy description included:

“An Asian art teacher in preschool…parents reading books… Grandfather with unusual habits he spoke with an English accent…Grandfather did organic gardening before it was popular…he cooked dandelions and ate rose hips…father was teaching physician…early exposure came with a great fascination… in high school, but my best friends were people who were from very
diverse backgrounds...there was a foreign student from Australia and she was good friend...and there was a girl, who was on sport teams with me. Her mother was Finish and her dad was German so she spoke like three languages, and she was my best friend. When I graduated from high school, I had a chance to do an international trip and I loved that” (Elizabeth, 241-65).

Elizabeth’s early cross-cultural experiences set the stage and prepared her to be an active global citizen. Her cross-cultural curiosity, appreciation, and acceptance of diversity were encouraged before she started elementary school. Although an ocean apart, Elizabeth’s experiences were comparable to those of Paul in Switzerland. Both were raised in intellectually stimulating and challenging homes that promoted their growth as a global citizen. A strong learning agility is an important part of acquiring the cognitive proficiency required of a global leader. Elizabeth attributes her development and performance as a “high achiever” in school to her parents providing a rich environment that encouraged inquisitiveness, curiosity, and learning.

Thomas’ experiences were very similar. He was five years of age when he took his first of many international trips. He considered his parents’ international experiences more important than his early international travel experiences. Thomas’ father earned his Ph.D. and did post doctorate work in Scotland and Germany, respectively. “Before any of my siblings were born, my parents had traveled extensively” (Thomas, 226). He described his parents’ worldview as “very international” (Thomas, 226-7) and says that there was a constant “vibe of the international” (Thomas, 230) in his parents’ home. Thomas’ parents raised him and his siblings with the idea that “working overseas was always a possibility” (Thomas, 231).

John’s parents also travelled internationally extensively. Andrew’s cross-cultural experiences started very early in life—the grandparents with whom he spent a great deal of time were immigrants. Mary and Mark were both international exchange students in high school.
Theory: Early cross-cultural contact and experiences were the beginning of a lifelong practice of adaptability, flexibility, and pursuit of diverse situations. The three types of capital, (1) intellectual, (2) psychological, and (3) social that are considered to be the core of global mindset (Thunderbird, 2007) were cultivated and nurtured in the early cognitive development of these participants. The experiences of Elizabeth, Paul, Thomas, John, Mary, and Mark all represented the intellectual capital aspect (Thunderbird, 2007) of global mindset. Each one of these study participants intentionally and readily sought international opportunities.

*Research Question #4 – What competencies did a globally leader need to develop to be effective in international situations.*

**Competencies**

Competencies are characteristics that enable and motivate an individual toward outstanding job performance. Competencies are job, role or function specific (Hollenbeck, 2001; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Each of the participants was specifically asked which of their individual competencies have facilitated their exceptional job performance. Information gathered as components of both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study was used to put together a set of key competencies to identify and describe individuals that possess the characteristics that lead to effective leadership practices in the international contexts.

The key competencies provided as findings of the study is not exhaustive in their coverage of international leadership, nor is it the intent of the researcher to imply a guarantee that an individual deemed to possess these key competencies will be a successful leader. The findings of the study do indicate that an individual exhibiting these key competencies should be considered to have high potential for international leadership. The findings are not a mold for the ideal international leader. The findings may be used by corporate executives, human resource
professionals, and potential leadership candidates as a blueprint which can be added to in such a manner that creates a suitable guide for the specific conditions in which it will be used.

Table 14 lists competencies from several sources. Competencies listed in Column #1 are a compilation of responses collected from the participants’ interviews and an evaluation of the results of the CCAI. During the interviews participants were asked what competencies had most facilitated their excellent job performance. The participants were not limited to a single response. Each participant provided multiple competencies. Characteristics that were associated with the areas of strength rendered by the participants’ scores on the CCAI were included in the table. Column #1 competencies are clustered under several over-arching themes. The competencies under each cluster are listed in order of frequency of occurrence.

Column #2 items are competencies collected from the literature reviewed during the course of the study.

