UNIVERSITY OF LJUBLJANA
FACULTY OF ECONOMICS

MASTER'S THESIS

# A MULTICULTURAL ANALYSIS OF LEADERSHIP PRACTICES IN SLOVENIA AND SPAIN

Ljubljana, September 2013                                    MARKO SLANC

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# INTRODUCTION

**Problem description and purpose of the master thesis**. Leadership is about how to adjust the behavior of an individual/team when achieving working and business goals. In the frames of leadership we can mention the importance of advising, informing, teaching, scaling and the development of employees. Leadership has to be aligned with the characteristics of the organization and culture, abilities of the leader and character of the people that are being led by that leader. It is very complex to lead an organizational unit or a bigger organization, because there is always a lack of information, especially about employees, amongst which, everyone has specific values, interests, knowledge and motivation. Leadership is hereby one of the key organizational components that primarily influences on employees with the aim to elevate motivation, effectiveness and satisfaction of subordinates, enhance organizational systems, besides being a significant element determining the performance of the organization.

Some decades ago businesses was conducted only in a domestic environment, now leaders have been surrounded by many different cultures using different leadership practices, lifestyle and management styles. Leaders have to deal with a vast amount of difficult and continuously changing situations, which above all are not easy to be interpreted. Those that are entering into eastern and western markets, acquiring new businesses and shaping more and more installations away from domestic borders, are dealing with leadership challenges. Managing these factors has become extremely incorporated into the leadership role, where most are not certain how they can apply various types of leadership which is promoted by domestic and foreign consultants in their cultures, institutions and specific circumstances. There are more evidence each day, giving us hints that cultures differ to the extent that value and employ different leadership behaviors.

Global market and increasing internationalization have made aware of the similarities and differences in how people are managed. As organizations work internationally, many of their managers are transferred, expressing the significance of leadership and the question of cultural differences. The variety of culture across the world represents essential challenges with regards to leadership in organizations operating across the globe. Hereby cultural context presents a substantial impact on leadership understanding. Due to this it has been essential for effective management styles to understand culture and its effect on leadership where people are managed coming from different cultures and with different needs.

The effectiveness of the today and tomorrows management is linked to the amount of insights we have about the leadership and or culture. Considering this, it can be useful to present empirical data showing the variation of culture in comparison to the concepts of leadership. Regrettably, there hasn't been enough supporting analysis that organizations could use as a guide when confronting challenges which likely tend to be the selection of

appropriate leaders for the culture in which they will be operating, management of culturally heterogeneous employees and mostly the creation of multinational organizational structures. However, the adjustment of concepts of leadership in a way to make it useful in various cultures, has been receiving many focus besides being acknowledged as influencer on leadership behavior and effectiveness (e.g. Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, Dorfman & GLOBE, 1999; House, Wright & Aditya, 1997; Hunt & Petersen, 1997). Cross-cultural studies serve as well in order to understand leadership in various cultures or in multinational environment. Not only they are getting more culturally, ethnically and internationally diverse, they also give useful guidelines how to achieve leadership effectiveness in organizations.

Leadership behavior and the culture amongst countries inside the European Union, is quite interesting as both divergent and convergent approaches can be found. The European Union provides the constitution where many explanations of national or organizational variance can be found. As the mentioned convergence is promoted by technology, market forces and institutional context, cultural forces apply more to divergent tendencies. Particular unit selection in a study is crucial in order to obtain useful conclusions. Whenever the study uses a cluster of countries backed up by cultural compatibility in order to test how culture and nationality could influence on leadership, this may result in different outputs in regards to other studies that just use for the same purpose particular countries from the same cluster from different clusters.

However cultural differences have often been taken for granted or only verbally described when considering cross-cultural leadership studies (Hunt & Peterson, 1997). Due to this, the lack of appropriate testing and measurement has led to many barriers to the discussion of whether the differences found are really associated to cultural differences. In order to get a better overview about leadership behavior in regards to culture, I had to measure cultural differences across the two countries in scope in a proper and reliable manner. Here my interest is, from a cross-cultural context, how leadership behavior changes with the application of different cultural dimensions. I am willing to approach this with the attempt to conceptually link leadership practices obtained from the sample and cultural dimensions. The purpose of this thesis, with the help of domestic and especially foreign literature focused on the most developed neocharismatic and transformational leadership theories which tend to provide a good explanation about leadership behavior, is to analyze to what degree culture affects leadership behavior in Slovenia as in Spain based on their leadership practices. Based on this, the theoretical framework needs to be developed and investigated based on the usage of leadership practices, whether there are similarities or differences from the collected sample of Slovene and Spanish people. For this research samples will be used built on "managers" (adult respondents that have experience with leadership, meaning that have already managed people). Based on this more accurate results will be obtained as the sample respondents provide a broader and deeper overview about leadership practices and due to sampling type itself.

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**Objective of the master thesis**. On the first look we might state that Slovenes and Spaniards do not have a lot in common, but before confirming or declining we need to take a deeper look into the country profiles. Based on GLOBEs clustering of societal cultures, Slovenes are a part of the Eastern European cluster while the Spaniards are a part of the Latin European cluster formed by regions which are influenced by Roman culture. Geographically the distance between their capitals is fairly great (Ljubljana – Madrid: 1597 km), the history between both is very different and their languages have little in common. However, when taking a deeper look into the profiles of those two countries, we can find some similarities amongst their economic situations and development before entering the European union and as well country heterogeneity.

As the main objective of the thesis is the connection of leadership behavior and culture, or as already mentioned, the link between leadership practices and cultural dimensions, I plan to expose culture as one of more significant factors influencing on leadership and so on the behavior when having the two countries Slovenia and Spain in the scope, through the following research question below:

**What are the similarities and differences of leadership behavior between Slovenia and Spain?**

The main research will be followed by some side objectives as:

- For which leadership practices the differences are the lowest/highest or not exist based on the leadership practices scores?
- To what extent does culture affect leadership behavior in Slovenia and Spain based on their leadership practices scores?

Based on the survey sample of Slovenia and Spain, backed up by literature and the research objective I will be able to obtain valuable results and hereby form a conclusion.

**Methods of analytical approach.** The method of work will be learning about leadership and culture in Slovenia and Spain, especially in terms of connections between them. Based on the theoretical background presentation on the problems of leadership and culture, I will introduce the idea of their real and potential mutual influence. From the methodological aspect I will initially examine leadership and culture. In the theoretical part, I will consider the characteristics and methods of leadership and culture from a national perspective. The method of analytical approach that I will use in my master thesis will be based on the study of theoretical knowledge in the field of leadership and culture, in particular the leadership and its basic characteristics and specificities (descriptive method). When writing I will focus on domestic, foreign literature and especially cross-cultural researches on leadership with the emphasis on culture.

The empirical part of the thesis will be based on research that was conducted through the comparative survey among Slovene and Spanish people. This is a quantitative method of data acquisition and a classic way to explore this type of issue called the Leadership Practices Inventory or LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 1993) which represents a standardized survey instrument which collects responses of five transformational leadership practices from the sample by self-reporting. This comparative survey is designed in a way to cover the key elements of the theme and to answer to the research objectives. Data needed for the comparative country overview will be collected from different secondary sources. In the concluding section I will summarize the method of synthesis the theoretical and practical knowledge that I have obtained and form a conclusion based on the thesis objective. In this way, I will be able to obtain information on the leadership behavior and determine the similarities and differences of leadership behavior in Slovenia and Spain.

**Structure overview**. The structure of the master thesis is divided in four chapters and includes the following content sections. In the beginning the introduction identifies the problem, purpose, objectives and method of work that is completed with this structure overview. The first chapter is identifying leadership and culture that are two broad knowledge areas presenting the basis of this cross-cultural leadership research. Firstly, leadership theories show an understanding of the link between behavior and each of the type of leadership. In addition, a review of the major leadership theories is made. Secondly, dimensions of culture try to give a good overview of culture and dimensions that examine culture as the basis of comparison between countries. Thirdly, the chapter concludes the description of culture influence on leadership. This part shows potential influence of culture on leadership and how important it can be in cross-cultural leadership research in the present time. In order to better understand this impact, analysis between Slovenia and Spain (a comparative country overview) is needed, built on historical, cultural and economic data and described in the second chapter obtained from the secondary sources. In addition the two countries in scope are as well presented in terms of cultural dimensions found in the GLOBE research. At the end the chapter presents specific hypotheses that lead the empirical research and will be tested based on the empirical part later on. The third chapter is focusing on a design of the cross-cultural research. First there is the discussion about methodological problems that can occur within this, followed by the explanation of the most commonly applied methods within cross-cultural analysis such as survey instrument and sampling procedure. With the end of this section, the focus turns to empirical data. Starting with the empirical part, the forth chapter describes the sample collected and its characteristics. By means of this, the comparison of leadership practices between Slovenia and Spain is presented. This comparison is made based on the gender, age, working experience and business sector. At the end this is summarized to what level culture influences leadership in general and based on the indicators described above. Following with the discussion, the key facts are presented based on the objectives set in the introductory chapter. This part is testing and presenting key findings based on the hypotheses set in the second chapter. The ending section is a summary of the whole master

thesis, including the discussion of possible limitations and suggestions for any further research.

# 1 CULTURAL IMPACT ON LEADERSHIP

## 1.1 Leadership

In all societies there is greater or smaller number of formal and informal groups in which individual group members show explicit influence over other members. The dominant position of some members of the group is one of the characteristics of the joint structure. Individuals with an important or outstanding position, or leaders, are formed in various structured, or unstructured, groups. Leaders are therefore individuals who have or have had a significant impact in the area where they are enforced. Therefore, it can be concluded that it is personality that has a great temporary or lasting impact on the lives of certain groups or the whole society.

In these terms, leadership has a similar impact on the organization due to being old as much as the humanity itself. The interpretation and understanding of leadership has always been a desire of many individuals throughout history. In the past, leadership was highly correlated with power, influence, wealth and it is therefore not surprising that it was always surrounded by mysticism, mystery, and revered as something that is very attractive, but also dangerous and at the same time, remote and inaccessible to everyone. Therefore it has been and remains even in modern societies associated with a certain distribution of power and the availability of resources.

Many companies believe that their competitive advantage is speed, flexibility, good organizational culture, effective organizational structure, excellent processes, innovative marketing and exceptional quality products. Behind all these concepts, processes and approaches there are people and there is the leadership. The purpose of leadership is to establish a communication and promotion of individual group behavior in order to drive success in achieving organizational goals. On the other hand the importance of leadership for the successful operation of organizations has been confirmed by many studies in the past decades that examined the dependence between the quality of leadership on one hand, and the success of the team, unit or company on another. The results are often complex, ambiguous and contradictory, as they depend on the choice of the sample and definitions of quality leadership. Most of them result in the conclusion that good leaders have important influence on the output or performance of the company, regardless of whether performance is measured through sales, profit, customer satisfaction or employee satisfaction (Hočevar, Jaklič & Zagoršek, 2003). For long-term growth and development of the company implementation it is considered even more important than the creation of a genuine strategy. For a strategy in order to flourish, the employees must understand the

strategic goals, believe in them and have sufficient knowledge and be skilled enough to reach them. Within this, leadership plays a crucial role at all levels of the company.

Leadership may have a narrower and a broader meaning. Keeping it in broad terms it exists in order to ensure corporate goals, while keeping it in narrow terms, it exists whenever someone wants to influence the behavior of individuals and their goals. Objectives should be mutually consistent, agreed and supported by the business and participants. In general, leadership is harder to define than profits or costs. It consists of "soft" things like ideas, values, energy, and loyalty to the company, excitement, satisfaction of employees, vision and concern for others. Precisely these elements are responsible for the fact that the market value of long-term business success is often higher than its book value as this value is represented as "solid" assets – machinery, buildings and money.

### 1.1.1 Definitions of leadership

The research literature in this area is quite extensive. There is to be found more than just a single definition of leadership, even though there are no major differences between known definitions. The reasons for this are numerous. Each organization operates within particular cultural, socio-political and economic areas. Beliefs, values, rules and expectations all impact on the way the organization operates. The reasons can be found in the fact that leadership is considered by various experts from scientific fields and disciplines, and in the very complexity of leadership. Kavčič (1991) claims, that the differences of definitions are based on differences in the degree of vertical and horizontal differentiation of the organization, the extent of decentralization and the mode and level of integration. Different organizational structures also make a difference in the definition of leadership. Known and often quoted is the Stogdill's (1974, p. 259) statement saying: "there are almost as many definitions as there are persons who attempted to define the concept". Usually the definition of leadership is as well formulated in a way that it fulfills the current job or a particular research (Yukl, 1994). Most definitions of leadership are inter-related and differ mainly on the basis of how precise and comprehensive they want to be. Leadership should be one of those qualities that you can recognize when you see it, but it still hard to describe it. Still many relate to leadership as one man leadership. From this perspective four things stand out (Doyle & Smith, 2001):

- Leadership includes influencing on others.
- There where the leaders are, are also the followers.
- Leaders generally become visible once innovative response is demanded to a particular case or special problem.
- Leaders are people with clear idea, vision or goal, something to achieve and why.

Based on the definitions that have been proposed, it appears that there each definition has much less in common than originally thought. The definitions differ in many aspects,

especially from the point of how the influence is used and transferred on to the followers. In the following paragraphs, listing of some of the better known definitions can be found.

As a starting point we can take the definition of leadership designed by Mayer (Kovač & Jesenko, 2004). In his view, leadership is a process where a leader affects the people that (mutually) achieve (agreed) goals using his specific skills, personal qualities and skills and using specific behaviors. We understand this influence as a generic term covering a number of elements: entrusting, encouragement, motivation, guidance, negotiation, conflict resolution, communication, etc.

Yukl (2006, p. 8) describes leadership as "the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives". With other words it defines leadership by which an individual in a group or organization affects the selection of objectives, interpretation of events, employee motivation and organization of work activities in order to achieve organizational goals, maintenance of cooperative relations and support and cooperation from outside organizations.

Leadership refers to the people, how to guide them, to influence, in order to maximize the tasks, while minimizing energy costs and with much as possible personal satisfaction. The aim of leadership is to create a behavior of individuals, groups working to achieve organizational goals. The leadership is shown in the act of giving advice, information, evaluation and employee development. Here is also important the atmosphere, relationships, work culture and behavior in the organization (Možina, 1994a).

Rozman, Kovač and Koletnik (1993) define leadership as influencing the behavior and functioning as individual as the group of the company and directing their action towards the set goals. Together with other management functions, leadership contributes to effectiveness and to the success of the company.

Leadership can be defined as a socially influential process where the leader seeks for the voluntary assistance of subordinates and their support to achieve goals (Kreitner, 1989). Hočevar, Jaklič and Zagoršek (2003) study leadership as the art of command how to influence others to want to do something that needs to be accomplished. In other words, leadership is the process which aim is to influence on individuals or an organized group towards the achievement of goals where collaboration between leaders and the followers is equally distributed.

With leadership we refer to a special case of interpersonal relationship. On one side we have the person who leads, on the other, followers (managed), between them there is a relationship called leadership. This relationship does not provide only one side but on both

parties. Their joint creation might be a positive or negative result of leadership. Quality leadership depends on the quality of their relationships (Brajša, 1983).

It has long been clear that leadership is not an innate characteristic. Leadership is a complicated and complex process and not a single act but a series of many events relating to the guidance and monitoring of employees (Možina, 2002). What style of leadership the leader chooses depends on the personal characteristics of leaders, environmental organizations, the atmosphere and relations within it, the culture of work and employees themselves. Or as Kets de Vries (2000, p. 25) states: "Leadership is the art, which aim is to create an environment that encourages people, inspires and enhances the excitement that connects employees with their tasks to do their best".

**1.1.2 Overview of mayor leadership theories**

Studies of leadership have been introduced in many different ways, all depending on the leadership interpretation of the researcher and his or her preferences. The study enjoyed an increase in the general interest in the early twentieth century. Among all, leadership has been classified in various different manners and there is still a great deal of terminological confusion surrounding the topic. Most leadership theories have been long established and from those, the first leadership theories focused on behavior and how leaders and the followers can be distinguished based on their qualities. The subsequent theories focused on other variable which provided more significance to the role of followers as we talk about situational factors and skill levels. From all those, very few theories and models have prevailed and many of those have just been enhanced repetitions of the existing ones. From all those that were developed, most of them can be categorized into one of the eight major leadership theories.

1.1.2.1 "Great Man" theory

In the early beginning leadership theories accredited success of a leader based on the possession of extraordinary skills such as: "tireless energy, penetrating intuition, uncanny foresight and irresistible persuasive powers" (Yukl, 2006, p. 13). This concept was named "Great Man" theory assuming that the leadership is built-in or with other words that great leaders are born, not made or that they will arise when there is the need for it. These theories believed that those "Men" with inborn extraordinary abilities are meant to lead. In this way the word "Man" is only used due to the fact that leadership was initially considered as a concept controlled by males. Based on this most of those leaders where male and the term "Great Woman" was active in other ranges than leadership. One important fact when talking about the "Great Man" theory is as well that most of the examiners were male, and concerns emphasizing masculine bias were far way from being implemented. Habitually these theories present great leaders as mythic, heroic with the destiny to arise when needed. At the end the term "Great Man" was used like this as in that

point of time this was mainly associated with the qualities of a male emphasizing it in terms of military leadership.

1.1.2.2 Trait theory

Very much alike in some ways to in-depth interview to the "Great Man" theory, 'Trait theory' considers that people inherit certain characteristics or traits so that they can be well adjusted for leadership. Trait theory usually identifies behavioral or personal characteristics of an individual shared by leaders. The concept considers the main question as how to explain if particular traits are key attributes of leadership, to people who possess those qualities but are not leaders. This is one of the most difficult questions when using trait theory to explain leadership. The descendent of the "Great Man" theory is the trait theory which is recognizing main aspects and characteristics of successful leaders as a suggestion that certain dispositional characteristics or traits differentiate leaders from followers. So far, many different trait studies agree in general that only on qualities that are needed to be a leader, and for quite some time inborn traits were neglected as taught and situational factors proved to be much more accurate reasons for people getting those leadership positions. In this way, attention turned on discovering traits commonly found by examining leaders that had a lot of success, but with the basic premise that they could also become leaders only if other people could be found with these traits. Table 1 lists the traits and skills Stogdill classified as critical to leaders.

Table 1. Leadership skills and traits

| Traits | Skills |
|---|---|
| • Adaptable to situations | • Clever (intelligent) |
| • Alert to social environment | • Conceptually skilled |
| • Ambitious and achievement-orientated | • Creative |
| • Assertive | • Diplomatic and tactful |
| • Cooperative | • Fluent in speaking |
| • Decisive | • Knowledgeable about group task |
| • Dependable | • Organized (administrative ability) |
| • Dominant (desire to influence others) | • Persuasive |
| • Energetic (high activity level) | • Socially skilled |
| • Persistent | |
| • Self-confident | |
| • Tolerant of stress | |
| • Willing to assume responsibility | |

Source: G. A. Yukl, *Leadership in Organizations,* 1994, p. 256.

On the other hand success and failure was defined by McCall and Lombardo (1983) in four principal traits, showing how leaders could succeed or fail.

- **Emotional stability and composure**: Calm, confident and predictable, particularly when under stress.
- **Admitting error**: Owning up to mistakes, rather than putting energy into covering up.
- **Good interpersonal skills**: Able to communicate and persuade others without resort to negative or coercive tactics.
- **Intellectual breadth**: Able to understand a wide range of areas, rather than having a narrow (and narrow-minded) area of expertise.

It has been noted that there is a lot of value in classifying the character traits linked with leadership. It creates even more value in identifying the character traits that followers seek for in a leader. These traits would be the characteristic of an individual who is most likely to attract followers. However, a substantial amount of studies were unsettled when defining that some leaders had traits, the absence of them didn't really imply that the person was not a leader. Consequently, other approaches focused on research efforts.

1.1.2.3 Contingency theories

When hearing of c**ontingency theory** we generally assume that the thought is about the common expression "contingency". With other words, we can say that contingency is something which is caused or rather dependent by another event or simply that it is an unexpected event. And so the word **contingent** at its very root represents an interactive group of people connected or dependent between leaders and followers.

Fiedler and Woodward initiated the study in the early 1960s about leadership styles and general behavior of managers. Until then, the attention of other psychologists (industrial sector) was more focused on the personal traits of successful leaders which believed in the ideal science of organization. They were of the opinion that this is the most efficient way to run a group or company which was able to develop the best decisions and business practices. Hereby the significance of contingency theories is that they have affected almost all theories of management with the confirmation that there is no ideal approach to organization.

Contingency theories, as a class of behavioral theory of leadership, focus on specific variables linked to the environment with the capability to define which leadership style is appropriate for each situation. In accordance with this, some leadership styles might work in some situations and in some it might not work at all. This is dependent on a leadership style, number of variables, situation aspects and qualities of the followers. In addition, it is strongly dependent on the synergy of external and internal factors with the organization. As an example we can say that leader's ability is dependent by the follower's perception and the actual relationship of the leader with them together, including the level of agreement on the scope of a given objective.

The ability of a leader to lead depends on many situational factors, first most is preferred style of a leader, followers' behavior and capabilities and some other situational factors. The problematic factor here is that leaders may become unsuccessful in a different situation or a change of influencing factors, even if they are usually very effective in a given place and time. With the agreement of situational contingency theory and contingency theory that there is no single perfect solution for the organization, this led to the development of general contingency theories. It was as well mentioned by many situational contingency theorists that a match between the style of the leader and situational demands is needed in order to evaluate group effectiveness. This was called "situational control" by Fiedler, where the leader can effectively and proactively influence actions and behaviors of the group.

**Contingency theory of leadership** which was originally designed by Fiedler is based on two classifications of leaders that are motivated with the need to complete a given task (task-orientated) and on the other hand those that are motivated by supportive and close relations with group members (people-orientated). The framework for this theory included the assessment of a potential leader with the mentioned gauge of working style stretching from task to relationship oriented. The first aspect is the atmosphere which is described as the loyalty and confidence of a group towards the leader. The second aspect is the clarity or the ambiguity of the structure of the task of the group. The important role in group performance is recognized as the inherent authority or the power of the leader (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano & Dennison, 2003).

The research of Lawrence and Lorsch in the seventies, amongst others, concentrated less on Fielder's' estimation of leadership, but much more on the effect of external and internal factors on the structure of organization. Pennings performed an extensive study of group structural organizational contingency theories. In this, he measured is the effectiveness of the structure of the organization and its ability towards adapting and fitting to changing business environments.

Another well-known contingency approach was House's **paths and goals** model that considered as one of the most respected methods. It is a contingency model of situational leadership focusing on how the leader encourages and motivates followers to allow them to achieve a set of objectives or goals. House believes that the satisfaction and motivation of followers could be encouraged in various ways, through clarifying the path for achieving the goals, removing barriers and increasing the rewards along the process of implementation. This model states that leaders impose duties through engaging with the task and engaging with colleagues, combining various theories linked with four styles of leadership characteristics of behavior: directive leadership, participative leadership, supportive leadership and achievement oriented leadership (Hunsaker, 2001).

Vroom and Yetton (1973) developed somehow limited view of leadership called **normative decision theory**, as well called the game theory, which is an idea related to conceptually designing processes that would lead to an optimal business decision. As perfect rationality doesn't match in actual behavior, this theory rarely occurs in the real world. Within this, decision analysis of how people actually make decisions is more of a descriptive approach. What is here most emphasized by the theorists is the participation of followers with leaders and how closely the concluding decisions are associated with optimal or normative decisions.

The similarity of contingency and situational theory lies in the idea that there exists no one right way of leadership. The greatest variation between them is that contingency theory covers a wider approach that includes contingent factors about leader competences and other variables inside the situation, while situational theory focuses more on the behaviors that leaders should adopt (often about follower behavior).

1.1.2.4 Situational theories

Situational theories suggest that leaders make decisions based upon situational variables or factor the best course of action. Various leadership styles can be suitable for certain types of decision making. Whenever there is a need for a decision, an effective leader would not choose one favorite style, e.g. transformational and transactional methods. As motivation and the capability of followers are factors that affect situational decisions, things are not that simple as they seem. This is dependent on the factors that are present in the particular situation. Another factor may be the relationship between leader and follower that affects leader behavior to the same extent as it does the follower behavior. Here the perception of leader in comparison to the follower in a given situation will have an effect on what they do in any situation. The leader's perception itself, mood and stress will affect the behavior of the leaders.

As situational models assume that the situational factors are decisive in determining the appropriate method of leadership, then similarly, the situation is most critical for determining the best method of proceeding. Each situational model contains some of these factors for successful leadership. Factors which should be considered in different situation when choosing the appropriate type of control, are as follows (Možina, 1994b): needs of employees, group decision making, good relationships between members and leader, power of the leader, complexity of work, characteristics of leaders and maturity and experience of group members.

Yukl (1989) seeks to combine other approaches and identifies six variables:

- **Subordinate effort**: the motivation and actual effort expended.
- **Subordinate ability** and **role clarity**: followers knowing what to do and how to do it.
- **Organization of the work**: the structure of the work and utilization of resources.
- **Cooperation and cohesiveness**: of the group in working together.
- **Resources and support**: the availability of tools, materials, people, etc.
- **External coordination**: the need to collaborate with other groups.

Leaders here work on such factors as external relationships, acquisition of resources, managing demands on the group and managing the structures and culture of the group.

The Hersey-Blanchard situational leadership model offers different combinations of behavioral and supportive leadership behavior for the various stages of maturity of the members. The pictorial representation of situational model indicates the four basic modes of leadership. It highlights the potential of a leader to adapt to various changing situations (Adizes, Možina, Milivojevič, Svetlik & Terpin, 1996). Model derives from the realization that the choice of concept of managing is mostly affected by the preparedness of the workers. This is defined as a combination of ability and willingness. Levels are a combination of these two variables.

Figure 1. Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Model
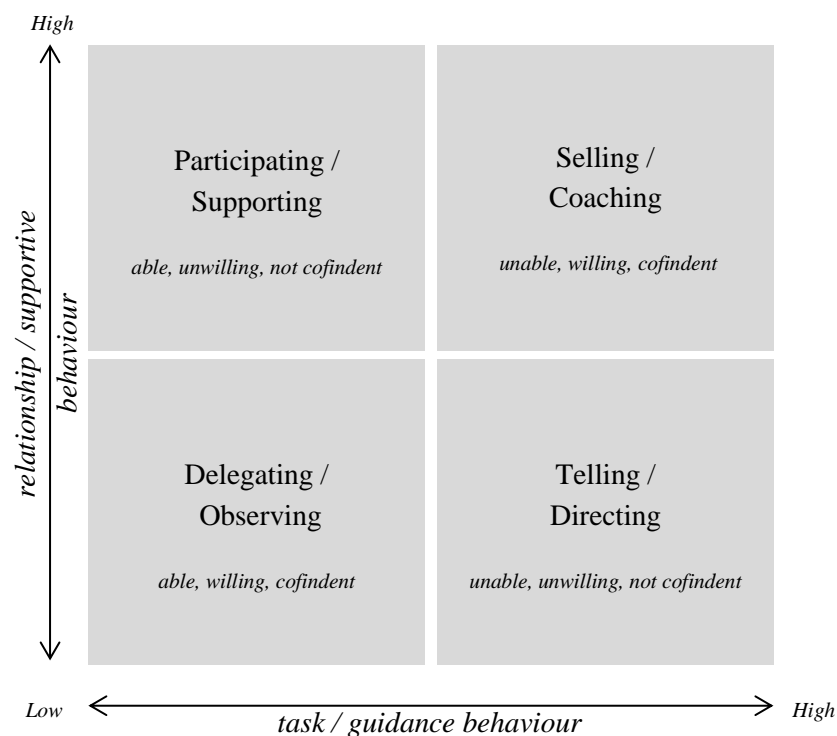


Source: M. I. Tavčar, *Razsežnosti managementa*, 1996, p. 324.

Figure 1 above shows the four basic leadership methods, which are labeled from 1 to 4 (Huczynski & Buchanan, 2001):

1. **delegation** – a little preoccupied with the matter and a bit of practicing with a colleague,
2. **participation** –engagement with colleagues a lot of support, but little guidance and addressing to the matter,
3. **teaching** – high level of participation and the same case in the field of relationship and
4. **ordering** –preoccupied with the matter, directing subordinates what, when and how to do, but a little "work" on mutual relationship.

This model is essential as a model for changing behavior. When the manager noticed that the preparedness of the workers is growing (capability and willingness to activity), he gradually begins to change the way they are being managed. When it is observed that the preparedness is being reduced (capability and willingness to activity), then he starts a gradual adjustment of leadership style. The leader constantly reviews the level of maturity of experience of followers in order to define the most appropriate mix of support or behavioral leadership mode. Inexperienced group member who does not have experience of the working procedures managed with the appropriate method of leadership can be as productive as is a senior member who is mainly self-employed and executing scheduled tasks (Adizes et al., 1996).

1.1.2.5 Behavioral theories

In the 1950s, behavioral styles of leadership created the path based on the theory and research focused on how leaders behave and the way how they treat followers. The approach of behavior in fact explains the actions of managers and leaders on the job. Hereby the objective of this approach was to define and test the relevant leadership actions and patterns of behavior that resulted with increased of morale and productivity of the follower. Even though the research perception changed from who leaders are to what leaders do. Several studies discovered and classified two categories where subordinates had perceived leader behaviors: First category is concerned with interpersonal relationship (person-oriented) while the second is concerned with task objectives (task-oriented). With the progress of the research it was identified how behavior was different between leaders and followers in a way that followers could learn from it. In respect to all the progress, researchers weren't able to determine behavior of a leader that would have universal effectiveness. It was concluded that the success of the leader's style of behavior was determined was depending on situation. With the help of these findings, the leadership theory began to focus on leadership contingencies in the mid-1960s.

Behavioral leadership is the study of behaviors and actions that define a leadership style. The approach of understanding leaders creating categories is in line with the actions that

leader may take or methods that leader may use in order to reach their goals. This differed from situational theories that focused on effectiveness and application of leadership styles to different operation environments that can be found in a workplace. From some certain point, behavioral leadership may focus on describing the type of leader that exists, i.e. a bureaucratic leader – someone that is empowered via the office they hold in a company. From the other side the research of situational leadership analyzes how various styles can be effective under different workplace conditions. For a case, a coercive leadership style works best when a company turnaround is needed.

A big shift from the trait theory is behavioral theory assuming that leadership does not require inborn traits or capabilities, doesn't focus on mental qualities or internal sites but rather on the actions. It is said that it should be moderately easy for other people to adapt to this behavior in a similar way where the success is described with describable actions. Logically, behavioral theory complements the flaws in trait theory because putting together what leaders **are** naturally and what they **do** seems to encompass every dimension of leadership. One important appeal of behavioral theory is that if we know what leaders **do**, then it is possible to **teach** people leadership. Like this it is easier to adopt impermanent "traits" and "capabilities" after being taught. Based on this, in theory, everyone is capable of becoming a leader if they learn leadership properly.

1.1.2.6 Participative theories

Participative leadership theories propose that leadership style, that is exemplary to others, needs to take inputs of others into consideration. Participative leaders encourage contribution and participation of each member of the group by helping them to feel more dedicated and relevant in the process of decision making. However these theories allow the leader to maintain the right to allow the input of others. Herby the theory is the opinion that ideal leadership style takes into account the input of ifs followers, so the leader tends to encourage contribution and participation of each group member, with the ability to accept some inputs and deny others. As the group members get involved in the process of decision making, this improves the understanding of problems involved by those who make the decisions. People are more dedicated to act because they take part in this process and more collaborative and less competitive due to working on shared objectives. As one side effect of this is the increase of social commitment between group members, it increases their dedication to the accomplishment of the objectives. It is also true that deciding together can create better decisions than an individual acting alone.

Participation is required from the group members accountable for executing the task. As they become more collaborative and less competitive, so their level to commitment increases. People collaborating in this can be superiors, peers, stakeholders or subordinates and the level of participation can be variable. When looking on the structure, leader might draft the goals and objectives, but allow the group or team to choose the method of

achieving them. On the other hand, he may allow a collective decision linked to goals and objectives including the method, but with the difference that he would have the final sign off. There exists a lot of versions of techniques, such as; empowerment, democratic leadership, consultation, management by objective, collaborative decision making and power sharing. The negative side of this theory is that it can lead to reduced motivation, cynicism, feelings of betrayal or decrease in commitment wherever the leader asks the group for the solution and yet does not sign off the proposal.

In the late 1930's **Kurt Lewin** carried out experiments, together with other leadership theories, which identified the following three participative leadership styles: democratic, autocratic and Laissez-faire. In the democratic style, followers are included in the decision making process even if the final decision may vary as it is in the hands of the leader, facilitating consensus of the group. In the autocratic style followers are not included in the decision making process and the leader decides on his own, as the decision will not affect the result or the motivation of people who work on the subsequent task, even if they were or not previously included in the decision making. In the Laissez-fair style, the leader would not take part in the decision making and would hereby allow the followers to decide on everything. Lewin found that the democratic style was the most effective, that autocratic led to revolution and that Laissez-fair lacked coordination and enthusiasm.

**Likert's Theories** (1967) examined four styles of leadership: participative, consultative, exploitive authoritative and benevolent authoritative. In the participative style, the leader encourages participation from all levels, engaging people in the decision making process and striving to make the employees closer from the psychological perspective. In the consultative style, the leader seeks for consultation even if the decision making remains central and the flow of information upwards. In the exploitive authoritative style, the leader uses coercion, threats and other methods that are fear based in order to put into force conformance, where communication is almost completely downward and concern towards people ignored. In this style no value is given to feelings for others as the view is completely top-down. In the benevolent authoritative style the leader acts as a "benevolent dictator" and uses rewards as a medium for increasing performance. In this style the leader listens to what the followers have to say and they only say what is needed in order to get the reward. At the end only small part of delegation is done as the key decisions are still done centrally.

1.1.2.7 Management theories

The focus of "transactional theories", as well known as management theories, concentrates on the supervision, role of the organization and performance of the group. Leadership in management theories are based on a system of rewards and punishments. These theories are often present in businesses where successful employees get rewarded and unsuccessful get punished. Transactional leadership functions through a clearly defined structure where

it is stated what is needed and what the rewards of the followers are. On the other side, punishments are not always measured and a system of discipline in place in rarely in place. In the initial phase, transactional theories were about negation of contract with the aim that the follower gets salary and benefits, and in return the company gets in command over the follower. This strategy awards the follower full responsibility for taking over some task, whether or not they can find enough resources or capabilities to carry out the responsibility. When the task cannot be completed in the prescribed way, then the follower is considered guilty and is hereby punished for the failure. One vital point with transactional leadership is that management by exception is being used very often using the idea that if something is working as expected it does not need supervision or attention. Overall these theories are based in that reward or punishment will be given in regards to performance. Even if there is a lot of research stating limitations of the theories it still remains a quite favorable approach and when comparing it against management spectrum, it drives pretty much towards management end of the scale. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1991) proposed the general approach within the scope of transactional theories called **Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX).** The idea of this theory is about the environment between leaders and followers. Satisfaction of contractual obligations leads to a low-quality relationship, whereas trust and mutual respect builds high quality relationship of leader and his follower. Lowe and Gardner (2000) and Antonakis, Cianciolo and Sternberg (2004) stated that a high-quality relationship with their followers generates more positive outcomes for a leader than lower quality relations.

On the other hand there is the approach of Hollander and Offerman (1990) with the name **Social Exchange theory** focusing on the exchange between the leader and followers. Here leadership presents a vigorous process of exchange and interpersonal evaluation where leader can gain or lose reputation in the perception of his followers. When the leader's approach is successful, then he wins a greater respect, reputation and influence. Concisely, he would lose these elements if his approach does not achieve the required results. While the leader stands behind his actions, the followers grant greater or lesser degree of power to the leader based on the success of those and this is called "Social exchange" that exist between them.

1.1.2.8 Relationship theories

Given the fact that the need for self-respect today is amongst the general population quite poorly satisfied, transformational leaders can use this as an opportunity to promote creativity, loyalty and commitment to facilitate the achievement in line with these emotional requirements. In this context, both leader and followers in the interactions change the direction of achieving the set goals, reflecting their overall expectations. In general, the major charismatic and transformational theories help to better understand the big impact of powerful leaders in generating organizational commitment and excitement by concentrating on visionary, charismatic or transformational basis of effective

leadership. These theories contain elements of defined leadership types; such as situational, charismatic, behavior and transactional leadership. Using these characteristics, it is generally acknowledged that such leadership creates positive changes in the followers as it takes care of each other's mutual interest and acts in the interests of the group as a whole. Mainly they are presented by House (1977), Burns (1978), Bennis and Nanus (1985), and Bass (1985), Kouzes and Posner (1987), Conger and Kanungo (1987), and with the name "New Leadership" by Bryman (1992), "Neocharismatic theories" by House and Aditya (1997), or lastly "Charismatic and transformational theories" by Yukl (1998). These theorists pertain that leaders have exceptional influence on their followers, which was previously not well clarified. They also recognize how important is the character of the leader itself and symbolic behavior of a leader that makes events meaningful to the followers. Zagoršek (2004) suggested that transformational type of leadership is universally effective even if situation was in general excluded as a key variable in the leadership equation by neocharismatic approaches.

**James MacGregor Burns** introduced the idea of transformational leadership in his book called Leadership (1978), which was originally based on political leadership. His concept focused on the scenario when leaders and followers advance to a higher level of motivation and morale due to joint collaboration. Based on their personality, power and vision, transformational leaders have the capability to inspire followers to change perceptions, expectations and motivation in general so that shared goals will be reached. Generally, this theory has emerged as a counterweight to the theory of transactional leadership. It is in the contrast to the static theories based on the assignation of roles and execution of tasks, the transformational theory began to build on the foundations of human relations. Relationship theories concentrate on the strong relationship that leader and followers have and searches for methods to help motivate "followers by satisfying higher-order needs and more fully engage them in the process of the work" (Bass, 1985; Horner, 1997, p. 4). Leader and followers draw motivation from peer interaction in order to achieve a higher sense of purpose. Transformational leaders do not see the followers only as people who want to meet their basic needs, but rather as an integrated personality. Particular emphasis is given to achieving the highest-lying needs. Leverage to motivate is searching in the needs of people's self-respect (starting from the motivation theories by A. Maslow).

Later on **Bernard M. Bass** (1995) expanded on Burns ideas by creating a theory called the "Transformational Leadership Theory". The theory explains how the leader affects followers, who are intended to trust, respect and admire the transformational leader. As stated by Bass, transformational leaders may transform a follower's self-interest, expand a followers' portfolio of needs, increase the outcome, heighten the value of the leader's intended outcomes, increase follower's expectations, inspire change of behavior and motivation in a way to reach better and higher personal achievement (Bolden et al., 2003).

Bass also recommended the following four components of transformational leadership:

- **Intellectual Stimulation** – Transformational leaders encourage creativity among followers and also challenge the status quo. The leader encourages followers to see opportunities to learn and to explore new ways of doing things.
- **Individualized Consideration** – Transformational leadership also involves offering support and encouragement to individual followers. Transformational leaders keep lines of commutation open with followers so that they feel free to share ideas. This allows leaders to offer direct recognition of each follower's distinct contribution, helping to foster supportive relationships overall.
- **Inspirational Motivation** – Transformational leaders have a clear vision that they are able to articulate to followers, but as well able to help followers to experience the same passion and motivation to fulfill these goals.
- **Idealized Influence** – The transformational leaders serve as a role model for followers. As followers trust, believe in and respect the leader, they emulate the leader and internalize his or her ideals.