Table 14
Most Valuable Competencies for an International Leader

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competencies cited by study participants</th>
<th>Competencies cited by literature</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward life, career &amp; wine</td>
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<tr>
<td>Passion – all participants</td>
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<tr>
<td>1 - Listener</td>
<td>1 – Proficiency in other languages and multilingual knowledge</td>
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<td>2 - Open-Minded</td>
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<td>3 - Tolerance for strong emotion</td>
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<tr>
<td>1 - Respectful</td>
<td>1 – Builds relationships with all people</td>
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<td>2 - Honest</td>
<td>2 - Trustworthy</td>
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<td>3 - Integrity</td>
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<td>4 - Humble</td>
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<td>5 - Trustworthy</td>
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<td>6 - Tolerant</td>
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<tr>
<td>Column #1 Competencies cited by study participants</td>
<td>Column #2 Competencies cited by literature</td>
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<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>7 - Empowering</td>
<td><strong>Self Management</strong></td>
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<td>8 - Embracing</td>
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<td>9 - Willing to share</td>
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<td><strong>Stuller &amp; Martin (1989)</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Beechler &amp; Balzley (2008), &amp; Thunderbird (2007)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1 - Positive attitude</td>
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<td>2 - Flexible</td>
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<td>3 - Resilient</td>
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<td>4 - Lack of rigidity</td>
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<td>5 - Ability to cope with ambiguity</td>
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<td>6 - Ability to cope with stress</td>
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<td>7 - Self-confident &amp; assured</td>
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<td>8 - Self-directed</td>
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<td>9 - Well-balanced</td>
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<td>10 - Sense of adventure</td>
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<td>11 - Straight forward</td>
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<td>12 - Precision</td>
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<td>13 - Ability to clear mind/sleep well</td>
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<td>1 - Dedicated</td>
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<td>2 - Committed</td>
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<td>3 - Risk-taker</td>
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<td><strong>3 – Knowledge &amp; understanding of global business</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Allen, et al. (1998)</strong></td>
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<td>1 – Intellectual curiosity</td>
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<td>2 - Willing to learn</td>
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<td>3 - Willing to learn from others</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>1 – Intercultural sensitivity</strong></td>
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<td>1 - Comfortable with diversity</td>
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<td>2 - Cultural understanding</td>
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<td><strong>Adler (1998), &amp; Bennett (1993a)</strong></td>
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<td><strong>3 – Cultural marginality</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Chang (2007)</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>4 – Tolerance for the unfamiliar</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Beechler &amp; Balzley (2008), &amp; Thunderbird (2007)</strong></td>
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<td><strong>5 – Respect for an understanding of and a willingness to work with people of other cultures Clinton (2000)</strong></td>
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<td>Column #1 Competencies cited by study participants</td>
<td>Column #2 Competencies cited by literature</td>
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<td>6 – Knowledge of other cultures</td>
<td>7 – Intercultural competence</td>
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<td>Bhawuk &amp; Brislin (1992)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Values and Guiding Principles</td>
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<tr>
<td>1 - Moderately strong values</td>
<td>1 - Strong, easily articulated and understood guiding principles</td>
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<td>Stuller &amp; Martin (1989)</td>
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With the exception of passion, the most frequent response was listening. The skill of high quality, active listening was stressed by all of the candidates. Listening played a role in each of the participants’ experiences-both good and bad.

Paul had an unusual response that related to listening and communication. Paul contributed a competency that was not offered by any other participant. One of his responses was precision. He stated that precision was needed in all aspects of his job. He explained that in cross-cultural communication precision in communicating was invaluable. Understanding cannot be assumed—be precise and thorough in the communication process. He also expects precision in all work-related tasks from himself and his followers.

However, the most unusual response to the inquiry was offered by Andrew. He contributed “the ability to clear your mind and sleep well” (Andrew, 439-40). He stated that his response was “pedestrian and mundane” (Andrew, 443); however, he had found that this was a vital competency that has enabled him to survive in his international leadership role. Andrew is the participant that flies between continents to take advantage of two harvests a year. He is the *flying winemaker* of the group.

The competencies provided by the participants resonated with the characteristics of a transformational leader that was cultural self-awareness enabling them to respond in the workplace with intercultural sensitivity and demonstrates the cognitive acuity of global mindset.
The responses were in alignment with the descriptions they had provided about their experiences as international leaders.

The CCAI scores also revealed several areas that need development. Three primary areas of opportunity are, (a) lack of sense of identity, (b) lack of ability to maintain values, and (c) dealing with stress. The developers of the CCAI have clearly stated that the intended use for the CCAI was to identify capacities, both strength and weakness and to use the findings as a tool for further professional development.

Stuller and Martin (1989) state that the best wine industry executives share certain characteristics. These shared characteristics are also characteristics that one could expect to find in the best executives of any industry. Self-assurance is a cited as a premium trait, along with the willingness to risk making a mistake, the willingness to personally accept responsibility when something goes wrong. Another crucial characteristic Stuller and Martin stress as common within wine industry leadership is a shared attitude with regard to lessons learned from hard experiences. The best leaders tend to accept the lessons as events that contribute to their expertise, not as painful or humiliating blunders. The industry’s leading executives are also said to have strong, easily articulated and understood guiding principles.

Acceptance of lessons from hard experiences corresponded with willingness to learn in the participants’ response column. Self assurance and strong principles from the Stuller & Martin characteristics correspond with self-assured and moderately strong value systems in the participants’ response column. There were many points of consistency in the competencies discussed in Columns #1 & 2.
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE, IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH, AND REFLECTIVE THOUGHTS

Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the research study findings, conclusions based upon the findings, limitations of the study, recommendations for practice, and implications for future research, followed by a section of reflective thoughts derived from the research study.

Summary of Findings

The summary of findings is presented in relationship to the four research questions that framed and guided the study.

Research Question #1 – What role did culture, values, and leadership style play in effective international leadership?

This research question sought to gain understanding with regard to the interplay between culture, values, and leadership style. There were two main variables, (a) culture and values and (b) leadership style. The quantitative data supported that the majority of the participants in the study practiced full range leadership with a strong tendency toward transformational leadership. The qualitative findings associated with research question #1 were divided into two sections per the two variables. Assessment of the qualitative findings for culture and values lead to five well-supported claims. The five claims are interdependent, and the success of one rests heavily upon the success of the other four. A holistic approach to accomplishing the five claims is necessary.
The qualitative findings for the second variable, leadership style lead to six well-documented claims.

*Culture & Values*

First, it is imperative that anyone with a desire to successfully lead in an intercultural context must progress toward cultural marginality. Cultural marginality allows the international leader to move easily between cultures.

Second, intercultural sensitivity is vital to the development of effective international leaders. The progress toward cultural marginality will be inhibited, if not completely blocked by a lack of intercultural sensitivity. Cultural self-awareness is a prerequisite to the development of intercultural sensitivity.

Third, an international leader must develop a consciousness, a keen sense of attentiveness to the national culture in which they will practice. The consciousness and attentiveness needs to begins prior to departure and continue throughout their assignment.

Fourth, to facilitate the development of cultural self-awareness, intercultural sensitivity, a heightened consciousness and attentiveness to the national culture of the country in which there are leading therefore resulting in cultural marginality, international exposure is critical. An international assignment with total immersion into the host country culture allows the transfer of tacit knowledge.

Fifth, an individual preparing for effective international leadership must be keenly aware that motivation is culturally bound and that most motivational theories are reflective of North American culture and value. The cultural influence and grounding of motivation makes it necessary for in international leader to understand what will motivate employees.
Culture and values play a significant role in an international leader’s ability to be effective. To provide the best opportunity for success in the international context a leader must strive for cultural marginality. Increasing cultural self-awareness which enhances intercultural sensitivity and assists the international leader in understanding the importance of national culture is an excellent starting point. However, the literature and the insight of the study participants support the only effective method of transferring tacit knowledge which is necessary for cultural marginality is by immersion in the form of an international assignment. The knowledge gained during an international assignment is indispensable as a source for understanding the factors that influence employee motivation.

Leadership Style

Assessment of the leadership style section of research question #1 lead to the construction of six claims. First, a high-quality emotional relationship between the leader and the follower creates an environment that enables the leader to better understand the followers’ needs. The high-quality emotional relationship also facilitates leader acceptance by the followers and leader acceptance enhances leader effectiveness.

Second, an international leader that develops employees to reach their optimal potential and therefore empowers the employee is facilitating the accomplishment of organizational goals and improving the leader’s effectiveness. This situation results in positive outcomes on three levels, (a) the organization, (b) the follower, and (c) the leader.

Third, an international leader can have a significant effect upon the quality of decisions by soliciting input from a variety of perspectives, including followers. A leader is ultimately responsible for the outcomes of decisions; however, follower involvement in the process improves
the ability of the leader to make solid, well-informed decisions and fosters an attitude of mutual responsibility toward organizational goals.