Inspirational management encourages high expectations on the emotional (emotional awakening, faith to the ideals), or on an intellectual level (a mental flash, inspiration on the basis of a good argument). The intellectual stimulation can occur when the leader triggers the development of new creative and qualitatively different solutions from the followers for problems particular to their own imagination, understanding and values. This transformational leader develops intelligence, rationality and systematic approach to solving problems. However, only the ability of creating new ideas is not enough, they must be able to transfer it to other people. The transformational leader, in this context, is the teacher who will radically change people's beliefs and values. Individual in practice is most obviously seen in the activities of the leader when it leaves the responsibility to the followers (Bass, 1985). For such leaders we can say that they are human-friendly, informal, treat followers as equals. They like to help, advise, support and encourage the staff, even in their personal development.

Although it is possible that transformational leadership comes only from the charisma and / or intellectual stimulation, it will link all four elements presented when created an optimal transformation leader.

1.1.2.9 Transformational vs. Transactional leadership

Based on Burns (1978) Transforming Leadership Theory, Bass (1985) built a theory which is representative of charismatic theories referred to as **Transformational and Transactional theory**. This theory hinges on the difference between transformational and transactional leadership. First of all transactional leadership observes organizations and workers from a more traditional point of view: condifering the power the leader has in

order to use followers for the execution of tasks. Transactional leadership manages to motivate followers due to the transaction process where followers provide task guidance, successful efforts are rewarded and performance flaws corrected. Motivation arises mostly due to his own interest or due to implicit bargain with the leader. It is known that there are differences between transformational and transactional leadership, but they are not considered as mutually exclusive processes. At his point, Bass points out that transformational leadership improves the result of transactional leadership regarding levels of satisfaction, efforts and effectiveness of followers. As in practice both types of leadership are employed to better achieve preferred results, a lot of interest has been attracted to the study. Lowe and Gardner (2000) found that one third of research in scope of content analysis of articles was about transformational and transactional leadership. Besides this, it is clear that a lot of focus is turned on transformational theories besides presenting the central position in leadership research (Northouse, 2004).

1.1.2.9.1 Kouzes and Posner's Neocharismatic model

The neocharismatic approach model created by Kouzes and Posner's (1987) called the **Five Practices Model** forms the theoretical foundation for this thesis through the questionnaire, so it needs to be examined more in detail.

Assessment framework called LPI (hereinafter: Leadership Practice Inventory), which includes the study of thirty leader behaviors, presents five practices of exemplary leader's theory was designed and developed by Kouzes and Posner. Inside this model the designers refer especially to transformational leadership as a style of commitment similar to the transformational leadership theory. Within this study, exploratory research design was used in order to get a profile of exemplary leadership, in-depth interview and written case studies from personal-best leadership experiences. Hereby they obtained an analysis based on more than 1200 personal best experiences in United States of America from executives and managers across different industries. On the basis of far-reaching interviews and case studies, five practices that are common to all successful leaders have been identified:

1. **Model the way** – good leaders are exemplary to others and their actions, attitude and behavior reflect their purpose and belief as they show great amount of commitment. This practice starts with the explanation of personal values and building and affording shared value that all can hold on to. They have a clear view about their beliefs and they understand that respect will be earned by acting consistent with its own beliefs and by practicing what they preach. They focus on important priorities by planning and by categorizing big projects into small achievable steps.
2. **Inspire a Shared Vision** – vision of change is required from effective leaders and they must have the ability to share it and to motivate followers. It is as well important to allow the follower to see all those exciting possibilities that the future holds. The main idea is that the leader projects his ideas in a way that they would understand and that

those ideas will serve for a common purpose in future. Within this it is as well important to understand people's needs and support their interest.

3. **Challenge the Process** – When leaders are searching for opportunities by taking risks, experimenting and learning from mistakes, this means that they are challenging the process. It is about successful leaders that use change and innovation. Change is what leader is working on and he is open to receive any kind of ideas from anyone and everywhere. Basic contribution of a leader is to recognize and support great ideas and being ready to challenge the system in order to develop new processes, services and systems.

4. **Enable Others to Act** – the acknowledgement of this practice is that successful leadership and accomplishments are not the result of only one person. These leaders seek for support of all those who need it in order to get result as those who are affected by it. Their role is to encourage teamwork and collaboration and so enable other to do good work. They as well understand that mutual respect is the key to consistent and extraordinary efforts. Hereby this functioning enables others to act, not by aggregation of the power they have, but by giving it away.

5. **Encourage the Heart** – successful leader knows that followers need recognition and celebration. This brings up a strong sense of community. Within this practice the leaders give positive feedback, recognize contributions and celebrate accomplishments.

Based on these practices and in order to create the LPI instrument, psychometric processes were used, applied on over than 350000 managers and non-managers from various organizations, disciplines and demographic backgrounds in the timeframe of 15 years that consistently confirmed the validity and reliability of it (Strang, 2005). Each of the five dimensions in this theory is built out of six statements and each statement that was originally based on a five-point Likert scale was projected and formulated in 1999 to more sensitive and robust ten-point Likert scale that showed with a bit higher value better measures of leadership behavior (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). The effects that are typical to neocharismatic theories are: increase in self-esteem, motive arousal, increase in follower satisfaction and commitment, emotions and identification with the vision and values of the leader that is the key to followers' increased performance of the unit and organization and additional effort of the follower in general. The model contains a lot of recommendations and prescriptions about the methods that guide to better leader effectiveness. Due to his ease and evidence it is highly regarded and shows that it can be easily used across boundaries, meaning that it exhibits little cultural bias (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Zagoršek, 2004).

## 1.2 Culture

### 1.2.1 Defining culture

Nowadays culture is seen as the assortment of broad tacitly understood rules and procedures in order to tell organizational members what to do and how to do it in a variety of identified situations. Today culture is broadly seen as a multidimensional construct and concept (e.g. Hofstede, 1991, 2001; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997) and widely known that it can't completely be defined satisfactorily. Therefore there are many aspects that have the knowledge to measure differences caused by culture with acceptable validity and reliability, which have been developed and implemented (e.g. Hofstede, 1991; Hoppe, 1990; Leung & Bond, 1989). Studies using universal cultural dimensions are rich in other fields of cross-cultural organization studies (e.g. Earley, 1993, 1994; Morris, Davis & Allen, 1994; Peterson, Smith, Akande & Ayestaran, 1995; Ralston, Gustafson, Terpstra & Holt, 1993; Van de Vliert & Van Yperen, 1996). However, research relating these multiple cultural dimensions to leadership behaviors and effectiveness is still relatively sparse. Examining the literature, we can identify various implicit ways of defining culture. One approach referring to collectives are shared psychological commonalties – assumptions, values, beliefs, motives and social identities respected by a representative number of shared norms in common, known as normative definitions of culture. Other studies can alternatively define the culture in relation to environmental forces and distinctive common experiences where those are real, objective and above all measurable and refer to as experimental definitions of culture (House, Wright & Aditya, 1997).

**Schein's** normative approach of culture characterizes culture of organizations as a set of elementary assumptions: discovered, developed or invented by a group, dealing with the issues related to internal or external integration. It is often taught to a new member as the correct way to think, feel and perceive in relation to those problems. Actually it promotes the testing of organizational culture like a system of assumptions, underlying values and shared meanings as all the manifestations of culture (Schein, 1992). Culture defined by Schein (1992) is a part of organization and one of the most popular and influential in studies of organizational culture. These responses are taken for granted, above all subconscious and well shared in organization by their members.

Sathe (1983, p. 6) analyzed culture as "the set of important understandings (often unstated) that members of a community share in common". The meaning of "share in common" is vital by nature as it provides an objective diagnostic framework that enables the explanation of shared understandings in an organization's culture. Another important statement by Sathe is that shared understandings can be constructed from shared doings, sayings and feelings. Whenever culture is marked as something that is shared in common, then it has a positive effect on organizational behavior as these values and beliefs present elementary assumptions and preferences that lead such behavior and facilitate

communication and higher level of commitment and cooperation that would otherwise not be possible. In this way designed, the strength of organizational cultures can be calculated. This kind of analysis allows a systematical answer to the question whether there is a real consensus present among members. Hence, organizational culture can be quantified and classified into "conflicting", "weak", "moderate" and "strong" in terms of loops in the sharing of values and beliefs.

Kluckhohn has together with Kroeger examined over hundred definitions that were clearly distinguishing culture from ordinary concepts when coming across a very comprehensive definition that was based on the Kluckhohn's view (Hofstede, 2001) defining that culture is based on feeling and reacting mostly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups that has their essence, artifacts and patterned ways of thinking. The level of culture reflects the emotional and aesthetic responses of group members in contrast to their cognitive and value responses. Later on Geertz (1973) distinguished twelve basic definitions based on their work defining culture as:

- the total way of life of a people,
- a way of thinking, feeling, and believing,
- the social legacy the individual acquires from his group,
- an abstraction from behavior,
- a storehouse of pooled learning,
- a theory on the part of the anthropologist about the way in which a group of people in fact behave,
- learned behavior,
- a mechanism for the normative regulation of behavior,
- a set of standardized orientations to recurrent problems,
- a set of techniques for adjusting both to the external environment and to other men,
- a precipitate of history,
- a behavioral map or matrix.

**Hofstede's** (1991) known approach called "the collective programming" which differentiates members of one group from another and defines "mental programs" or "the software of the mind" as patterns of thinking, feeling and acting that is shared with other people within the same social environment. His view was very radical and his static and essential framework attracted much criticism. Later the approach was recognized as an "ideational system", referring to what people learn and not to what they do or make.

Many studies have emphasized the qualitative bearings of culture. A lot of accomplishments have been loyal. In order to characterize the development, qualities and growth from the culture standpoint much energy was devoted but above all House defined

various aspects together with Wright and Adyta (1997) that shared a common sense in all the definitions of culture as seen in the following lines:

- Cultures are collectively oriented phenomenon as they represent the design and rate of collective agreement.
- Cultures relate to "shared meanings" and this is sharing of important understandings of events, entities and activities.
- Awareness of sharing of individuals who share meanings is not enough for members to have common understanding of events, entities and actions. Members as well need to be aware that their understandings are shared.
- Common understandings are seen in obvious common patterns of norms, behaviors, cognitions and shared emotions.
- Cultural patterns are established symbolically (artifacts), linguistically and behaviorally.
- Cultural patterns and common experiences have strong effects of socialization on the collectives.
- Cultural patterns and their effects are transferred from generation to generation.
- The social influence of cultural patters delivers different types of orientation to the members of culture that is by nature compelling affective, behavioral and cognitive.
- Language, economic and political experience, religion and history are the most common experiences of the members of culture which present the most important antecedents for development of cultural patterns.
- Members of any cultures respect the set of norms they have and this is reflected in the mentioned commonalities.

Their review revealed that there are many elements building culture, some explicit and others are implicit. Culture is a difficult term which is hard to explain in words. Usually values, norms, behaviors and basic assumptions are behind the explanation for these elements. In order to make the classifications of manifestation to look simpler, many authors view the culture differently than the popular "iceberg model".

Hofstede (1991) proposed a set of four layers (three layers and a core) where he stated that culture is onion shaped: This presents a system where each layer has to be peeled off in order to get to the content. In addition he proposed values that stand behind the ideas that people have about how things "ought to be". With this he emphasized the assumption that values have a strong impact on behavior. In practice this shows the improvement of the previously valid two-layer model of culture, where there has been an extension to the layer with the idea to permit a more sophisticated analysis of the visible results of cultural values.

On the other side a similar onion like model of culture is shown by **Trompenaars** and **Hampden-Turner (1997)**. In their view, the core level, rather than the outer level is expanded from the basic two-layer model. This model has similar assumptions towards' "values" as in the model of Hofstede where for example assumptions are absolute core values that have the effect on more visible values that are in the layer above.

The importance as a basic assumption here is given to human equality, which is pretty much undoubted. In any case it is quite difficult to understand if there is a link between the notion of "values" and "basic assumptions", because they are usually concluded not inferred directly and usually unquestioned. In this case it is really difficult to keep a different label after reconnecting both levels. From this perspective an inner core of culture is formed by a combination of values and basic assumptions where the inner core is encircled by a more elementary level of belief, attitudes and conventions. The difference is useful because we can take into account the changes (e.g. beliefs), but not seeing any unexpected shifts in values. The described layers are seen in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Layers of culture
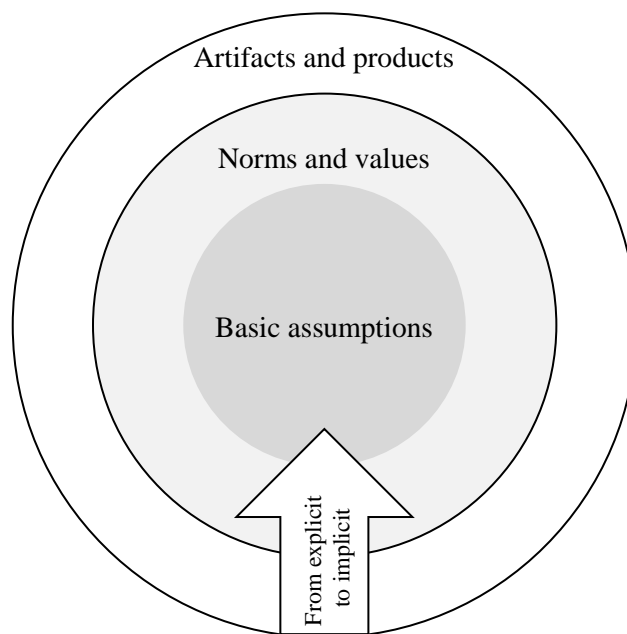


Source: F. Trompenaars and C. Hampden-Turner, *Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Diversity in Global Business,* 1997, p. 22.

Culture was as well examined in terms of **emic and etic.** These approaches were presented by Kenneth Pike in 1960 where the word "emic" was chosen for culture specific and unique elements and "etic" on the other side for elements that are similar across all cultures, meaning that they are universal.

Another aspect that was presented on culture is that distinction between mental and behavioral elements does not answer the question of how to adequately describe the culture as a whole. The problem is that the thoughts and behavior of participants can be approached from two different perspectives: emic (from the participants themselves) and etic (from the observers). In both cases, it is possible to have scientific and objective descriptions of mental and behavioral fields. In the first, observers employ concepts and distinctions that are appropriate and meaningful for participants. In the second, concepts and distinctions are appropriate and meaningful for observers.

Culture as already mentioned in the above paragraphs is anything but easy to fully define in general, related to set of values that are deeply rooted and to values and beliefs responsible to provide norms for behavior. The majority of definitions advise that culture is the accepted way of solving problems due to being the accepted pattern of behavior or arrangement by a group (team, organization or society). In addition the majority of cross-cultural studies define a concept of culture by common experiences which are nations, geographical regions, religion or ethnic origin as their analytical units (Bass, 1990; House et al., 1997). Normally in cross-cultural studies, countries or nations are the most used variable, despite the fact that this can be problematic due to the existence of sub-culture and effects of globalization and international influence in general. Nationality still gives a reasonable and practical impact of the conceptualization of culture.

## 1.2.2 Dimensions of Culture

There are many ways how to study culture and one of them is a widely accepted industry tool which way is to study culture through the measurement and labeling of "dimensions of culture". The "dimensions of culture" classifications have been proven to be the most successful way to approach this kind of studies that compare culture scientifically. This approach allows and helps to rank the countries on these dimensions and compare their culture in terms of quantitative scores. It is vital to mention that it uses a sample of respondents in order to obtain the needed data together with others models. In the next paragraphs the major models concerning cultural dimensions will be shown in detail.

1.2.2.1 Hofstede's dimension of Culture

A good deal of researchers have addressed the universal applicability of the network and the lack for precision for identifying cultural patterns. The most noted and famous commitment in this area comes from the organizational anthropologist Hofstede who designed cultural dimension in the 1970s by examining values related to work in the organization of IBM. He obtained average values of all the individual responses to each question and this was the starting point for factorial analysis. The conclusion of his analysis allowed dividing culture into four culture-level dimensions: power distance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity and uncertainty avoidance.

**Power Distance Index (PDI)**: Power distance is the "extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede, 1994, p. 28). This shows inequality which is defined not from above, but from the bottom. Whenever we have high power distance, this means that there are bigger inequalities of wealth and power and this is usually connected as well with strong class systems amongst which mobility is restricted. From the other perspective, low power distance shows the effort of society where differences are minimized and where opportunity and equality is promoted. Nowadays power and inequality present two of the fundamental facts of any society and it is confirmable across international borders that there exist inequality in all societies with the difference that in some this is more and in other less visible. Power distance is a concept that has much wider range than the work places itself and it is often seen in hierarchy of the companies where it is expected that the respect is shown by the political forms of centralization and decentralization (with amount of decision making and participation), towards her or his employer. This supports the perception that in the society the differences between people should be minimized.

**Individualism (IDV)/Collectivism**: The concept of individualism is most frequently researched and argued in comparison to its opposite, collectivism, which presents the extent to which individuals are integrated into groups. Hofstede outlines these dimensions as follows*:* "individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism as its opposite pertains to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (Hofstede, 1994, p. 51). Collectivism from this standpoint is not linked to politics, as it doesn't refer to the state but to the group. As already mentioned the issue shown within this dimension is extremely fundamental and is present in all the societies across the world. It is important to state that this dimension done by Hofstede presents the most popular concept of all the dimensions he derived. This concept is most frequently used in a different numbers of cross-cultural research projects where it can get confused with other dimensions. As this dimension is the most easily seized and found when seeking at other behavioral patterns, we can not be surprised that it is so popular. Usually it is seen in individual responsibility for results and rewards, autonomy and the tasks triumph over relationship when talking about individualism from the standpoint of organizations.

**Masculinity (MAS)/Femininity**: The concept of masculinity in comparison to the femininity as it's opposite, refers to role distribution between the genders that is usually addressed as one of the most important issues in societies. It is equally powerful, yet often understated dimension. Hofstede came to the conclusion that women's values vary less than men's values among societies or from country to country where men's dimensions vary from very competitive to assertive, in contrast to women's values that vary from

caring to modest. Masculinity can be described as the assertive pole which relates to the societies in which it is a clear distinction of the social gender roles (i.e., men are supposed to be focused on material success, assertive, while women are supposed to be concerned with the quality of life, modest and tender). Femininity as the modest pole relates to the societies in which there is an overlap of the social gender roles (i.e. as men as women are supposed to be concerned with quality of life, modest and tender). Some aspects of societies have classified feminine cultures as interpersonal and interdependent to relationships, where neither male neither female have a need to be competitive or ambitious. As masculine societies seek for results and rewards based on performance, feminine societies likely tend to give rewards based on the equality.

**Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)**: Uncertainty avoidance measures the tolerance of uncertainty and ambiguity in the society. Eventually it relates to the ultimate search for the truth and this is often shown through the need for predictability and nervous stress. It shows to what level the members of one culture are programmed in order to feel comfortable or not in situations that are not structured. Situations that aren't structured are different from normal, unknown, novel and surprising in some way. This dimension tries to eliminate as many situations like this by creating strict security measures, rules, laws and on the religious and philosophical level a belief that theirs is one truth. Cultures that score high on uncertainty avoidance are normally more expressive and motived by inner nervous energy. With the difference that in cultures that do not score highly in uncertainty avoidance, tolerance to different viewpoints is much higher and they tend to have as few regulations as possible. On the religious and philosophical level they agree that there is no absolute truth. In this way, their character can generally be described as contemplative, phlegmatic where it is expected that emotions are shown.

The original work of Hofstede was classifying culture at a cultural level into four dimensions, but later he added the fifth dimension of culture. **Long-Term Orientation (LTO)/Short-term orientation:** This fifth dimension was discovered through the student research done in 23 countries around the globe using Chinese base designed value survey questionnaire. In scope of this dimension from the long-term standpoint, the values that are associated were ordering relationship by status and persistence. From the standpoint of short-term orientation the values that are associated are fulfillment of social obligations, tradition and self-protecting.