Fourth, an international leader can enhance the accomplishment of organizational goals by creating a team environment and actively participating as member of the team. The organizational goals work as a uniting element with a company, its leaders, and followers.

Fifth, a leader that is guided by a vision of the future and commitment to a higher cause can be a highly effective leader and accomplish organizational goals without compromising their social conscience. Commitment to a higher cause and vision of the future are defining features of transformational leadership. The quantitative findings of the MLQx5 supported the evidence of the participants being transformational leaders.

The last claim in the leadership section of research question #1 paid tribute to passion. A leader that exhibits a sincere, deep enthusiasm for the organizational goals, the well-being of the followers, and life in general will affect the organization on a functional and personal level while enhancing their leadership effectiveness. It is “an unquantifiable spark” (Andrew, 64-5).

Research Question #2 – How did the internal experience of the leader reflect externally in their practice of leadership?

This research question sought to explore the internalized experiences of the participants that played a role in the way they practice leadership. The claim from the responses to research question #2 is when an international leader passes through the phases of culture transfer and embraces the last phase, transcultural; the relationship between leader and follower is enhanced resulting in a positive outcome for the organization, the leader, and the follower. An international leader seeking an effective leadership approach should strive toward the transcultural phase of culture transfer.
Research Question #3 – What enabled international leaders to have an effective global mindset and perspective, accepting of a new paradigm?

This research question explored the phenomena of global mindset. What enables international leader to cultivate a global mindset, change their thinking, and embrace a new paradigm? The cognitive process of an international leader is fundamentally different than that of a domestic leader. They must have the mental capacity to see many different perspectives and distill the important matters from the incidentals. Three claims resulted from the data collected in response to research question #3.

First, individuals that embrace a global mindset are receptive to ideas differing from their own and readily accept change. Second, humility is a key characteristic necessary to embrace global mindset. Egocentric and ethnocentric thoughts are deterrents to effective global mindset. Humility is a competency that the participants placed on their list of valuable tools for an effective international leader.

The third and final claim resulting from the responses to research question #3 was one of the strongest prevailing themes of the entire study. This response focuses upon the influence of childhood experiences to the cultivation of global citizens with global mindsets.

Children that are raised in environments that are guided by a perspective of openness and are non-judgmental, culturally sensitive and enriched with a variety of culturally diverse activities adjust to the role of global citizen readily, almost transparently. The call for immediate action to begin more aggressive programs for the cultivation and nurturing of children to assume active roles in a global environment is the strength of the study.
Research Question #4 – What competencies did a globally mobile leader need to develop to be effective in international situations?

This research question sought to identify key competencies that could be used to identify and describe leadership practices that are most effective in the international context. The list of competencies resulting from the study is the foundation to a competency model; however this is a recommended area for further research for the creation of a competency model. Refer to Table 14, Chapter Four, p. 117, for the list of competencies identified in the study.

Conclusions

The results of the study replicated and extended the findings from earlier qualitative studies that examined cross-cultural leadership. The resulting enriched insight and understanding into international, cross-cultural leadership may be used by corporate executives, human resource professionals and individuals to assist in a heightened awareness of traits of that point toward successful globally mobile leadership candidates.

The results of this study provide support for recruiting global leadership talent, guidance for appropriate professional development and training and assistance in the preparation of succession plans. A greater understanding of the transnational phenomenon which can in turn lessen the financial and emotional costs of the frequent failure of international assignments and assist in the cultivation and preparation of a new model of international leadership and intercultural competencies.

The findings of the study and its recommendations are based upon findings in the wine industry. To be relevant outside of the wine industry, findings may need to be adapted to the uniqueness and peculiarities of other industry.

Based on the findings of this study the following conclusions are drawn:
Success in the global workplace will be strongly predicated upon a company’s ability to hire, train and/or develop employees that are responsive to the demands of globalization. Cultural self-awareness, intercultural sensitivity, culture transfer, cultural marginality at one time were luxuries, nice to have but not necessary. The speed at which the global marketplace is changing has made the one time luxuries, imperatives for survival.