With all the research to which Hofstede was committed, there is still a lot on the validity of the data due to the base for the dimensions that were designed. Holden (2002) was one of the analysts that criticized Hofstede's dimensions in the field of business in regards to his relative reliance with it. He stated as well that the data is outdated as the collection period was more than thirty years ago. This criticism was addressed as well to data that was based on a single multinational company without a big enough sample in order to classify the dimensions deep enough. Even so, the bare truth remains that the only available units we

have for this kind of research are nations and it is believed that surveys are not well suited to measure cultural differences. Only a qualitative research investigation successfully explores the patterns of some cultural group based only on a comprehensive observation.

1.2.2.2 Schwartz's Theory of Cultural values

Shalom Schwartz (1999) took a different approach finding (cultural) value differences. Using his "SVI" (Schwartz Value Inventory), a different analysis to Hofstede and Hampden-Turner (tends to fail to separate between two levels even if they claim that if works at the culture level), is separated into culture and individual level analysis. In his view, Schwartz differentiates between value dimensions and types. Even if his distinction is to some point similar with the work of Hofstede, is still marked as his work. Within this a value type is a set of values that is theoretically able to be combined into pointing description and this description is seen as egalitarian commitment at the culture level. Schwartz was able to more clearly differentiate between value dimensions and types than Hofstede. From data obtained in 63 countries, Schwartz derived the following distinct value types on an individual level analysis: simulation, achievement, hedonism, power, self-direction, security, conformity, benevolence and tradition. He also derived on the cultural level seven other value types which form three dimensions that are contradictions to the alternative solution of the following three issues: Hierarchy versus Egalitarianism, Autonomy versus Conservatism and Mastery versus Harmony.

**Issue I**: Defining the idea of **the relation of the group and the individual** is in scope of the first basic issue confronting all societies. A lot of literature proposes that solving this issue actually enables the rise of some of the most critical cultural dimensions, like individualism/collectivism (Hofstede, 1989; Kim, 1994). On one side, here labels cultures where the person is looking for the meaning of live through special social relationship by identifying with the group and collaboration in the joint way of living, and being seen as an entity which is surrounded in the collectivity. This viewpoint was expressed; maintained and justified as a conservatism value type which emphasizes the maintenance of traditional values (restraint of actions that might disrupt the solidary group, status quo and priority). In the opposite viewpoint, we have the cultures describing the perception of a person as an autonomous and constrained entity which looks for the meaning of live in his or her own attributes. To this view, autonomy is the suitable view where it is possible to differentiate between two autonomy types. One is called intellectual autonomy and relates to ideas emphasizing the on desirability and on intellectual directions. The other is called affective autonomy which relates to emotions and feelings emphasizing the desirability of individuals chasing affectively positive experience independently.

**Issue II:** Guarantying **responsible social behavior** is in scope of the second basic issue which is confronting all societies. People need to be tempted to think about the well-being of others, manage the unavoidable social interdependencies and coordinate with them.

Within this, relying on hierarchical systems and using power differences is one solution of this issue. Hierarchy which emphasizes on the validity of non-equal distribution of power, roles and resources is the value type that is expressive of this view. On the other side Egalitarianism emphasizes the transcendence of ego interest in favor of voluntary commitment and promoting well-being for others is the alternative solution to the responsible social behavior. Within this, people come together and commit to a voluntary way of collaboration with each other and to care about everyone's well-being.

**Issue III: The relation of human kind to the natural and social world** is the third issue which is confronting all societies. Mastery and a changing world is the principal issue addressed. In order to actually do it, to turn it in our own will, to gain control and exploit it in order to improve the interest of individual or a group is one response. Mastery that is expressive of this orientation is the value type within this which emphasizes on advancing through active self-assertion. On the other side the resolution would be trying to take the world as it is rather than to exploit or change it. Harmony within this is the value type expressive of this response that emphasizes on fitting with harmony into the environment.

1.2.2.3 GLOBE Cultural Dimensions

The most complete study until today which aims was to empirically research the relationship between leader behavior and culture using quantitative and qualitative measurements and methods of the societal, organizational, cultural and leadership differences in 62 different societies across the world is called "Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness" or simply the GLOBE. The main author of this study is Robert J. House from the Wharton Scholl of Business (University of Pennsylvania) which conducted this research study in 1991 with more than 170 researchers that were targeting to examine and define to what level practices and values are universal in business leadership (i.e., are similar around the world, and the level to which they present or specific only in some societies). This research reflects the biggest replication of "dimensions of culture" (designed by Hofstede), delivers comprehensive and accurate outcomes, shows the most-large scale measurement of country culture that was published in 2004 and analyses middle managers from 951 organizations in the area of financial services, telecommunication service industries and food processing with around 17300 responses was received. In general authors of the study have come across nine basic cultural dimensions which are described in the following Table 2.

GLOBE study views culture as a set of basic and commonly shared practices and values which are consistently changing and developing and might help communities in order to find solutions to problems related to internal integration (how to stay together) and external adaptions (how to survive) (Schein, 1992). GLOBE measures a variation between the cultural practices and values where practices are defined by "the way things are" and the values by "the way things should be". In scope of this measures both should be relevant to

nine basic cultural dimensions of culture on the organizational and societal level of analysis between Slovenia and Spain, presented in the third chapter. The findings, as expected, show that there are numerous differences in people's perceptions of how things are and how should be. This certainly is a conflict to a conservative wisdom, which means that people are in some way defined by of their own values and esteem.

Table 2. Culture Construct Definitions and Sample Questionnaire Items

| | |
|---|---|
| **Power distance:** The extent to which members of a collective expect power to be distributed equally. | Followers are (should be) expected to obey their leaders without question. |
| **Uncertainty avoidance:** The extent to which a group, organization or society relies on social norms, rules & procedures to ease unpredictability of future events. | Most people lead (should lead) highly structured lives with few unexpected events. |
| **Humane orientation:** The extent to which a collective encourages & rewards individuals for being altruistic, fair, generous, caring & kind to others. | People are generally (should be generally) very tolerant of mistakes. Parents who are aging generally live (should live) at home with their children. |
| **Collectivism I:** The extent to which societal or organizational institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action | Leaders encourage (should encourage) group loyalty even if individual goals suffer. |
| **Collectivism II:** The extent to which individuals express loyalty, pride and cohesiveness in their organizations or families. | Parent who are aging generally live (should live) at home with their children**.** |
| **Assertiveness:** The extent to which individuals are assertive, demanding & dominant in their relationships with others. | People are (should be) generally dominant. |
| **Gender egalitarianism:** The extent to which a collective minimizes gender inequality. | Boys are encouraged (should be encouraged) more than girls to attain a higher education. (Scored inversely.) |

*(table continues)*

| | |
|---|---|
| **Future orientation:** The extent to which a collective encourages future-oriented behaviors such as gratification, delaying, planning & investing in the future. | More people live (should live) for the present than for the future. (Scored inversely.) |
| **Performance orientation:** The extent to which a collective encourages & reward group members for excellence & performance improvement. | Students are encouraged (should be encouraged) to strive for continuously improved performance. |

Source: R. J. House, M. Javidan, P. J. Hanges and P. Dorfman, *Understanding cultures and implicit leadership theories across the globe: an introduction to project GLOBE*, pp. 5−6.

## 1.3 Cultural Influence on Leadership

A suggestion that is proposed by many cross-cultural studies is that culture can affect leadership styles, concepts and practices (Hofstede, 2001; House & Aditya, 1997; Gerstner & Day, 1994). Ability is to understand and correctly predict the behavior of the counterparts is considered the success of the cross-cultural business operations. Due to this, it is important to know and understand how culture influences of leadership effectiveness. Data showing cultural variation might be very useful and it should be remembered that it has been already identified that significant national and cultural differences are basically grouped by region, geography, language, economic development and religion. The most important contextual factor influencing values, personality and attitudes of individuals, is the national culture. This is described by Hofstede (1980, p. 15) as a kind of mental programming addressed to the whole collective where people in the same group share mental maps formed by similar learning processes. This also manifests in behavioral patterns similarities like "the language in which we express ourselves, the difference we show to our elders, the physical distance from other people we maintain in order feel comfortable". It has been acknowledged by the researchers that culture as a contextual factor has the power to impact on the content of leader behavior and attributes that can be recognized as effective (Lord et al., 2001). It is as well expected that leadership effectiveness varies depending on the culture and depending on their values. Accordingly, attributes are based on cultural values which are usually accepted, enacted and effective within some culture and affect the behavior of a leader. Those attributes that are inconsistent with the value of the particular culture will usually restrain general acceptance and effectiveness of leaders (House et al., 1997, 1999). While some cultures are impacted by common tactics such as pressure exertion, socializing and gift giving are other more impacted by collaboration, rational persuasion and consultation. Studies presented on the proof that scores of leadership attributes are pretty variable across cultures. By comparing those attributes scores across populations, noteworthy differences were found in the way how members from various countries perceive leadership. Later on, research found universality between the basic leadership functions, even if those are performed differently

by leaders in specific cultural context. It is also important to state that it might work in one culture and not in another no matter the universality, as cultures differ from country to country. Thus, we can expect that the extent to which surveyed population from the two countries in scope would engage in specific leadership practices would probably differ between them. We can also state, that no unique characteristic such as occupation, level of education or gender has as much influence on the important managerial values and assumptions as culture. It is, therefore, possible to confirm that we can expect leadership behavior to be connected or accustomed by culture.

In the following paragraph there are eleven culture-specific aspects that have potential cultural influence which were comprehensively synthesized by Zagoršek (2004):

- Culture shapes the image of the stereotypical (ideal) leader,
- Culture determines the actual pattern of leadership behaviors,
- Culture affects personality values and traits of leaders and followers,
- Culture affects the effectiveness of particular leadership behaviors and styles,
- Culture affects the follower's acceptance of leadership behaviors and styles,
- Culture determines the emergence and legitimacy of leaders,
- Culture affects the importance of leadership outcomes,
- Culture influences the nature of relationship between leader and follower(s),
- Culture influences the leader's reliance on various bases of power and influence tactics,
- Culture provides meaning to leadership behaviors and constructs,
- Culture creates emic conceptions of leadership.

In addition it is crucial to mention that it is important to add from the mentioned aspects that in this research culture determines the actual pattern of leadership behaviors. In general it is a different environment that normally creates different leaders and this is presented as a basic argument. From other standpoint, culture-universal perspective claims that even if there are differences across cultures, there should be a higher number of similarities than differences in the leadership. In regards to this it has been recently realized that leadership behaviors, that are culture specific and above all universal, can coexist in a single culture at the same time even if they are not mutually exclusive categories.

House (1996) came to two conclusions when returning back to the cultural influence on leadership. The first is telling that all leadership contexts are distinct with addition that the scale of cultural influences differentiates depending on the leader behavior. It is said that deviations across cultures will define how leader will act in a given context and how effectiveness will be influenced of any leadership approach. Some groups of behaviors typical for leaders are influenced by culture and others are rather universal with the respect to the occurrence of their meaning, enactment, effectiveness and acceptance. Secondly, the

scale of cultural forces on the occurrence of their meaning, enactment, effectiveness and acceptance is usually moderated by non-cultural variables like physical climate, international competition, intensity, military aggression, exposure to external sources of information and external political pressures. In scope of organizational values, those variables are strategy, demography and site, uncertainty of technology used and environmental uncertainty.

### 1.3.1 Cross-cultural leadership research

The determination of aspects of leadership that is culturally unique, as they help to better understand leadership behavior in multicultural environments and different cultures, is done through cross-cultural leadership research (e.g. Dorfman, Howell, Hibino, Lee, Tate & Bautista, 1997; Rao, Hashimoto & Rao, 1997). They give helpful instruction to practitioners in order to achieve leadership effectiveness in organization together with the workforce and management that is getting internationally, culturally and ethnically diverse (Chong & Thomas, 1997; Elron, 1997; Smith, Wang & Leung, 1997). Besides providing useful guidelines for practitioners, Triandis (1993) suggests that leadership research has the ability to improve theories by examining variations of culture and as well theoretical parameters. One key element to state is the cross-cultural research helps by looking at a larger scope of variable new theoretical relationships, even if they are not related to culture. Therefore as per Dorfman (1996), variation of culture may point out the links between theoretical constructs and state key theoretical conditions.

Culture as a multidimensional concept and construct has a lot scopes that can measure cultural differences with the validity, reliability that is pretty much acceptable and those have already been developed and implemented (e.g. Hofstede, 1991; Hoppe, 1990; Leung and Bond, 1989). There are a lot of studies in other fields of cross-cultural organization studies that use universal cultural dimensions (e.g. Earley, 1993, 1994; Morris et al., 1994; Peterson et al., 1995; Ralston et al., 1993; Van de Vliert & Van Yperen, 1996).

Although, it has been a substantial increase in the last decades in the research literature on cross-cultural leadership, it is frequently spread across a broad variety of publication outlets and tense with operational issues (House & Javidan, 2004).

In order to better understand this, we need to know the norms, beliefs and values that are shared implicitly. We need to know as well the local history, tradition, stories, folklore customs and many more. Here the idea is as well that culture can only impact on one dimension at a time. It is important to recognize the detail of culture specific leadership perception. It is as well important to know what this behavior is and what its characteristics are, besides knowing that people perceive only one specific leadership in a culture. At the end understanding of the leadership's perceptual orientation of the people in a specific

culture, is what leader needs in order to be cross-culturally effective by making all the necessary changes in the way those people will be lead.

It is sometimes not easy to be able to understand, especially in short period of time, the leadership characteristics in detail in the new cultural environment. Thus, cultural studies can give a good general overview about how people will perceive leadership in a specific culture. Hence, with the increased need of leaders who want to successfully function across domestic border where a specific cultures are present, there is still a lot of challenges with selecting the appropriate leader, designing of multicultural organizational structures, managing of organization with culturally diverse employees, cross-border negotiations, sales, acquisitions and mergers (House & Javidan, 2004). Still there is not sufficient literature in order to guide leaders facing this kind of challenges. "Practically, an understanding of the cultural variation in leadership concepts and of the particular traits and behaviours associated with such variation can help managers (trainers and consultants) to predict more accurately potential problems with cross-cultural interactions at work" (Brodbeck 2000, p. 7). Even though, in a quite big number of studies relating to cross-cultural research, the differences are usually obvious (Peterson & Hunt, 1997). It is difficult today to persuade people that those differences are the result of, or related to, demanded cultural differences due to the lack of fully sufficient measurement and testing. In order to examine leadership models and concepts across cultures, cultural differences, need to be measured in a valid and consistent way and related to leadership variables of interest.

In addition Bass (1990) revealed in scope of cross-cultural leadership two major trends. First of all he claimed that the most studies have been done in order to test the applicability of Western leadership theory in settings that are multiple national. Since this, standardized US instruments are being used in many studies which can negatively effect on the conceptualization of leadership if this conceptualization is not Western or US based. Secondly, there has been a lot of effort made in order to associate leadership styles and the needs of small groups of nations. This is usually meant for the comparisons between, US, Latin American countries, Western European countries and Asian countries.

Even though it is important to note that since the review of Bass they have improved. Recently there have been more studies which are comparing two or three countries, frequently halted by the theory, that use sophisticated quantitative analysis and often perspectives not related to Western countries (Dorfman & House, 2004). Unfortunately, until now knowledge and literature interpreting cross-cultural leadership remains relatively sparse, inappropriate and limited from many perspectives.

Moreover it was suggested by House et al. (1999, p. 180) that, "what is expected of leaders, what leaders may and may not do, and the status and influence bestowed on leaders vary considerably as a result of the cultural forces in the countries or regions in

which the leaders function". By this we can state that we would need to take strong conclusive actions in some of the culture with the need to be effective as a leader, while in other culture, consultation and democratic approach may be a prerequisite.

The proposition in the area of cross-cultural management and leadership has very strong suggestions for practitioners. Based on the confirmations, leaders will be recommended to align with the cultural characteristics and aim to become accepted by their followers, or to increase the extent to which they are being perceived, so that their leadership effectiveness will increase. Due to the fact that all five cultural dimensions are universal and can be measured, the proposal across all cultures should have universal application.

Perceived leadership relies on how suited leadership characteristics are perceived for the implicit prototype of leadership in the followers' minds and this is typical for cultures where the emphasis is more on recognition based process. On the other hand, leaders are not just adjusting leader characteristics in order to fit the implicit leadership prototypes of the followers. This is typical for cultures where the emphasis is more on interference based process. Within this we accept in all culture, the universality of the mentioned two process leadership perception theory that is strictly implicit. The key point to be argued here is that cultural differences affect the two leadership processes.

Triandis (1994) described that the term "heterostereotype" is a stereotype about people from a different culture. In his statement he is saying that people of each culture have their own way of defining the environment based on the subjective culture and theories, ideas, religious, social and political standards. These are the basics for judging events and shape how people categorize and view at the same time the environment. In addition this subjective culture also affects the way in which individuals make verdicts about individuals from a different culture. While member characteristics within an ethnic group are seen positively and characteristics of other ethnic groups have a habit of being evaluated less favorably stereotypes are made through an ethnocentric lens.

Further is was recommended that there was no proof of having one unique model considering management practices and values which could be applicable in all nations. Basically the conclusion from the research aligns with sophisticated level of behavioral complexity that leaders need to demonstrate in order to be successful globally besides being aligned with the discussion on global leadership skills (Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn & Ainina, 1999).

Furthermore it was claimed by Jung, Bass and Sosik (1995) that it is more easy for transformational leadership to emerge more effective in collectivistic cultures rather than in individual ones. Based on this statement, transformational leadership should be promoted by high level of group orientation among followers and centrality of work in life. Transformational processes should be enhanced by a high respect for authority and

obedience in collectivistic cultures. Later on, it was suggested by Den Hartog (1999) that authoritarian leadership should not have so negative an approach in high power distance societies. In this kind of societies, ostentatious displays of dominance could just be appropriate. In addition it was showed by Smith, Peterson and Misumi (1994) that more rules and procedures are in place set by the managers in societies where high power distance prevails.

After all there has been showed an increased intention to the question how to adapt concepts and theories of leadership that are US based, to be useful in other culture and it has been widely accepted that leadership behaviors influence on effectiveness (e.g. Den Hartog, et al., 1999; House, Wright & Aditya, 1997; Peterson & Hunt, 1997).

The "intentional process" denoted in the first definition could be operationalized from the point of leader behaviors, characteristics or traits. Though just to process the leader behaviors, characteristics or traits wouldn't make a person a leaders from the social-cognitive perspective, unless that person would be perceived as a leader (House & Aditya, 1997; Lord & Maher, 1991). Hereby leadership serves as outcome of these social cognitive processes by the ability to label others. It as well includes leader behaviors, characteristics and traits and other outputs made by leaders as these are explained by followers. At this point the interpretation of actions on adequate administration of rewards and technical abilities is a point of dependence for effective leadership. Mainly, the importance in influencing on conceptions of leadership effectiveness and leadership behavior is based on how the followers perceive leadership. In general, the way how leadership is perceived plays a very important role in influencing on conceptions of leadership effectiveness and leadership behavior (Lord & Maher, 1991). Besides, "cultural universality of cognitive process associated with leadership perception in still one relatively unexplored avenue of research on the field of leadership studies" (House & Aditya, 1997, p. 439).

Nevertheless, despite its limitations, the GLOBE instrument is robust and has been widely accepted and validated for the cross-cultural relevance of the leadership items included. In addition, the GLOBE sample is a useful heuristic sample especially because of the large number of respondents from representing societies across the entire world. The usage of a database not intended to measure entrepreneurial leadership can be identified as strength of this study, given that the resulting construct is found related to the external cultural dimension in theoretically expected ways.

## 2 COMPARATIVE COUNTRY OVERVIEW

Various numbers of empirical studies have already defined what is expected from leaders, what they should or they shouldn't do, and that the status and leader appraisal in the regions and countries in which they operate varies significantly as an outcome of the cultural forces. In order to get a clearer picture on characteristics and as well on

specificities of leadership in Slovenia and Spain, historical, cultural and economic recap insights into local conditions and processes of them both will be shown. Upon this the comparison of the two countries in scope will be developed based on the research hypotheses.