Limitations of the Study

This research study attempted to provide a conceptual way of thinking about cross-cultural leadership. The conceptual frame provided insight into cross-cultural leadership in the situations studied and makes available a guide for other sites to be examined on a case-by-case approach. The wine industry is like many other industries that are encountering the ramifications of globalization. The findings of this study can be transferred to a variety of settings that are also experiencing globalization and the need for effective international leadership.

The singularity of industries represented in the study is a possible limitation; however, as this industry was selected as an exemplar of an agriculturally-based industry this limitation should be minimal.

The participants’ experiences were representative of a small number of national cultures. Findings may have been different if a broader range of national cultures was studied.

Variables that were not included into this study could also have an impact upon international leadership. There are many demographic variables, including but not limited to gender, age, and national origin that could have an impact on the effectiveness of an international leader.

The findings of the study may be subject to other interpretations. One of the philosophical assumptions underlying qualitative research is that “reality is not an objective
entity; rather, there are multiple interpretations of reality. The researcher thus brings a construction of reality to the research situation” (Merriam, 1998, p. 22). Due to the personal contact I had with the participants in this qualitative study, two areas of concern will be observer bias and observer effect. The observer bias may serve as a double edged blade, both serving as a source of weakness and of strength in the study. Personal involvement can create greater subjectivity while at the same time the involvement can provide an opportunity for greater understanding and insight.

Observer effect takes into account the difference that the researcher’s presence makes on the participants. Recognition of this situation and attempts to minimize the effect that the researcher has on the participants’ responses are measures that were taken to correct this condition.

“There is no way that the researcher can escape the social world in order to study it. Two people may interact with the same situation or product and have very different experiences and preconceptions of it and both can be equally valid” (Hignett, 2003, p. 883). This quote served as a guiding thought during the design and conduct of the study. Bias, or subjectivity was inescapable, but awareness that it exists served as the basis to address this threat to the integrity of the study.

Implications for Future Research

The results of this study indicated there is interaction and interplay between the variables of culture, values, and leadership style. Global mindset is a key factor in an individual’s ability to function effectively in a variety of diverse settings. More research in the area of global mindset, the contributors to, and distracters from the development of global mindset is needed.
Based on the findings of this study further research is needed to create a competency model for international leadership.

Recommendations for Practice

The results of this study indicate that childhood experiences are a pivotal area in the development of global citizens with global mindsets. Professional educators will play an important role in the cultivation and nurturing of global citizens. It will require that educators become the innovators. It will rest heavy upon the shoulders of educators to be visionary leaders. Educators will become the early adaptors to a new way of thinking—a new paradigm responsive to the challenges globalization. The recommendations for practice are based upon the findings of this study focus upon educational experiences prior to an individual entering the workforce.

Our educational system must take on the challenges of creating individuals that are worthy of global citizenship. It is strongly recommended that proficiency in a second language be a requirement to graduate from college. Monolingualism is a deterrent to successful international performance.

It is also strongly recommended that educational policy-makers do all that is possible to encourage, support and provide assistance to increase the participation of American students in international education and exchange programs.

Reflective Thoughts Derived From Research Study

United States’ institutions of higher education must devise innovative, progressive, and aggressive plans to remain intellectually and culturally viable as well as financially solvent. These plans must be implemented on campuses whose resources are already stretched. All of this must be accomplished in an environment with a heightened focus on accountability which frequently usurps valuable but already limited resources (Taylor, 2004).
Citizenship of the global community is the birth-right of all. It is the interconnectedness and interdependence which make it imperative that as purveyors of higher education we prepare future generations for global citizenship.

The challenges created by globalization and the expectations placed upon the globally competent citizen requires an immediate rethinking in our approach to education undergraduate education. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching: Reinventing Undergraduate Education emphasizes the international dimensions of study (Altbach and Peterson, 1998). Goodman (2004) deems an international education experience so critical that is should be a core requirement of each and every university program. The results of my study suggest that immediate action to implement provisions which will make international educational experiences a feasible core requirement for all students are needed.

International education and exchanges provide situations and opportunities to advance understandings of international consumers, markets, customs, traditions, strengths and weaknesses (Clinton, 2000; Grosvenor, 1988; Hunter, 2004; Levine, 2005; and Riley, 2002). International experiences are the ideal starting point to “build bridges of dialogue and understanding, and respect” (Riley).

The youth that occupy seats in our classrooms today will be the adults that will occupy seats of leadership in the future. It is these students that will be the bridge builders. Goodman (2004) suggests that “the most critical success factors for countries as well as companies are people whose minds are open to the world”. The research findings of this study support the critical importance of global citizenship, open-mindedness and the preparation process needed for both. Tomorrow’s leaders will need to be equipped with a wide array of problem-defining and problem-solving skills that transcend continental, cultural, and linguistic boundaries (Hunter,
International education provides an environment in which these skills may be developed and refined.

International activity is rated as low priority for many United States scholars (Goodman, 2004). Less than one percent of United States undergraduates study abroad (Hayward, 2000; Institute, 2005). The American Council of Education (ACE) has voiced their stance on the importance of international education with little room for doubt—“our future success or failure in international endeavors will rest almost entirely on the global competence of our people” (ACE, 2000).

It is upon the shoulders of higher education to lead the campaign to put into immediate action what has been murmured, uttered, discussed, and left with inadequate action for many years. Our time is now. Immediate implementation of programs that provide financial support for all students to complete an international experience in satisfaction of a global competency core requirement must become a concern of all stakeholders of higher education—university administration, faculty, students, government representatives, corporations and businesses, in total the entire population of the global community. We all have a stake in the global competence of tomorrow’s leadership.

As discussed in the preceding chapter, without exception each of the study’s participants discussed the role of passion in pursuit of their individual careers. This dissertation has made me keenly aware of the importance of preparing a leadership base with a strong global mindset and the role globally aware leaders will play in the security and success of the United States of the future. This heightened awareness has sparked a new passion to fuel my personal career path. I would like to close this portion of my journey with a quote that addresses what is needed to
provide graduates of United States institutions of higher education a more desirable level of preparedness as they become active participants in the global community.

“U.S. international leadership, competitiveness, and national security are increasingly dependent on international and cross-cultural awareness on the part of U.S. citizens. Our foreign policy goals are enhanced immeasurably by international education – both American scholarship abroad and international leaders who have studied in the U.S. and consequently better understand our culture and system of government.” Secretary of State Madeleine K. Albright on the occasion of the Release of President Clinton’s Executive Memorandum on U.S. International Education Policy, April 20, 2000.
REFERENCES


Erickson, F. (1986). Qualitative methods in research on teaching. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (pp. 119-161). New York, NY: Macmillan.


House, R., Hanges, P., Ruiz-Quintanilla,A., Dorfman, P., Javidan, M., Dickson, M., Gupta, V. and 170 co-authors (1999). Cultural influences on leadership and


APPENDIX A
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVED APPLICATION

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date: Monday, September 15, 2008
IRB Application No AG0836
Proposal Title: Cross-cultural Leadership: Interaction of Culture, Values, and Leadership Style
Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved Protocol Expires: 9/14/2009
Principal Investigator(s):
Rhonda J. Damusker Kathleen Kelsey
210 North Murray 400 Ag Hall
Stillwater, OK 74078 Stillwater, OK 74078

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

* The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are attached to this letter. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Beth McTernan in 719 Cordell North (phone: 405-744-5700, beth.mcternan@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Shelley Kennison, Chair
Institutional Review Board
APPENDIX B

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVED
LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT
FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPATION

INFORMED CONSENT
FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPATION

Project Title: Cross-Cultural Leadership: The Interaction of Culture, Values and Leadership Style

Investigators: Primary Investigator: Rhonda Danuser, Doctoral Candidate and Advisor: Kathleen Kelsey, Ph.D

Purpose:
The purpose of this research study is to examine the interaction of culture, values, and leadership style exhibited in cross-cultural leaders in the wine industry. Data collected will be used to provide further insight into the experiences of leaders in cross-cultural situations such as you. This study will contribute to our understanding of how leaders develop their skill and how potential leaders can learn to improve their competencies (specific knowledge, skills, aptitudes, and attitudes) related to leadership practices that are most effective in the international context. Additional insight into your cross-cultural experiences will help me to create a rubric to develop traits of globally mobile leadership candidates that will serve your industry.

You are part of an elite group that has been selected to participate in the study based upon your international leadership experience. You are known in the industry as globally mobile leader. I would like to learn from you: (1) what roles do culture, values, and leadership style play in effective international leadership? (2) how do your experiences as a leader manifest in your daily practice? (3) what enables international leaders such as yourself to maintain a global mindset and perspective? and (4) what competencies did you develop as a globally mobile leader to be effective in international situations?