On the first look we might state that Slovenes and Spaniards do not have a lot in common. However, before confirming or declining we need to take a deeper look into the country profiles. Based on GLOBEs clustering of societal cultures, Slovenes are a part of the Eastern European cluster while the Spaniards are a part of the Latin European cluster formed by regions which are influenced by Roman culture. Geographically the distance between their capitals is pretty long (Ljubljana – Madrid: 1597 km), the history between both is completely different and their languages have much in common. But when taking a deeper look into the profiles of those two countries, we can find some similarities: among them are economic situation and development before entering the European Union, country heterogeneity and as well social factors that can be seen in the following table.

## 2.1 Slovenia

When comparing the current territory of Slovenia with its history, we can say that it was a part of formation like Roman and the Holy Roman Empire and Habsburg Monarchy. In the first two decades of early twentieth century (1918), Slovenes first tried independence by forming a multination State of Slovenes, Croats and Serbs which was later on renamed as the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes that finally became the kingdom of Yugoslavia. Later after the end of the Second World War, Slovenia became, based on the same formation, a part of the SFRY (Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia) and stayed in this formation until 1991 when it declared independence.

As a former Yugoslavian republic, it is the first to have gained independence in 1991 and with its small population the most developed Yugoslav republic, achieving a high GDP (gross domestic product) per capita. Due to its position in the north-west of the former country, it developed many business ties with Western Europe even prior to the transition period. Hereby, it became one of the most successful countries in transition from socialism to a market economy. As it was fully accepted in the European Union in 2004, Slovenia started to rapidly catch up in the economic development versus its European Union counterparts. From this point of view, what we learn from the experience, Slovenia gives a good example for the countries following the same path.

Today is Slovenia a small central European country consisting of around 20 thousand of square kilometers and a population of about 2 million of inhabitants. The country is bordering the eastern Alps and the Adriatic Sea while being a neighbor country to Italy, Austria, Hungary and Croatia. The climate is Mediterranean and mostly Continental. The first is most common on the coast while the other with mild to hot summers and cold

winters in the highlands is most typical in the east. From the whole population of Slovenia around 83% of them are Slovenes and around 6% of them are from former ex-Yugoslavian countries and others minorities are in unclassified population. The official language is Slovenian, which belongs to the South Slavic language group. When talking about religions, Slovenes have traditionally been and remained Roman Catholic.

Slovenia today due to his connections to Western Europe enjoys a high GDP of around 29.000 USD per capita and a high-income development economy which is considerably higher than in other economies of central Europe that are in transition and the newly joined European Union countries. Not to mention the crisis, Slovenian is in the present day a well-developed country that enjoys stability and prosperity. It as well benefits from a well-educated and productive work force that is reflected with high living standards (21st highest Human Development Index). We can as well state that its economic and political institutions are effective and vigorous. Even if Slovenia took cautious and deliberate approach to economic management, structural reforms helped to advance in foreign participation and business environment, with strong importance on reaching consensus before proceeding.

Over the past decades, Slovenia has undergone several political, economic and social changes, but as a part of Yugoslavia it was for almost a century strongly identified as a central European country where influences from Alpine, Dinaric, Mediterranean and Pannonian merge. At the end Slovenia with the awareness of the geographical position as the bridge between the east and the west is maintaining its Slavic language and culture versus the Western influences.

## 2.2 Spain

The first known people of Spain were the Celts and the Iberians. The Iberian Peninsula became Hispania, a region of the Roman Empire after a difficult conquest. While they were under the Germanic rule in the early middle Ages, Muslim invaders have conquered them. After a long period of wars, the Christian Kingdom managed to roll back the Muslim empire in its last remain in Granada (1492), in the same year when Columbus "discovered" the Americas. Through this, Spain became the most powerful kingdom in Europe and the leading world power in the 16th and 17th century. While continuing with the wars and other problems it eventually led that their status of power weakened. The invasion of French in the beginning of the 19th century initiated a lot of movements related to independence and chaos that caused the kingdom to fall apart almost completely leaving a big political instability. Further on it came under the rule of authoritarian government in the 20th century after suffered a shocking civil war, resulting in inactivity, but finishing in an inspiring economic surge at the end. Later on in 1978 the country reinstated democracy in a form of parliamentary constitutional monarchy and then shortly after in 1986 became a

member of the European Union which enabled steady economic growth and cultural renaissance.

Spain lies on the Iberian Peninsula which is situated in the southwestern Europe. To the south and the east Spain borders the Mediterranean Sea with the exception for a small land border with Gibraltar that belongs to the British territory. In addition, its borders go up to Andorra on the north, France (and Bay of Biscay) in the northwest, Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean in the west. The territory of Spain also includes Balearic Islands in the Mediterranean, Canary Island in the Atlantic Ocean next to the African coast and two cities in North Africa that border Morocco, with the names Ceuta and Melilla. Spain, with all of its territory, represents the second biggest country in the Western part of the European union, where France is the first, due having an area with more than 500 thousand of square kilometers and about 47 million of inhabitants. The climate in Spain is strongly Mediterranean on the coast, semiarid on the land and oceanic in the minor parts of the north-west coast giving hot summers in inland.  It tends to be cloudy along the coast and cold and cloudy winters in interior and partly cloudy on the coast line. The population of Spain consists of around 88% of native Spaniards and around 12% of immigration mainly of Latin Americans, North Africans and some minor part of east Europeans. The official language is Castilian Spanish (74%) and on a regional level other languages are spoken like Catalan (17%), Galician (7%) and Basque (2%). Traditionally Spanish people have very strongly remained Roman Catholics through of all their history.

Spain nowadays remains a democratic country, organized as a parliamentary government under a constitutional monarchy. Due to its development it is on a world scale positioned as the 12th biggest economy based on the GDP (nominal) and with very high standards (23rd highest Human Development Index) and quality of live index. Likewise other countries in the Western union, Spain is highly industrialized and has a large service sector even if agriculture is still quite significant and represents one of the largest producers of Western Europe. With the arrival of democracy, economic development started to rise very quickly enabling a high GDP that is within the top four Western European economies. As a consequence of mergers and acquisitions and privatizations and especially establishments or consolidation of well-known transitional companies a vast number of large companies nowadays operate in Spain. The overview of Slovenia and Spain is found in Table 3.

Table 3. Overview of the countries studied

| Country | Slovenia | Spain |
|---|---|---|
| **GEOGRAPHY** | | |
| Location | Central Europe, eastern Alps bordering the Adriatic Sea | Southwestern Europe, bordering the Bay of Biscay, Mediterranean Sea, North Atlantic Ocean, and Pyrenees Mountains, southwest of France |
| Area | 20,273 sq km | 505,370 sq km |
| Climate | Mediterranean climate on the coast, continental climate inland | Mediterranean climate on the coast, semiarid climate on the land an oceanic climate in minor parts of the north-west coast |
| **PEOPLE** | | |
| Population | 2,055,496 (Jan 2012 est.[1]) | 47,042,984 (July 2012 est.) |
| Population Grow rate | -0.185% (2012 est.) | 0.654% (2012 est.) |
| Age Structure | 0–14 years: 13.4%<br>15–64 years: 69.8%<br>65 years and over: 16.8% | 0–14 years: 15.1%<br>15–64 years: 67.7%<br>65 years and over: 17.1% |
| Ethnic Group | Slovene 83.1%, Serb 2%, Croat 1.8%, Bosnian 1,1% other or unspecified 12% (census 2002) | Composite of Mediterranean and Nordic Types |
| Religion | Catholic 57.8%, Muslim 2.4%, Orthodox 2.3%, other Christian 0.9%, unaffiliated 3.5%, other or unspecified 23%, none 10.1% (census 2002) | Roman Catholic 94%, Other 6% |
| Languages | Slovenian (official) 91.1%, Serbo-Croatian 4.5%, other or unspecified 4.4%, Italian, Hungarian ( both official) Only in municipalities where Italian or Hungarian reside (2002 census) | Castilian Spanish (official) 74%, Catalan 17%, Galician 7%, Basque 2%, are official regionally |
| Literacy | 99.7% | 97.7% |
| Human Development Index | 0.884 (2011)[2] | 0.878 (2011)[2] |
| **ECONOMY** | | |
| GDP per capita (PPP) | $29,000 (2011 est.) | $31,000 (2011 est.) |
| GDP real grow rate | -0.2% (2011 est.) | 0.7% (2011 est.) |
| GDP composition by sector (agriculture, industry services) | Agriculture: 2.5%<br>Industry: 6.9%<br>Services: 90.5% (2011 est.) | Agriculture: 3.2%<br>Industry: 25.8%<br>Services: 71% (2011 est.) |
| Inflation rate (consumer prices) | 1.9% (2011 est.) | 3.1% (2011 est.) |
| Unemployment rate | 11.8% (2010 est.) | 21.7% (2011 est.) |

Source: *CIA World Factbook*, 2012; *Human Development Report*, 2012.

## 2.3 GLOBE Cultural Dimensions for Slovenia and Spain

The GLOBE study focused on two types of measures when identifying culture: One is practices (the way things are) and other is values (the way things should be). The analysis showed that characteristics of shared success are strongly connected to cultural practices, while are the characteristics of outstanding leadership to cultural values. When the focus was on the nine dimensions in order to clarify the leader behavior, GLOBE relied on values data. The study indicated to the authors that the values of the society were strongly related to the six "CLTs" (culturally recognized leadership dimensions), far more than its practices (Groove, 2005).

Note that in this work the sample of the countries in scope will not be sufficient in order to deeply analyze the links between leadership practices and cultural dimensions.

Next table is showing the GLOBE country scores for Slovenia and Spain. Note as well that absolute scores were transformed to relative ones where the highest received and index of 100 and the lowest and index of 0, which is adjusted for an easier understanding and in order to have a better overview of the relative position of Slovenia and Spain. The following Table 4 shows the culture scores based on GLOBE.

Table 4. GLOBE culture scores for Slovenia and Spain

| Absolute Scores | Slovenia | | Spain | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Practices** | Values | **Practices** | Values |
| Performance Orientation | **3.66** | 6.41 | **4.01** | 5.80 |
| Future Orientation | **3.59** | 5.42 | **3.51** | 5.63 |
| Egalitarianism | **3.96** | 4.83 | **3.01** | 4.82 |
| Assertiveness | **4.00** | 4.59 | **4.42** | 4.00 |
| Institutional Collectivism | **4.13** | 4.38 | **3.85** | 5.20 |
| In-Group Collectivism | **5.43** | 5.71 | **5.45** | 5.79 |
| Power Distance | **5.33** | 2.57 | **5.52** | 2.26 |
| Human Orientation | **3.79** | 5.25 | **3.32** | 5.69 |
| Uncertainty Avoidance | **3.78** | 4.99 | **3.97** | 4.76 |

| Relative Scores | Slovenia | | Spain | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Practices** | Values | **Practices** | Values |
| Performance Orientation | **26** | 90 | **46** | 53 |
| Future Orientation | **32** | 58 | **29** | 69 |
| Egalitarianism | **92** | 83 | **32** | 82 |
| Assertiveness | **41** | 67 | **69** | 46 |
| Institutional Collectivism | **45** | 30 | **30** | 75 |
| In-Group Collectivism | **67** | 49 | **68** | 54 |

*(table continues)*

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| Relative Scores | Slovenia | | Spain | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Practices** | Values | **Practices** | Values |
| Power Distance | **75** | 33 | **85** | 14 |
| Human Orientation | **30** | 48 | **7** | 75 |
| Uncertainty Avoidance | **36** | 75 | **44** | 65 |

**Note**: Absolute scores range from 1 to 7. Relative scores range from 0 to 100, with the highest ranking nation on each cultural dimension (out of 62 Societies) receiving 100 and lowest ranking receiving 0.

Source: R. J. House et al., *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*, 2004, pp. 250–623.

On average, Slovenes and Spaniards score high on In-Group Collectivism and Power Distance. The highest scored dimension for Slovenia is Egalitarianism while the highest for Spain is Power Distance. Both countries score low on Future and Human Orientation where Spain scores really poorly. From the chart below it is visible that the biggest differences exist with Egalitarianism, Assertiveness and Human Orientation.

Based on the GLOBE scores we can say that in Slovenia women have more authority, sex segregation is less occupation, both genders have similar education level and tend to care more about others, and seek need for affiliation than personal development. Conversely, the Spaniards have a culture much more suited for the male members, as they are initiative, expressive, and open with a strong tendency towards personal development, control and welfare.

Figure 3. Culture scores (practices) for Slovenia and Spain
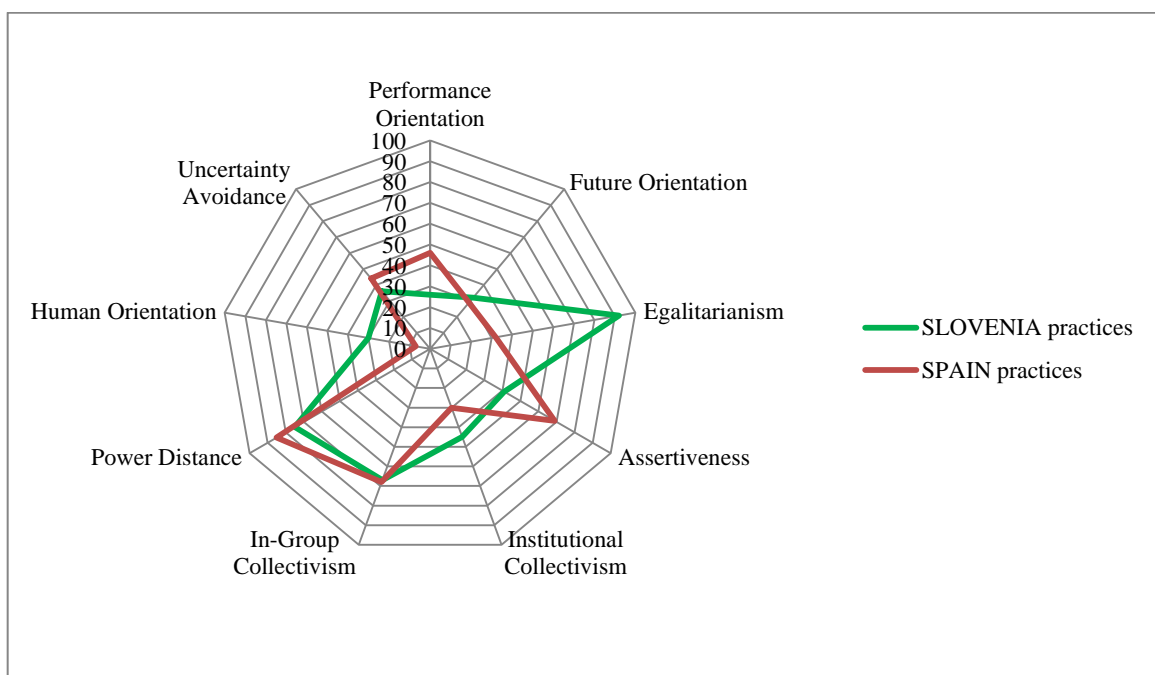
Figure 4. Culture scores (values) for Slovenia and Spain
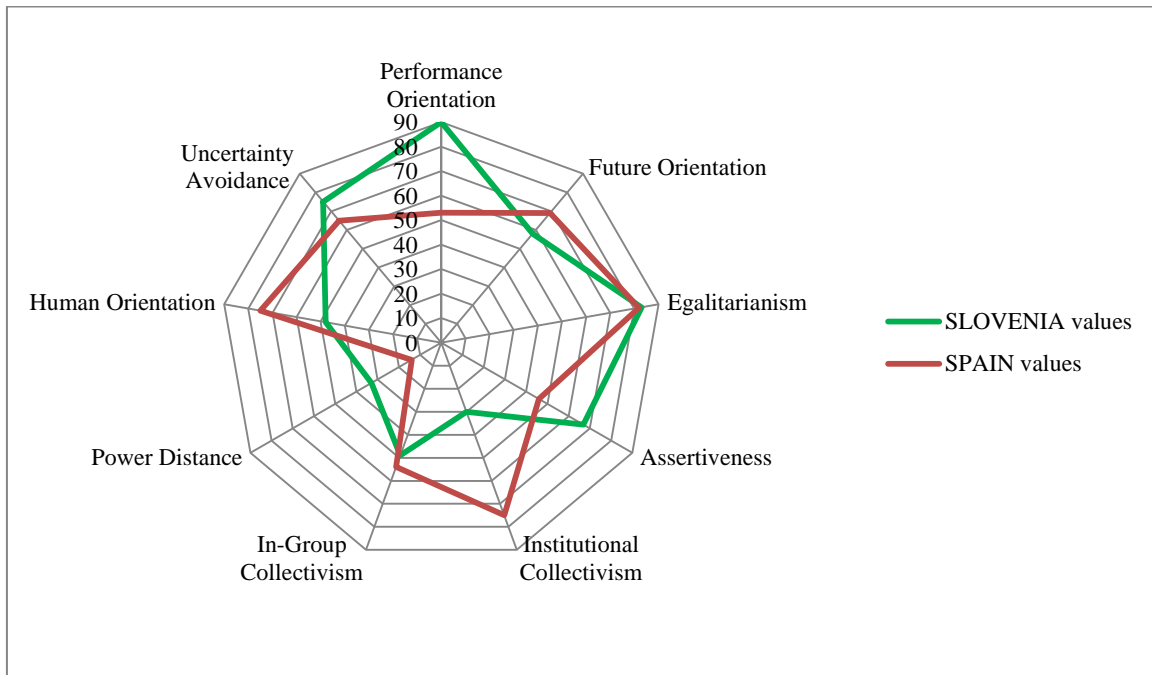
As previously stated, findings based on the GLOBE show that there is a significant difference in the perception of people how thing should be or how things are. In regards to this, Figures 3 and 4 show these significant differences for Slovenia and Spain. Besides this, the dimensions Egalitarianism and Human Orientation present the greatest existing differences between practices for both countries. We can conclude that Power Orientation has the biggest difference between values and practices for both countries, where for Slovenia these differences are especially big between Performance Orientation and Institutional Collectivism. In general, we can conclude as well that the greatest differences between practices and values were with Performance orientation for Slovenia and Humane orientation for Spain.

## 2.4 GLOBE CLT Leadership Styles

As recommended by the GLOBE study, there are shared origins of leadership that are culturally based and are represented in a way that would culturally approve implicit theories of leadership (CLT). Accordingly, common values and observations are shared between members of the same cultures regarding what establishes effective and ineffective leadership. The CLT leadership dimensions are:

- Charismatic/Value Based leadership,
- Team oriented leadership,
- Participative leadership,
- Autonomous leadership

- Human-Oriented leadership,
- Self-Protective leadership.

The results of the GLOBE study as well recommend that 2 out of 6 global dimensions seem to be contributing to the effectiveness of leadership. Those 2 are: Transformational/Value Based and Team-Oriented. From the next 2 dimensions, one is universally perceived as an obstacle to understand leadership (Self-Protective leadership), while the second is almost universally recognized as a contributor (Participative leadership). The remaining 2 dimensions (Humane and Autonomous leadership) vary from culture to culture. In the Table 5, CLT scores for Slovenia and Spain are presented.

Table 5. GLOBE CLT scores for Slovenia and Spain

| Absolute Scores | Slovenia | Spain |
|---|---|---|
| | CLT Scores | CLT Scores |
| Charismatic/Value Based | 5.69 | 5.90 |
| Team Oriented | 5.91 | 5.93 |
| Participative | 5.42 | 5.11 |
| Humane-Oriented | 4.44 | 4.66 |
| Autonomous | 4.28 | 3.54 |
| Self-Protective | 3.61 | 3.38 |

| Relative Scores | Slovenia | Spain |
|---|---|---|
| | CLT Scores | CLT Scores |
| Charismatic/Value Based | 61 | 71 |
| Team Oriented | 80 | 81 |
| Participative | 58 | 38 |
| Humane-Oriented | 32 | 44 |
| Autonomous | 85 | 54 |
| Self-Protective | 51 | 40 |

**Note**: Absolute scores range from 1 to 7. Relative scores range from 0 to 100, with the highest ranking nation on each cultural dimension (out of 62 Societies) receiving 100 and lowest ranking receiving 0.

Source: P. W. Dorfman, P. J. Hanges and F. C. Brodbeck, *Leadership and Cultural Variation*, 2004, p. 713.

Figure 5. CLT scores for Slovenia and Spain
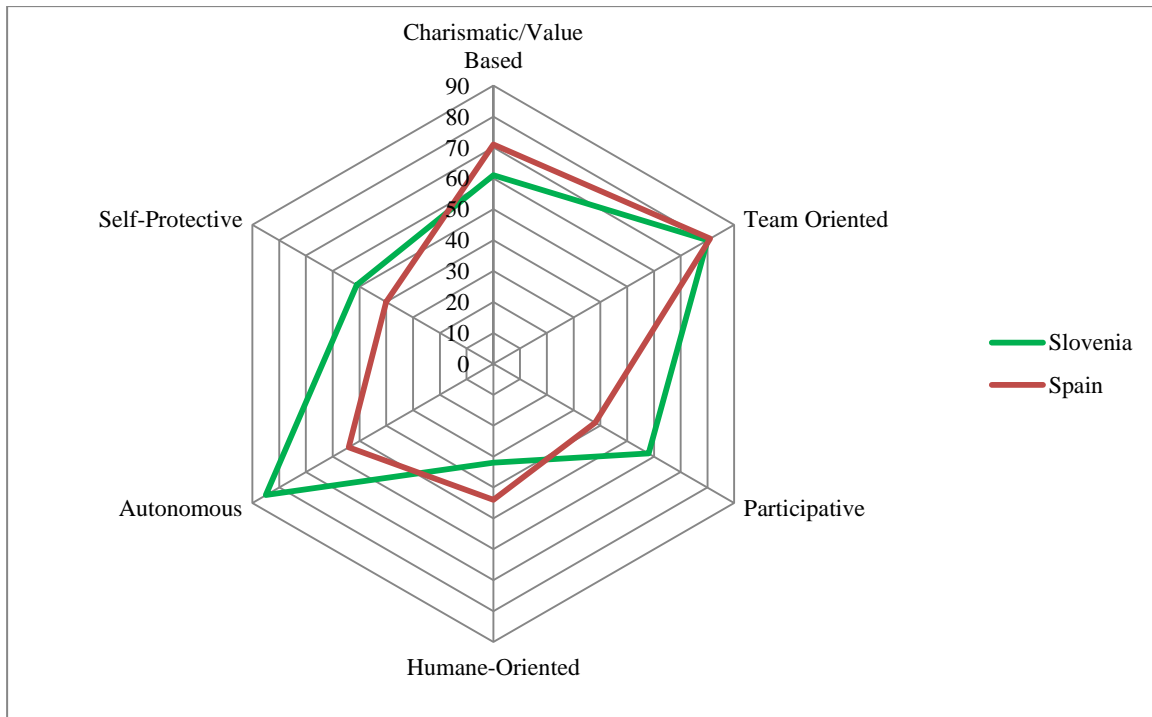


From the relative results (scores) obtained, which are seen in Figure 5, we can see that both countries in scope have Team-Oriented and Charismatic leadership styles as most effective, while and Humane and Self-Protective leadership as least effective.

Among all the 62 examined societies we can confirm that scores for Team-Oriented and Autonomous are high in Slovenia and Oriented leadership in Spain. We can as well see that the scores for Self-Protective leadership are somewhere in the middle for both of the countries. When comparing both countries with other countries from the GLOBE study, we can mention that Participative leadership does not seem to be important for leader effectiveness in Spain as this goes the same for Human-Oriented leadership in Slovenia.

## 2.5 Research Hypotheses

The main purpose of this thesis is to examine the similarities and differences in leadership practices in Slovenia and Spain and, as already commented in the previous section, how to culture drives similarities or differences in the behavior of a leader. Upon this and backed up by the literature and distinctive characteristics of Slovenia and Spain, the research hypotheses have been set. Many of the hypotheses are related to the dimensions of culture as to the LPI (Leadership Practice Inventory), considered as the lever to evaluate neocharismatic leadership behavior in the framework of Kouzes and Posner (1987), built on five leadership practices which as well represents the lead for the empirical part. In

addition, it is important to claim that in this type of research all the hypotheses presented form importance in order to draw final conclusions.

**H1: There will be no significant differences in the usage of the five leadership practice scores across the two countries.**

Various cross-cultural comparisons performed in the recent period using LPI show more similarities than differences in the usage of LPI between the countries. These comparisons showed no significant shifts in intra-country rank orderings even where significant differences were reported. Based on the report of Kouzes and Posner (2002) not many differences have been found when observing the same multinational company based in the US and UK. The practice Enabling Others to Act was valued most frequently from both countries and with the same assumption to practices Challenging the Process and Inspiring a Shared Vision. For example, there were no significant differences encountered, in one large company from the technology sector, between US and their entities in Germany, Netherlands and England. In addition, the research including Swiss and US managers did not find any distinctions in practices Modeling the Way and Enabling Others to Act, where US managers engaged more frequently in the practice Challenging the Process, Inspiring a Shared Vision and Encouraging the Heart in comparison to Swiss managers.. Additionally, US managers were compared with Australian managers working on the middle level of management where result showed no significant differences in any of the practices. Though the Mexican scores were lower in comparison to the US scores there were no differences in the rank orderings of the practices (Berumen, 1992).

**H2: The least frequently used practices in both countries will be Inspiring a Shared Vision and the most frequently used practices will be Enabling Others to Act.**

Based many cross-cultural researches of Kouzes and Posner using LPI, the rank ordering on leadership practices was identified in the following order: Enabling Others to Act, Modeling the Way, Challenging the Process, Encouraging the Heart, Inspiring a Shared Vision. Zagoršek on the other hand found the same rank ordering in leadership practices for five countries out of six made in the LPI comparison.

**H3: Enabling Others to Act will be more frequently used practice in Slovenia than in Spain.**

Based on the GLOBE scores for cultural dimensions for Slovenia and Spain we could see that Slovenia scored much lower on Performance Orientation than Spain. It has been found that societies scoring low on Performance Orientation give more importance to family over training and development, so they prefer harmony with the environment rather than being competitive and wealth driven. In general, it presents a more passive societal position from personal point of view than active. In addition, cultures that are more collectivistic and

foster collaboration and considerate and empowering leadership. At the same time, they have small differences in the power distribution and are expected to engage much more in the practice Enabling Others to Act, thus I predict in this hypothesis that Slovene respondents should engage more in practice Enabling Others to Act than Spanish ones.

**H4: Encouraging the Heart will be more frequently used practice in Spain then in Slovenia.**

According to the cultural dimension section we could see that Spain scores much higher in Performance orientation that is explained by the degree to which a collective encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence. Even if Egalitarianism in Spain is comparatively lower, this should not be the case for identifying this leadership practice as it has been proven in various researches that it does not positively correlates with egalitarianism. Other practices that are related to performance and collectivism are seen to be higher in Spain in comparison to Slovenia. Based on the result it can be predicted that the usage of Encouraging the Heart should be much higher in Spain than in Slovenia.

# 3 CROSS-CULTURAL RESEARCH

The function of Cross-cultural studies is to test the scope and hypotheses related to human behavior and culture as well. There are three different forms of cross-cultural studies. One is a comparison of case studies, another is controlled comparison between variants of a common derivation and the third is a comparison within a sample of cases. These studies usually observe and inspect characteristics of societies using a large enough sample to perform the statistical analysis, so that the relationship between the traits and the question can be shown based on this analysis. The analysis has also been used by social scientists of many disciplines, in particular in psychology and anthropology, for many years and has been extensively developed since 19th century to achieve various objectives.

When separating a single country research and cross-cultural comparative research we find that it is required to chase for strategies within the cross-cultural research that tries to reconcile with the experience that the notion may not be comparable or matching and the same instrument may not be adequate or appropriate in some other context (Harkness, Van de Vijver & Johnson, 2003). In addition, even if the research covers a wide field of qualitative and quantitative perspectives and methods, there still remain some issues that might be ignored.

Before getting on to the analysis of the result and its interpretation I find important to reveal some of the following methodological problems.

## 3.1 Methodological Issues

It is commonly known that each culture is based and defined by its unique values, attitudes, norms and experiences. A major international research based methodological problem can occur carried by the compassion of any phenomenon. In regards to this Triandis (1994) commented that it is quite easy to find differences across cultures. The main problem faced is to determine whether the difference is a nominal finding or it is not directly linked with the measurement.

The following paragraph is showing some reasonable causes to this question, which are called as well "rival hypotheses", filed by Triandis (1994):

- The two cultures may have a different definition or concept.
- The instructions may not be understood the same way.
- The level of motivation of the two samples may be different.
- The reaction to the experimenter may be different.
- Response sets differ across cultures.
- The meaning of the test situation is not always the same.
- Two samples, in two cultures, may not have been strictly equivalent.
- The level of panic or emotional involvement may not be the same.
- The ethical acceptability of the method may not have been the same

In order to eliminate all credible hypotheses that are conditioned by creating cultural differences may actually interfere for the detected differences. Until now, many proposals have been found; suggesting how to get rid of all those interfering factors in practices, but it hasn't really been possible as some hypotheses are certain to exist for the most of cross-cultural studies.

From the quality standpoint, single country research is affecting the quality and the conclusions drawn of the comparative research. In the case that these are detected, similarities and differences can represent methodological artifacts and mono-cultural survey search can seek for these, assuming the *ceteris paribus* concept. An obvious statement of its validity, reliability and comparability of measurement needs to be made within the comparative research (Braun, 2003).

Error and bias in the comparative analysis is an important factor affecting reliable conclusions. A presence of the 'irritation factor' presents an important bias that challenges the comparability of the scores across cultural groups. When the scores are biased, they rely on culture and group differences in valuation outcome are to be accounted at least to some level (Van de Vijver, 2003).

There are three types of biases as they have been identified by Van de Vijver and Leung (1997):

- **Concept bias***: non-classification of theoretical concept across groups.
- **Method bias***: resources of bias are arising from methodological aspect of study (including instrument difference, interviewer differences and sample incomparability).
- **Item bias***: irregularities at the level of item.

Recognizing biases is the best way in order to avoid them. As it has been noted, biases can give a wrong correlation or at least moderate relations between variables even if covering the real relationship between two variables. Typically, method bias arises from different sources like a response set that is extremely problematic for cross-cultural research. Method bias as defined can also occur from the social desirability by leaning of individuals to show them in a good light and likely that it varies across culture. Cross-cultural research might have a particular response bias as stated by Hofstede (Randal, Hou & Pawelk, 1993; Dorfman, 1996). It is clear that seeming cultural difference may mirror opposing sets of responses whenever the members of one culture have a habit to respond in a social needed manner more than members of a different culture (Triandis, 1972; Dorfman, 1996). This habit can be dominant in cultures that score high in power distance and collectivism. To use extreme ends of scale is another bias that is concerned by failure. Behind this fact is present is the idea that responses are honest reflecting sincere sentiments. One other known set is to respond, no matter the feelings, positively or negatively. It is interesting to know that response bias can get worse in cross-cultural research due to differing motivation levels among respondents and inconsistent test administration (Dorfman, 1996).

Item bias, on the other hand, is normally ascending and there are ambiguities in the original item, poor item translation, have effect on cultural essentials, such as irritation or implication factors. These are linked with the item wording as the most common source and low appropriateness/familiarity of the content in certain cultures (Van de Vijver, 2003).

Another important thing to mention is that two distinct avoidance approaches were proposed, as biases can occur through all stages of the analysis. The first is focusing on instrument and sample design, while the other is for identification and correction of bias in some cases summarizing the submission of statistical techniques (Braun, 2003). In order to find if the same fundamental construct is measured across central groups, many statistical techniques can be used. It is as well important to state that only the right combination of proper and appropriate statistical analysis enables to bring the validity of cross-cultural comparison to the maximum (Van de Vijver, 2003).

However, we can expect to deal with difficult considerations about the hypothesis validity on one side and on the other side the challenge to determine to measure and explain social

phenomena across compared in the best way possible . This fact alone gives a lot of consideration in order how to design, innovate and explain a multicultural survey.

## 3.2 Methods of Cross-Cultural Analysis

The biggest problem in many of social science research projects has been to select the correct level of analysis. This problem is not too often to be recognized. It was argued by Hofstede, Bond and Luk (1993), that clarity about the level of analysis active in quantities of comparisons is essential. In this scope House, Wright and Aditya (1997 have described three basic method of cross-cultural analysis:

1. **Comparison of group means**: Majority of the comparative quantitative studies use examination of group means based on the numerical responses obtained from the questionnaires. This is often used to present the variable on cultural level defined previously based on conceptual or theoretical definitions and compared across cultural units, generally using analysis of variance and rank ordering. Hereby cultural group is the level of the analysis.
2. **Correlation between variables**: This method is valid at various levels of analysis:
    a. Pan Cultural analysis: All individual observations are taken by correlation between two variables no matter of the cultural unit to which observation belongs.
    b. Within group analysis: Correlation between two variables within a group with the results in as much correlations as possible between the variable as there are cultural units in the sample.
    c. Ecological analysis: Correlation between two variables using group means (cultural units from the groups) rather than individual scores with the results obtained from relationship information between variables across groups.
    d. Individual analysis: Individual scores form the result, where by the subtraction of the group mean from each individual score the cultural component gets eliminated.
3. **Factor analysis or multidimensional scaling**: Correlation method that focuses on extracting of cross-cultural dimension based on large number of variables where the level of analysis from the Correlation between variables is applicable.

Due to the most methods used, comparison of the group means and the analysis of variance or paired comparison are used in this thesis as a comparison technique for determination of size and effect and of differences.

## 3.3 Survey Instrument

In order to measure the transformational leadership behavior of Slovene and Spanish respondents with the aim measure the five leadership practices in the exemplary model of leadership, the LPI (Leadership Practices Inventory) was used, that was developed by

Kouzes and Posner (1987). From this standpoint there exist two types of the LPI tests. One is the "Self" (self-report) type, used as well in this thesis and "Observer" type that gives and allows a 360-degree feedback.

As found in appendix 1, the leadership practice inventory consist of thirty statements which capture essential behaviors when the responders report being at their best as leaders. In the following Table 6, all the statements for each practice are listed.

In the survey the marking of responses with behavioral anchors was done on a ten-point scale. In each particular statement, frequency was indicated by respondents, with which each particular behavior was engaged. The range of responses is ranged from one, representing "almost never", to ten representing "almost always". The higher the value the higher is the usage of leadership behavior. As there are 30 statements, those are classified in five groups where a pack of six statements is combined in order to form one of the leadership practices. In the research not only LPI data was gathered, but also other demographic variables like gender, age, education background, working experience and other data related to the current job and the satisfaction with it. The question which is originally based in English language was translated into Slovenian and Castilian Spanish. The translation method used in this thesis was one to one. In the next table all the questions from the questionnaire are listed, classified per leadership practice and the original version can be found in Appendix 1.

Table 6. Statements of the LPI questionnaire

| Practices | Sample statements |
|---|---|
| Modeling the Way (MW) | <ul><li>I set a personal example of what I expect from others.</li><li>I spend time and energy on making certain that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards that we have agreed on.</li><li>I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make.</li><li>I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance.</li><li>I build consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.</li><li>I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.</li></ul> |

*(table continues)*

*(continued)*

| Practices | Sample statements |
|---|---|
| Inspiring a Shared Vision (ISV) | <ul><li>I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.</li><li>I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.</li><li>I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.</li><li>I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.</li><li>I paint the "big picture of what we aspire to accomplish.</li><li>I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.</li></ul> |
| Challenging the Process (CP) | <ul><li>I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.</li><li>I challenge people to try out new and innovative approaches to their work.</li><li>I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.</li><li>I ask "What can we learn?" when things do not go as expected.</li><li>I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.</li><li>I experiment and take risks even where there is a chance of failure.</li></ul> |
| Enabling Other to Act (EOA) | <ul><li>I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with.</li><li>I actively listen to diverse points of view.</li><li>I treat others with dignity and respect.</li><li>I support the decisions that people make on their own.</li><li>I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.</li><li>I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.</li></ul> |
| Encouraging the Heart (EH) | <ul><li>I praise people for a job well done.</li><li>I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.</li><li>I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.</li><li>I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.</li><li>I find ways to celebrate accomplishments.</li><li>I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.</li></ul> |

Source: J. M. Kouzes and B. Z. Posner, *An Introduction to The Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership*, 2010, pp. 16–17.

## 3.4 Sampling

When sampling is observed as highly technical aspect of survey research it has an important effect on the quality of data that gets collected and this is applicable in comparative research projects where there is a lot of variation in sampling design (Häder & Gabler, 2003). Within sampling, convenience sampling is the most effective type of data gathering in cross-cultural research and this is pretty much better as some sort of systematic sampling that obtains from cultural entities all the representative samples. There are three levels of sampling that can be distinguished in cross-cultural research and needs to be chosen (Looker & Berry, 1986):

- Which countries will be included in the study;
- Sampling procedure in each country and decision making;
- In each subgroup of each culture individuals are selected.

In order to make a better decision about how to approach to the study, there are three types defining sampling of cultural units:

1. **Convenience sampling** (cultures are selected mainly on the basis of convenience – this enables in the selected culture an easy way to access to the subject).
2. **Systematic sampling** (has a firmer theoretical basis).
3. **Random sampling** (sampling of a big number of cultures).

Based on the needs for this thesis, convenience sampling was used as other sampling types would go over the extent of the research. As I lived in both countries, this approach it was easier to access required subjects from Slovenia and Spain. This study was done between the period of February and June 2012. As already classified, more detail about the two countries in scope is in the 3rd chapter.

The second step in sampling was made by the intra-country, personal-level sampling where more sampling types can be used:

1. **Convenience sampling** (see above; most commonly used in cross-cultural research method).
2. **Simple random sampling** (equal subject probability selection rate for both countries).

In addition to the random sampling, it is important to state that it often represents a limitation or a limited applicability in the cross-cultural research. It is not easy to define if the observed differences are occurring because of non-controlled or valid cultural differences, once the application of random sampling has already been done, like occupation, demographic characteristic or education.

In addition, matched sampling design was used in the intra-country and personal level sampling when analyzing education that represents most significant demographic characteristic identified in the cross-cultural literature. Matched sampling is a sampling scheme that allows controlling at least some of the cultural differences and it makes the cultural group samples to look as much alike as possible in their demographic characteristics. It is commonly known to be adopted once facing groups that are highly dissimilar. The benefit of this strategy is the reduction of alternative explanations for the differences, allowing better sample comparability. The drawback though is that we need to be careful with generalizations as this might not be really representative of culture (Zagoršek, 2004).

As a subject of the research, adult respondents that have experience with leadership have been selected, meaning that they have already managed people. A wide diversity of companies, departments and industry in general in the sample, from which the respondents come presents the biggest advantage.   This makes the sample to be quite heterogeneous, in addition to the fact that they have experience and broader perspective on leading or leadership. This can still lead to a good representation of a country, as the thought is more representative for the population of managers than the sample of managers for a company, a common industry for cross-cultural research p (Zagoršek, 2004).

As mentioned, the collection of data was conducted between February and June 2012 where the LPI questionnaire was given to adult respondents with experience in leadership mostly via email and some in person (a printed version of the survey) in order to get a bigger response number. Hereby, the response number of the Slovene sample consists of 117 respondents and the Spanish sample consists of 113 respondents. Altogether 230 responses were obtained and the research findings are visible in the following chapter.