Procedures:
In order to be a part of this important study, I’m asking you to participate in a one-hour interview with me, the project investigator, Rhonda Danuser via telephone at your convenience. The interviews will be audio-taped. All electronic data will be stored on the project investigator’s personal computer, not a network. The computer is password protected. The audio-tapes will be transcribed by a professional transcriptionist. The transcriptionist has signed a confidentiality agreement which I have on file. You also will be requested to complete two questionnaires: the MLQ-5 to identify leadership style and the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI) to assist in an assessment of cultural adaptability. The estimated time needed to complete both questionnaires is forty-five minutes. A self-addressed, postage paid envelope has been provided for you to return a signed copy of this Letter of Consent and both of the completed questionnaires. I have enclosed an extra copy of the Letter of Consent for your records.

Risks:
There are no known risks associated with this project which are greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life.

Benefits:
The benefits of this study will be support for recruiting global leadership talent, guidance for appropriate professional development and training, and assistance in the preparation of personnel succession plans.
Confidentiality:
The project investigator will keep all archival documents (audiotapes, notes, transcripts, and reports) pertaining to the study in a locked storage cabinet for one year. After all phases of the study are completed and journal articles written, the data will be shredded, but not later than September 1, 2009. Only the investigator will know the identity of the interviewee and the subsequent transcript. After the interview process is completed, names will disappear from the documents and be replaced with a code. Only the codes will be present in written documents to protect participants' identities. All the data will be reported in aggregate. Only the investigator will code the raw data; thus through each successive phase of the study, the participants' identities will be transformed into an amalgamation or composite individuals that represent the mean. Direct quotations used in reporting will be cleaned for any identifying factors that could be traced back to the participants. The OSU IRB has the authority to inspect consent records and data files to assure compliance with approved procedures.

Participants Rights:
Participation in this study is entirely voluntary. If you choose to participate in the study, you are free to withdraw permission at any time. You may also decline to participate. You will not be penalized for withdrawing or declining. If at any time during this study you have questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant you may contact:

Shelia Kennison, Ph.D., Chair, Institutional Review Board
219 Cordell North, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078
(405) 744-1676 or irb@okstate.edu

If you have further questions or concerns, please contact Rhonda Danuser or Kathleen Kelsey at the following provided addresses and telephone numbers. Thank you for participating in the study.

Rhonda Danuser
Principal Investigator
Oklahoma State University, 210 North Murray Hall
Stillwater, OK 74078 (405) 880-1425

Kathleen Kelsey, Ph.D., Advisor
466 Ag Hall, Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK 74078 (405) 744-8137

I certify that I have read and fully understand the consent form, that by providing the information below I agree to the terms and conditions freely and voluntarily, and that I am retaining a copy of this form that has been made available to me.

Signature
Printed Name
Date

Primary Investigator's Signature: ____________________________
APPENDIX C
INTERVIEW PROTOCOL
Interview Protocol

Open conversation with:
Introduce self and purpose of study
Review IRB Consent Form
Review rights of Participants
  Voluntary
  Right to withdrawal at any time
  Right to not harmed
  Right to be anonymous
Any questions or concerns?
We are going to record this interview so that I can focus on what you are saying, not writing it all down. Is that OK with you?

Demographics
Gender
Age Range
Educational profile
  Highest achieved
  Field of study
Languages spoken

Leadership
How would you describe your leadership style and habits?
Have you always subscribed to this leadership style? Changed? Evolved?
What has influenced your adoption of your current leadership style and the development of your personal style of leadership?
What advice regarding leadership would you give to a friend who is being sent on an international assignment?

Probing questions to follow up on participants statements.

Values in Leadership
In your leadership role, tell me about what motivates you?
You must make a difficult decision in the workplace, describe to me what guides your decision-making process?
Describe the guiding principles that you find most important in the people you work with? *(Key events that influence the value of the need for honesty and building trust)*?

How do you perceive yourself in regard to these guiding principles? *(Key events that shaped the importance of being flexible and adapting to the environment)*?

*(Did you have any early role models that reinforced the importance of maintaining and following through on principles and beliefs, being fair and consistent)*?

Probing questions to follow up on participants statements.

**International Leadership Experience**

Define cross-cultural experience:

Prior to your international assignment what type of cross-cultural experience did you have?

Tell me about your interests in international work and how you got started in that direction?

Tell me more about your first international assignment?

What were your first thoughts when you were informed that you were being sent on an international assignment? *Did you consider not taking the assignment*?

Did you receive any pre-assignment training to prepare you for the new culture that you were to experience while on assignment?

Once you were in place, tell me about the first few days.

What were some of your first new insights with regard to the culture into which you moved?

Describe your relationship with the individuals whom you supervised.

Describe your relationship with the home organization.

Describe your living situation?

With whom did you mainly socialize? (People from your own country, third-country expatriates, or host-country nationals)

How many host-country co-workers did you interact with on an average day?

Do you have any interest in another international assignment?
If you had to select people to work on an international assignment, what characteristics would you look for?

Probing questions to follow up on participants statements.

**In summary**

What role did culture, values, and leadership styles play in your international leadership experience?

How did your internal experiences as a leader reflect externally in your practice of leadership?

What enabled you as an international leader to have an effective global mindset and perspective, and be accepting of a new paradigm?

What competencies does a globally mobile leader need to develop to be effective in international situations?
### APPENDIX D
MLQx5 Normative Sample Scores

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VITA

Rhonda J. Danuser
Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Dissertation: CROSS-CULTURAL LEADERSHIP: THE INTERACTION OF CULTURE, VALUES, AND LEADERSHIP STYLE

Major Field: Agricultural Education, Communication, and Leadership

Biographical:

Education:
Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Agricultural Education, Communication, and Leadership at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in July, 2009.

Experience:
Training/Facilitating/Planning
Lecturer in Oklahoma State University Speech Communication Program
Oklahoma State University Certified Online Instructor Certification Program
Member of course curriculum development committee
Repeat guest presenter at Upward Bound
Faculty advisor at Camp Cowboy
Designer & facilitator of new-employee orientation classes at manufacturing plant
Coach for acceptance corporate-sponsored apprenticeship program

Communications—Written & Oral
Author and creator of “Scraps & Rags of Freedom”, a multimedia instructional tool to promote cultural diversity appreciation
Managed the implementation & daily operations of corporate communications
Corporate communications team member and writer for quarterly international news magazine

Project Management/Analytical-Critical Thinking & Problem-Solving
Author of dissertation proposal entitled "Globally Mobile Leadership: The Role of Culture and Leadership Style”.
Investigator in program evaluation of campus volunteer program.
Author of research project entitled “Case Study Investigating the Influence of Front-Line Supervisor Emotional Awareness on the Early Detection, Prevention and Management of Type III Workplace Violence”.

Professional Memberships:

Member, Phi Kappa Phi - Honor Society
Member, Gamma Sigma Delta – Agricultural Honor Society
Student Affiliate, American Psychological Association
Student Affiliate, Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology
Student Affiliate, Society for Personality & Social Psychology
Findings and Conclusions:
Leadership that is responsive to and capable of handling business on a global scale is needed. To better supply the increasing needs of an internationally effective workforce and leadership; agriculturally-based industries must have a better understanding and an enriched insight into the role that culture, values, leadership style, and global mindset play in effective international leadership.

The purpose of the study was to examine the interaction of culture, values, and leadership style exhibited in cross-cultural leaders working in the wine industry.

Data collected in the mixed method case study was used to provide further insight and understanding of the experiences of American leaders in cross-cultural situations. The enriched insight and understanding lead to the identification of a set of key competencies (specific knowledge, skills, aptitudes, and attitudes), which can be used to identify and describe leadership practices that are most effective in the international context. The enriched insight and understanding into the cross-cultural phenomenon may be used by corporate executives, human resource professionals and individuals to assist in a heightened awareness of traits of that point toward globally mobile leadership candidates.

The results of this study indicate that childhood experiences are a pivotal area in the development of global citizens with global mindsets. The recommendations for practice are based upon the findings of this study focus upon educational experiences prior to an individual entering the workforce.

Our educational system must take on the challenges of creating individuals that are worthy of global citizenship. It is strongly recommended that proficiency in a second language be a requirement to graduate from college. Monolingualism is a deterrent to successful international performance.

It is also strongly recommended that educational policy-makers do all that is possible to encourage, support and provide assistance to increase the participation of American students in international education and exchange programs.