# 4 RESEARCH FINDINGS

## 4.1 Reliability of Leadership Practice Inventory (LPI)

In order to test the hypotheses, it is essential to study all the characteristics of the survey questionnaire by executing the reliability analysis. This analysis specifies the range to which "errors of measurement" are included in the instrument that may cause the variation for causes not related to survey response of an individual. Whenever there are less errors the instrument is proven to be more reliable and instrument reliabilities that are about 0.60 are considered good (Aiken, 1997). Hereby the indicator for a common measure of internal consistency is the coefficient called Cronbach's Alpha. Based on the analysis executed for this survey, the reliability output for overall instrument equals 0.87. The subscale reliability range from 0.67 for the leadership practice Enabling Others to Act (EOA) to 0.74 for the leadership practices Inspiring a Shared Vision (ISV). All reliability

coefficients are above 0.60 which means that the instrument was proven to be reliable. For the evaluation, Kouzes and Posner (2002) obtained a higher range of subscale reliability starting from 0.75 for leadership practice Enabling Others to Act (EOA) to 0.87 for the leadership practice Encouraging the Heart (EH) and Inspired by a Shared Vision (ISV).

## 4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

The overall sample of the analysis contains 230 respondents from which 117 are Slovene and 113 are Spanish respondents.

As a first demographic remark, the overall sample does not contain an equal gender distribution as 39.1% of the respondents are female and 60.9% male. On a country level the samples contain a very similar gender distribution as on the overall sample level. From the perspective of age, the overall average age of the Slovenian respondents is 33.62 and 33.94 years in Spain. In addition the age range of the majority of Slovenian respondents is between 26 and 35 years (67.5%) while in Spain the majority of respondents are between 31 and 40 years (53.1%). In the following Table 7, the sample analysis based on the age structure is seen.

Table 7. Age structure of the overall sample

| Country/Age | I | < 25 | 26 - 30 | 31 - 35 | 36 - 40 | 41 - 45 | > 46 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Slovenia | N | 3 | 44 | 35 | 18 | 6 | 11 | 117 |
|  | % | 2.6 | 37.6 | 29.9 | 15.4 | 5.1 | 9.4 | 100 |
| Spain | N | 12 | 27 | 28 | 32 | 8 | 6 | 113 |
|  | % | 10.6 | 23.9 | 24.8 | 28.3 | 7.1 | 5.3 | 100 |

When taking a look at the educational background of the overall sample, we can see that the most respondents studied Management and Economy (43%), then Engineering (19.1%) and Social sciences (18.3%) studies. The rest of the sample that presents 19.6% is spread across other educational areas.

In the scope of labor experience, the overall sample is showing that most respondents (56.6%) have between 1 and 10 years of working experience. This is because Slovene respondents (64.1%) have between 1 and 10 year of working experience, whereas in Spain the most respondents (54.9%) have between 6 and 15 years of working experience. Hereby, the average length of work experience for Slovene respondents is 10.69 years and 11.44 years for Spanish respondents.

As the sample audience was well targeted, 87% of the overall sample is a part of the management. Within this the majority of the Slovenian respondents (62.4%) belong to either 1st or 2nd level of management, meaning that this majority belongs to the top

management and the majority of Spanish respondents (63.8%) belong between 2nd or the 4th level of management. Therefore, the majority belongs more to middle management than to top management.

When talking about the company type and size it can be mentioned based on the overall sample that the majority of the respondents come from (78.5%) privately owned companies, and as the respondents were equally distributed among differently big companies, the numbers shows that 58.8% of them work in the companies which have more than 50 employees where the majority of the same work in the companies with more than 250 employees.

At the end when looking at the experience sector it can be noted that 21.7% of the respondents have the most working experience in Marketing and Sales. Resulting at the same percentile are other sectors which are not in the standard selection and then followed with Accounting and Finance sector with 14.3%.

## 4.3 Comparison of the Actual Usage of Leadership Practices

The most regularly used method in the cross-cultural analysis as stated by House, Wright and Aditya (1997) is the comparison of the group means. Furthermore, rank ordering is used in order to compare group means across cultural units. Alternatively, the second option in cross cultural analysis is the calculation of correlations between variables. Within this results obtained from both methods of cross-cultural analysis will be presented in the next section.

### 4.3.1 Country mean score comparison

For the comparison of the mean scores of cultural groups, T-test (whenever there are two groups) are used generally besides univariate and multivariate analysis of variance, based on culture as an independent variable (Van de Vijver, 2003). A simple analysis of variance was used (ANOVA) in order to identify if there are any difference between Slovenia and Spain. For this kind of analysis ANOVA is appropriate where the respondents belong or are assigned for a variable number of groups (starting from one), and where each of them has the score on the dependent variable. The resulting hypothesis is that across the groups we have the same set of variable means (Landau & Everitt, 2004). ANOVA is as well showing the interaction of independent variables with each other and the effects these interactions have on them.

It was described in the scope of cross-cultural research, where we can find the description of the survey instrument, that the frequency is indicated by the respondents where the particular behavior engaged is shown on a ten-point scale. As 6 specific questions formed each leadership practice, each leadership practice could have the range between 6 and 60

points. Hereby 30 responses, on individual leadership items, were grouped into five leadership practices for the both countries in scope.

Table 8. Average usage of leadership practices

| Practice | Slovenia | | Spain | | F-value | P-value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mean | Std. Deviation | Mean | Std. Deviation | | |
| Modeling the Way | **47,15** | 5,55 | **44,62** | 5,83 | 11,404 | 0,001 |
| Inspiring a Shared Vision | **44,03** | 6,59 | **43,18** | 7,29 | 0,876 | 0,350 |
| Challenging the Process | **45,33** | 5,88 | **42,80** | 5,79 | 10,847 | 0,001 |
| Enabling others to Act | **49,39** | 4,41 | **49,65** | 4,79 | 0,186 | 0,667 |
| Encouraging the Heart | **47,74** | 7,29 | **48,73** | 5,45 | 1,353 | 0,246 |
| | 46,72 | 5,94 | 45,79 | 5,83 | | |

The results of the LPI scores show that the responses in Slovenia and Spain were quite similar. It can be seen that in both countries the overall scores of the five leadership practices are pretty high. Within this the Spanish responses scored the highest in Enabling Others to Act (EOA) with 49,65 in average while the lowest scored was within the Spanish responses as well with Challenging the Process (CP) that averaged 42,80. One key thing to address is that both countries scored the highest for Enabling Others to Act (EOA) with the difference that Slovene responses scored the lowest in Inspiring a Shared Vision (ISV), while Spanish responses scored the lowest for Challenging the Process (CP). In comparison to Spain, Slovene responses scored higher in MW, ISV and CP while the Spanish responses scored higher on EOA and EH. In addition, the highest differences between the means of the two countries studies were in Challenging the Process (CP) and Modeling the Way (MW). On the other hand, the smallest difference between the two countries in scope was Enabling Others to Act (EOA). From the scope of the intra-country variability which is defined by standard deviation the highest scores for Slovene responses were for Encouraging the Heart (EH) and Inspiring a Shared Vision (ISV) for Spanish responses where Enabling Others to Act (EOA) was found the lowest for both. This is graphically presented in the Figure 6.

Figure 6. Average usage of leadership practices
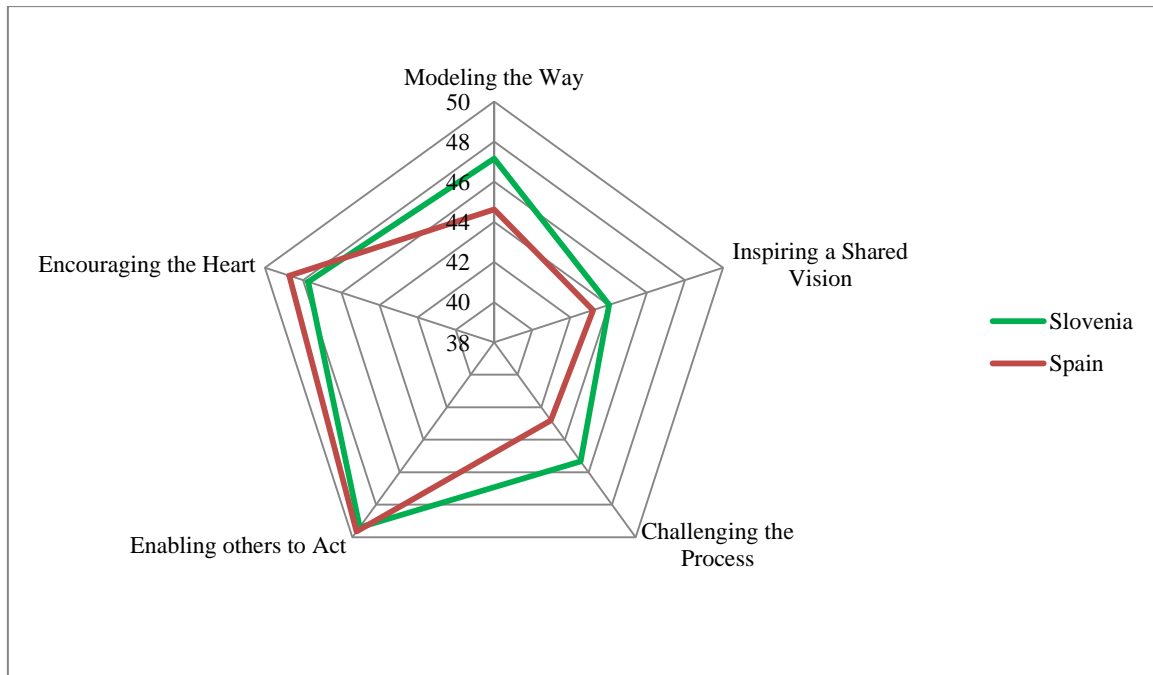


Levene's test used to test the homogeneity of variances showed that four of the leadership practices were homogenous with Encouraging the Heart (EH) as the only exception as significant differences were found between Slovenia and Spain (p=0.003). Based on this, robust ANOVA using Welch and Brown-Forsythe procedure was performed, not assuming the equality of variance. It showed that in Slovenia and Spain score means for two practices were significantly different. The significant differences were found in the usage of the practice Modeling the Way (F (1,228)=11.505,p<0.05) and Challenging the Process (F (1,228)=10.847, p<0.05) for both countries in scope.

Based on this it was shown that Spanish respondents engaged, in average, significantly less in the two mentioned practices presenting the biggest difference between the two countries in scope. For the practice IS, EOA and EH score means did not significantly differ between the two countries in scope, meaning that culture didn't significantly effect on the usage of the leadership practices for those particular practices.

One important thing that has been stated by the researchers Kouzes and Posner (2002) was that the LPI scores are typically not connected to the various demographic characteristics such as age, working experience, educational level, business function nor organizational features. Based on the fact that on average the age and working experience for Spanish respondents was bit bigger, a one-way ANOVA was executed with the aim to look for significant differences in the usage of the leadership practices from the demographic characteristics standpoint, tested on the two variables. In addition, the test was executed in order to confirm or decline the statement that the LPI scores are generally related to

demographics. As seen from the Table 9, the four demographic characteristics that tested the usage of leadership practices show major significant differences between Slovenia and Spain based on the demographic characteristics. This confirms that those do not have strong tendency to have an effect on leadership, but they still can't be excluded as a factor that might help to influence on leadership. In addition to the test, significant differences were seen especially for leadership practices MV, EOA, and EH while ISV whereas CP did not show the same impact. This supported the results of Levene's test of homogeneity.

Table 9. Significance of differences in mean scores according to demographic variables

|  |  | F-value | P-value |
|---|---|---|---|
| Modeling the Way | Gender | 1,203 | 0,274 |
|  | Age | 2,901 | 0,015 |
|  | Work Experience | 5,059 | 0,000 |
|  | Business Function | 3,506 | 0,001 |
| Inspiring a Shared Vision | Gender | 0,239 | 0,625 |
|  | Age | 0,970 | 0,437 |
|  | Work Experience | 1,411 | 0,221 |
|  | Business Function | 1,297 | 0,253 |
| Challenging the Process | Gender | 0,275 | 0,601 |
|  | Age | 1,152 | 0,334 |
|  | Work Experience | 1,412 | 0,221 |
|  | Business Function | 1,234 | 0,285 |
| Enabling Others to Act | Gender | 5,937 | 0,016 |
|  | Age | 1,066 | 0,380 |
|  | Work Experience | 3,166 | 0,009 |
|  | Business Function | 2,275 | 0,030 |
| Encouraging the Heart | Gender | 6,036 | 0,015 |
|  | Age | 2,267 | 0,049 |
|  | Work Experience | 4,278 | 0,001 |
|  | Business Function | 4,506 | 0,000 |

## 4.3.2 Rank ordering

Besides the comparison of the mean, intra-country rank ordering was done as shown in the table below which can be compared with many cross-cultural comparisons of Kouzes and Posner's LPI scores, which found that leadership practices have the following rank ordering as follows: Enabling Others to Act, Modeling the Way, Challenging the Process, Encouraging the Heart and Inspiring a Shared Vision. Rank orderings are presented in the following Table 10.

Table 10. Rank ordering for Slovenia and Spain

| | Slovenia | | Spain | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mean | Ranking | Mean | Ranking |
| Modeling the Way | 47,15 | 3 | 44,62 | 3 |
| Inspiring a Shared Vision | 44.03 | 5 | 43,18 | 4 |
| Challenging the Process | 45,33 | 4 | 42,80 | 5 |
| Enabling Others to Act | 49,39 | 1 | 49,65 | 1 |
| Encouraging the Heart | 47,74 | 2 | 48,73 | 2 |

When looking at the intra-country ranking, we can see that both countries are quite similar. This is due to the fact that both in Slovenia and in Spain the most practiced leadership methodology is Enabling Others to Act, based on the responses obtained.  The second most practiced is Encouraging the Heart, and then Modeling the Way. When doing a comparison with the findings of Kouzes and Posner, it can be seen that Enabling Others to Act is found on the primary position in both cases. Hereby, the variability in both countries for this practice is the lowest, meaning that respondents as in Slovenia and as in Spain foster teamwork and collaboration, give power and make self-determination and developing competence quite frequently without large deviation from the average. The least performed leadership practice in Slovenia was Inspiring a Shared Vision, and Challenging the Process for Spain, for which both have a quite high variability.  This means that engaging in these practices vary from respondent to respondent in each of the country where some engage in the practice really often and others do not. As seen from the table, the rank ordering is quite similar with the difference that MW and ISV ends up in a different ordering output for Slovenia and Spain and this is not so significant as the variation is not big among them.

## 4.4 The Effect Size of Culture and Other Demographic Variables

The comparison of the effect size for a set of variables in the cross-cultural surveys usually serves in order to understand various patterns of difference rather than to generally find significant differences and those for example are the variables which reveal large to small country differences.

The level of connection between effect (e.g. age, gender, culture) and the dependent variable (the usage of leadership practices) is represented by the effect size. Within the frames of effect size eta squared ($\eta^2$) is the measure that is most commonly used. Hereby eta squared signifies the ratio of variance of the dependent variable. This is explained by the independent variable. As numerous critics have been addressed at eta squared, partial eta squared can be used as it eliminates some of the concerns raised in the critics (Pallant, 2001). For the same explanatory reason the analysis in this thesis used partial eta squared ($\eta_p^2$).

The analysis where one-way ANOVA was used, with idea to find the differences in the mean scores between Slovenia and Spain has shown as per the Table 8 that there are significant differences for only two leadership practices .One is Modeling the Way (F (1, 228)=11.505, p<0.05) and other is Challenging the Process (F (1, 228)=10.847, p<0.05). Besides this, no significant effect on gender, age, work, experience or business function was found as already seen in the country mean score comparison section. Based on the claimed output, one-way ANOVA was used as well to obtain the effect size of the two mentioned leadership practices that showed significant differences. In addition, it was used to verify and or confirm that the results of the remaining three leadership practices that primarily showed no significant differences are correct despite the fact that determining their effect size which based on the following Table 11 confirms no significant differences.

The calculation of the effect size based on partial eta squared was for the practice Modeling the Way as for the practice Challenging the Process 0.048 (4.8%). These results still show a very small effect size of culture based on guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988) which determines 1% as a small effect, 5% as a medium effect and 14% as a large effect. For both that are approximately 5% of the total variation can be addressed to the cultural background of the respondents for which are related employment of modeling and exemplary behaviors of Modeling the Way and related to practicing challenging and innovative behavior of Challenging the Process.

Even if culture has a various impact on leadership practices and if ISV, EOA and EH leadership practices have shown no significant difference, it still can't be stated that culture hasn't shown any effect on them as seen in the Table 11. Nevertheless, it is reasonable that leadership as a complex phenomenon, which consists of many fundamental backgrounds, can't expound demographical values of the majority of the variation in the usage of leadership practices. When comparing the results with the findings of Zagoršek (2004), that the biggest influence can be seen on Challenging the Process, then Inspiring a Shared Vision, Modeling the Way and Encouraging the Heart practice, while the smallest influence was for Enabling Others to Act. In addition, he stated that usage of leadership practices can be explained by only 5% of the total score of variance.

Table 11. The effect size of culture

|  | p-value | η2 |
|---|---|---|
| Modeling the Way | 0,001 | 0,048 |
| Inspiring a Shared Vision | 0,350 | 0,004 |
| Challenging the Process | 0,001 | 0,045 |
| Enabling Others to Act | 0,667 | 0,001 |
| Encouraging the Heart | 0,246 | 0,006 |

No matter the results obtained from the effect, size analysis results are important when finding significant effect sizes, especially when considering several biases and errors that can happen in the cross-cultural research.

## DISCUSSION

Before starting to examine the similarities and differences between Slovenia in Spain, the research hypotheses have been developed as guidelines for comparison of the leadership practices in the countries studied and in order to confirm or decline them. As first, the analysis of the mean comparison was made. This came to the conclusion that there are, in fact, more similarities in the leadership practices than differences when using numerous cross-cultural comparisons of the LPI. These results have somehow been foreseen based on the cultural image and characteristics of both countries, which enabled me to set the hypotheses. In the analysis it was shown that both countries score high on average, meaning that there is a presence of a high engagement in the leadership practices. These findings can be connected to the fact that the LPI measures charismatic and or transformational behaviors, and for the countries which have a high level of charismatic leadership it is expected that they will have a higher usage of the leadership practices. Based on the finding of the GLOBE CLT leadership dimensions, it is shown that both Slovene as Spanish respondents score high on Charismatic/Value based cultural scores reflecting and explains why neocharismatic/transformational is perceived as effective. Another fact backing this is that for cultures that are team oriented, like Slovenia and Spain, emerge more easily and is more effective in comparison to the individualistic cultures in case of transformational leadership (Jung, Bass, & Sosik, 1995; Zagoršek, 2004).

When mentioning hypotheses, it can be stated that the first hypothesis predicted that no significant differences in the usage of leadership practices between Slovenia and Spain will exist. This assumption was backed up by the fact that both countries had quite similar scores on cultural dimension where further leadership practices needed to be tested in order to confirm or decline these facts. Within this scope, the results of one-way ANOVA have shown significant differences only for **Challenging the Process** and **Modeling the Way** as the probability value was ($p<0.05$). In detail to the differences it was found that Slovenia engaged much more in both of the mentioned leadership practices. Based on these outcomes the hypothesis was declined.

When trying to find the reasons why Slovene respondents engaged more on average in Modeling the Way, we need firstly go through the idea that behavior Modeling the Way is connected to the following principles: having clarity about the business values and beliefs, setting examples and focusing on important priorities by planning and by classifying big projects into small achievable steps. This practice is normally connected to high power distance and uncertainty avoidance, which is surely confirmed when talking from the

values perspectives. However, based on the practices measured in the GLOBE study, this is not the case. Generally, it is still considered that it is bigger in Slovenia. The real reasons for engaging in this practice is certainly connected to the fact that Slovenes are much more feminine culture than Spanish, with which has a higher tendency towards human and future orientation. They show more commitment, spend more energy in trying to achieve shared objective while still need feedback on their effort.

As modeling the Way demands that leaders stand up for their beliefs, it' is imperative for the leader to be followed or perceived by their followers. This is connected to the historical position of both countries in scope and the fact of the major changes in the last decades. Slovene people have generally been suppressed through its history for ages that lead to vast amount of denial and inferiority. After that, the things just before the independence changed, the nation strived to step out from the inferior position with a lot of enthusiasm and motivation to prove the equality. In order achieve this, rules, standards and goals needed to be set and this are typical gestures of the practice Modeling the Way. On the other hand, it is known that Spain was intercontinental, influencing world economy, with strong politics and cultural powers but with not to the same extent in recent decades as Slovenia. This is also influenced by the fact that new generation of Spain is stepping out of this superior role which is showing on the other hand the stronger Slovenian tendency towards achievements.

The second practice where significant differences were shown was Challenging the Process. This is the leader's behavior turned to experimenting, searching for opportunities, taking risk and learning from mistakes. In general, this practice is about leaders that use change and innovation, are open to receive any kind of ideas from anyone and everywhere. Hereby, their initial role is to recognize and support great ideas and being ready to challenge the system in order to develop new processes, services and systems. The results have shown that Slovene respondents have engaged much more with the same differential as in the previously explained practice. When we look at the cultural dimension and try to find the explanation for these behaviors, we can see that culture score of Slovenes in scope of uncertainty avoidance is a little bit lower than of Spain. In this case, it is known that cultures with high scores on uncertainty avoidance, with the importance to the rule, may place other requests on leader than cultures with low scores on uncertainty avoidance such as Slovenia as Slovenia. This results in a tolerant attitude towards ambiguity and innovative behavior. This is related to the practice of Modeling the Way, with the difference that since Slovenia became independent, "challenge the process" was a deep seeded need and old beliefs were becoming debunked. This opened much opportunity for improvement and innovativeness. Through this, Slovenia has found its own way as it has been for a long time under influence of many countries from the Western Europe. In favor of this assumption we see that the overall average of the scores related to the question how important is the work for a person, where Slovene respondents scored quite high in average. On the other hand, Spain does not have such need for changing as they have been

used to have a high superior standing. The difference can be related to the fact that nowadays the pace of living due to its long stability is slower as deficiency of prosperity for management productivity and efficiency. This explains a part of lower tendency to this practice. From this perspective we can conclude why Slovenes engage more and Spanish less in the Challenging the Process practice.

The second hypothesis was talking about rank-ordering of leadership practices based on Kouzes and Posner and on some other leadership researches. It was hereby predicted that the most frequently used practices in both countries in scope will be Enabling Others to Act, while the least used would be Inspiring a Shared Vision.

When looking at the mean scores of both countries it was found that in both countries the most engaged leadership practices was Enabling Others to Act while the least was Inspiring a Shared Vision in Slovenia, and Challenging the Process tightly less than Inspired a Shared vision in Spain. Based on this finding we can mostly confirm the hypothesis. When looking at other leadership practice we can conclude that the rank-ordering was a bit scrambled in comparison to the findings of Kouzes and Posner, as Encouraging the Heart was second in this analysis.   Whereas by Kouzes and Posner on the forth place and Modeling the Way third whereas second in the findings of Kouzes and Posner.

When looking at the third hypothesis that predicted that there would be more engagement of Enabling others to Act in Slovenia than in Spain, we need to mention that the assumptions were made based on the facts that Slovenia scored lower on performance orientation.  Those cultures that score lower on performance orientation value more relationship than training and development and hereby give more value to the environment. In addition, it is known that cultures which are collectivistic and fosters collaboration, considerate and empowering leadership and at the same time have small differences in the power distribution are expected to score higher in the practice Enabling Others to Act. Generally, it is also known that this is one of the practices where usually there are the smallest variations between the countries in scope and this was shown in the analysis. The results have at the end shown that even if Spain scored higher on this practice than Slovenia, we can still consider them to be more or less equal. As this practice was scored the highest for both countries and with the lowest deviation we can assume that both share great orientation towards cooperation and development. Upon the results, obtained it can be concluded that this hypothesis is partly declined due to the very small differences between them. Another fact that is in favor of these results is that both countries have scored exceptionally high on team orientation based on the CLT scores shown in the 3rd chapter.

The last and forth hypothesis has predicted that Spain would have a higher score in the practice Encouraging the Heart that Slovenia. This hypothesis was solely made on the fact

that Spain scored higher on performance orientation and as well very high on collectivism. The results from the analysis have shown that Spain scored pretty higher in Encouraging the Heart and hereby we can confirm the hypothesis. The scoring obtained, which can be clarified by the extent to which a collective encourages and rewards members of the group for their excellence and performance improvement, was higher in Spain. This is also linked to their high scorings on team and humane orientation as per the GLOBE CLT scores. With other words, this can be explained with the fact that Slovene humane generosity was lower as they are more focused in innovation and improvements and goals in general since their independence. This is reflected as well by their high scores in practices such as Challenging the Process and Modeling the Way. Spain, on the other hand, scored lower on these two practices so it was assumed that they would value more interpersonal dimensions at the end.

At the end when looking at the practices that scored the least frequently we can say that Inspiring a Shared Vision was scored the lowest in Slovenia and Challenging the Process the lowest in Spain. Both of these things can be somehow explained with the fact that Slovene respondents came from smaller companies than Spanish respondents. Here it is targeted that especially for autonomous companies it is know not to be very visionary. On the other hand Spanish respondents have responded the lowest on Challenging the Process due to the stable and established melancholic business environment they have created and rather tend to have less need and room for new breakthroughs and system changes nationwide. When looking at the age structure of the respondents, we can see that Spanish respondents were slightly older and that they had more working experience in average. Based on these results we could expect to have some engagement differences for these leadership practices. Even though, the suggestion of this research based on the result is that no matter of being male or female, young or old, or less or more experienced at work, there were no differences in the usage of the leadership practices. In seemed that after all age and work differences were not so big in order that they would influence the overall results.

To this was previously addressing as well the statement by Kouzes and Posner (2002) that the LPI scores are not typically connected to the various demographic characteristics such as age, working experience, educational level, business nor organizational features. Those were confirmed in this analysis when testing for significant differences in the means scores according to demographic values.

When focusing cultural variation in leadership practices based on size and strength, it was suggested that there would be differences in the mean scores between Slovenia and Spain and those were found significantly different for two of the five leadership practices only. In addition, no significant effect of gender, age, work experience or business function was found in the usage of leadership practices. As from the part of effect size it was obtained, that the strength of the influence of culture on leadership practices was small. This is due to the fact that only 5% of the variance of usage of practices Modeling the Way and

Challenging the Process is explained by culture. Another point to mention is that this research wasn't considering values or attitudes that usually tend to have a bigger cultural variation, but actual behavior.

As the results applied with Kouzes and Posner statement that the variation of usage of leadership practices is not explained by either national culture nor gender, age, work experience or business function can be understood as leadership is a complex phenomenon. The population consists of many fundamental backgrounds that cannot expound the majority of the variation, as the demographical variables also cannot. Beside culture being as one of the factors influencing on leadership, there are still many other variables that can influence on leadership, but were not included in this study. Some of these are values, belief, personality of the leader and the followers, organizational culture, work structure, etc.

Some of the explanations why the culture in the study containing respondents with experience in leadership did not have much effect on leadership can be explained by the fact that as nowadays there are a lot of challenges and opportunities in business. Those leaders are facing highly complex, constantly changing environment. Those present a considerably big challenge, respecting leadership and the design of multinational organizations, due to the cultural diversity of employees that is present in multinational organizations across the globe. Within there it is an urge to understand how leadership and organizational practices are being affected by cultural influences and is essential for them to adapt to people in difference cultures, with different needs rather than follow the leadership style that would be more culturally related.

Another explanation for this can be found as well in the country context. Even if there is a big geographical difference of the both countries, both countries are still in Europe and as they are both a part of the European Union. Even if there is the aim to preserve the cultural origins, the European Union tends to establish norms and values. Due to this, the cultural differences are becoming smaller to some extent due to the unification of the legislation, educational system, labor mobility as those can potentially affect the way the leadership will engage and how the followers will perceive their leaders.

Essentially, the most probable reason for the similarity of the results between Slovenia and Spain could be of the LPI item specification itself. The LPI has been constructed in order to be applicable to a wider range and open to different interpretations of each of the 30 LPI items. Within this, and as stated, the same LPI item could be interpreted differently. However, it is important to state that what matters is the frequency of it. This means that even if there have been much more similarities Slovenia and Spain in the usage of leadership practices, it does not mean that in both countries the respondent engages in them with the same style or manner as long as the frequency is similar. Based on these details we can still expect some cross-cultural variations.

**LIMITATIONS**. Throughout the research and the results obtained the following possible limitations have been found which could improve this kind of cross-cultural research in future:

- Only five leadership behaviors measured by the LPI were used for measuring leadership practices.
- The questionnaire sample per country that is a bit bigger than 100 is not giving enough confidence in order to classify and sign the results obtained for the total country population. In addition it would be advisable to limit/target a specific leadership position, backed up by the experience in order to get the most accurate results.
- Questionnaire was translated from English to Slovenian and Spanish which may cause the questionnaire to be interpreted differently.
- This research has only focused on organizational leadership.
- Other factors that can potentially effect on culture and at the end leadership could be included in the study in future.
- As it is difficult to compare only two countries, the expansion to a comparison between more than two countries would increase the sample comparability.

# CONCLUSION

While the economic borders go down, cultural barriers arise which bring new confrontations and as well opportunities in business. Some decades ago business was conducted only within the home environment, but by now leaders have been surrounded by many different cultures where leadership practices, lifestyle and management can be varied. Global market and increasing internationalization have made us closer into the similarities and differences in how people are managed. Due to this, it has been essential for effective management to understand culture and its effect on leadership where people are managed when coming from different cultures and needs. Even if taking into consideration of this need, there still haven't been a lot of cross-cultural researches in order to examine the cultural impacts on leadership. Since the majority of cross-cultural researches facing leadership have been comparing continents or the most developed countries, this study focused on comparing smaller or less developed countries like Slovenia. Based on this, the main question of the research was the search for similarities and differences in the usage of leadership practices between Slovenia and Spain.

In this thesis the purpose, together with the help of domestic and especially foreign literature that focused on the most developed neocharismatic and transformational leadership theories, which tend to provide a good explanation about leadership behavior, was to analyze to what level culture affects leadership behavior in Slovenia as in Spain based on their leadership practices. Due to this, the theoretical framework was developed

and upon that empirical investigation in the usage of leadership practice done, looking for similarities and differences from the collected sample of Slovenes and Spaniards. For this research convenience sampling was used build on "managers" (adult respondents that have experience with leadership, meaning that have already managed people).

Before conducting the research, the discussion of the three main topics was done which presented the basis of the thesis and in order to better understand the results obtained in the research. At first leadership concept was examined through various theories providing the meaning, structure and to what kind of behavior it can be connected. These researches presented the main leadership theories, from where more detail was given to relationship theories. Within this the most attention was given to neocharismatic and transformational leadership theories where neocharismatic leadership theory focused on explaining how followers perceive the actions of a leader and recognize how important some symbolic behavior is and the role of the leader in enabling the events to seem meaningful to followers. In addition Kouzes and Posner's five practices model was explained which was used through the LPI (Leadership Practices Inventory) questionnaire for the empirical research. With this the first part was concluded and the focus turned onto culture which is the second important pillar of the thesis. As there are as much definitions of culture as people who wanted to identify it, one of its characteristics is that is serves as an important factor in cross-cultural leadership studies. This does not only influence on leadership in general, but as well on their actions, behaviors and styles. In order to connect and test culture with leadership, GLOBE cultural dimension were used as a basis for the comparison which theory was described in the third section. This section with the question of how culture influences leaders presents the last pillar which connects the first two pillars. The practice is telling that some certain leadership behavior may occur due to cultural influences, where the others are rather universal. This means that some leadership behavior will not have the same effect in various countries. As leadership is included almost everywhere and connected with the social and cultural philosophies, it is still relatively difficult to explain it, and the context in which it exist. Due to this, cross-cultural studies provide an important input on identifying the effects since the literature do not provide a vast amount of guidelines for leaders when facing challenges.

The focus of the empirical part was on the main research question, if there are any differences in the actual usage of leadership practices in Slovenia and Spain. The survey sample consisted of 230 respondents "managers" (adult respondents that have experience with leadership, meaning that have already managed people) from where 117 were from Slovenia and 113 from Spain. The results have obtained more similarities than differences, where significant differences were only found in the leadership practices Modeling the Way and Challenging the Process. Within this, Enabling Others to Act was the practice that was used most frequently in both countries while Inspiring a Shared Vision was the least used was in Slovenia where for Spain it was Challenging the Process. Generally speaking, culture did not have an essential effect on leadership in both countries. The only

effect on leadership was shown with modeling and challenging behaviours that had nearly 5% of the effect. Besides this no impact on gender, age, work experience or business function was found on the usage of the leadership practices. Other possible variables for the testing were not included in this research. In addition there were 3 hypotheses mostly confirmed out of 4. From those it was confirmed that there were less differences than similarities in the usage of leadership practices between Slovenia and Spain. Then it was confirmed that in both countries the most engaged leadership practice would be Enabling Others to Act and that Encouraging the Heart would be engaged more in Spain than is Slovenia. On the other hand the 3rd hypothesis which was predicting the Slovene respondents to engage more in the leadership practice called Enabling Others to Act was not confirmed as Spain had a bit higher score than Slovenia.

As culture is just one of many factors that can effect on leadership to some extent, it is important to know how much actual effect there is on leadership in order to act and behave in a proper manner achieves successful results. This is vital, especially for all the leaders that act across domestic borders and need to adapt themselves to a highly changing and multi-cultural environment that consist of lot of challenges. Sometimes even when the effect of culture is still small, it might still be determining success or failure in cross-cultural environment. Therefore, in order to successfully operate in multi-cultural environment, leaders need to adapt themselves to culture that will ensure effective leadership. This is even more crucial for all countries where there are more differences than similarities.

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**APPENDIX**

**LIST OF APENDICES**

## Appendix 1: LPI Questionnaire

**Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)**
by JAMES M. KOUZES & BARRY Z. POSNER

### A) Leadership practices

Please read each statement carefully, and using the RATING SCALE bellow, ask yourself: **"How frequently do I engage in the behavior described?"**

In selecting the answer, be realistic about the extent to which you actually engage in each behavior. Do not answer in terms of how you like to see yourself or in terms of what you *should* be doing. Answer in terms of how you *typically behave*.

The RATING SCALE runs from 1 to 10. Choose the number that best applies to each statement.

1 = Almost Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Seldom; 4 = Once in a While;
5 = Occasionally; 6 = Sometimes; 7 = Fairly Often; 8 = Usually;
9 = Very Frequently; 10 = Almost Always;

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | I set a personal example of what I expect of others. | |
| 2 | I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done. | |
| 3 | I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities. | |
| 4 | I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with. | |
| 5 | I praise people for a job well done. | |
| 6 | I spend time and energy making certain that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed on. | |
| 7 | I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like. | |
| 8 | I challenge people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work. | |
| 9 | I actively listen to diverse points of view. | |
| 10 | I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities. | |
| 11 | I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make. | |
| 12 | I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future. | |
| 13 | I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do. | |
| 14 | I treat others with dignity and respect. | |
| 15 | I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects. | |
| 16 | I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance. | |
| 17 | I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision. | |
| 18 | I ask "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected | |
| 19 | I support the decisions that people make on their own. | |
| 20 | I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values. | |
| 21 | I build consensus around a common set of values for running our organization. | |
| 22 | I paint the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish. | |
| 23 | I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on. | |
| 24 | I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work. | |
| 25 | I find ways to celebrate accomplishments. | |
| 26 | I am clear about my philosophy of leadership. | |
| 27 | I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work. | |
| 28 | I experiment and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure. | |
| 29 | I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves. | |
| 30 | I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions. | |

## B)  Background Information

**1. Gender** ☐ Male ☐ Female

**2. Age** _____

**3**. **University Graduation Area**

☐ Management and Economy

☐ Social Sciences (Sociology, Psychology…)

☐ Natural Sciences (Biology, Chemistry, Physics…)

☐ Humanities (Law, Languages…)

☐ Engineering

☐ Arts

☐ Other _____

**4**. Years of Work Experience _____

**5. Business function** in which you have the most experience (in which you work or have worked for the longest time):

☐ Accounting and Finance

☐ Human resource management

☐ Informatics

☐ Logistics

☐ Production

☐ Marketing and Sales

☐ Research and Development

☐ Other _____

## C)  Information about the organization that you currently work for

If you do not work for any organization at the moment fill in the data for the last organization you have worked for or leave this section blank.

**1. My organization is:**

☐ privately owned ☐ publicly owned (stock

company) ☐ government

**3. My organization has**

☐ less than 10 employees

☐ between 10 and 49 employees

☐ between 50 and 249 employees

☐ more than 250 employees

**5. To what level of management (from the previous question) do you belong (cross none if you are not a manager)**: _____; ☐ none

**2. My organization:**

☐ operates only in this country

☐ exports to some foreign countries

☐ has few subsidiaries in some foreign countries

☐ operates in many countries (multinational)

**4. If CEO represents the first level of management, and line supervisors represent the last, how many levels of management exist in your company:** _____

6. Number of the people who **report directly** to you (write 0 if none): _____

## D)  Work related question

1. On a scale from *1 to 7* indicate how important the work and working is for you (*1: not important at all, 3:*

2

*moderately important, 7: highly important*): _____ (write the appropriate number from 1 to 7)!

2. On a scale from *1 to 7* indicate how satisfied are you with your job overall (*1: not satisfied at all; 3: moderately satisfied, 7: highly satisfied*): _____ (write the appropriate number from 1 to 7)!

## Appendix 2: Demographic Data

## Gender

**Case Processing Summary**

| | Cases | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Valid | | Missing | | Total | |
| | N | Percent | N | Percent | N | Percent |
| Slovenia or Spain * Gender | 230 | 100,0% | 0 | ,0% | 230 | 100,0% |

**Slovenia or Spain * Gender Crosstabulation**

| | | | Gender | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Female | Male | |
| Slovenia or Spain | Slovenia | Count | 46 | 71 | 117 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 39,3% | 60,7% | 100,0% |
| | | % within Gender | 51,1% | 50,7% | 50,9% |
| | | % of Total | 20,0% | 30,9% | 50,9% |
| | Spain | Count | 44 | 69 | 113 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 38,9% | 61,1% | 100,0% |
| | | % within Gender | 48,9% | 49,3% | 49,1% |
| | | % of Total | 19,1% | 30,0% | 49,1% |
| Total | | Count | 90 | 140 | 230 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 39,1% | 60,9% | 100,0% |
| | | % within Gender | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 39,1% | 60,9% | 100,0% |

## Work experience

**Descriptive Statistics**

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Years of Work Experience | 230 | 1 | 33 | 11,06 | 7,643 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 230 | | | | |

**Case Processing Summary**

| | Cases | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Valid | | Missing | | Total | |
| | N | Percent | N | Percent | N | Percent |
| Slovenia or Spain * Work experience Interval | 230 | 100,0% | 0 | ,0% | 230 | 100,0% |

**Slovenia or Spain * Work experience Interval Crosstabulation**

| | | | Work experience Interval | | | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | |
| Slovenia or Spain | Slovenia | Count | 36 | 39 | 17 | 6 | 8 | 11 | 117 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 30,8% | 33,3% | 14,5% | 5,1% | 6,8% | 9,4% | 100,0% |
| | | % within Work experience Interval | 58,1% | 57,4% | 34,0% | 31,6% | 61,5% | 61,1% | 50,9% |
| | | % of Total | 15,7% | 17,0% | 7,4% | 2,6% | 3,5% | 4,8% | 50,9% |
| | Spain | Count | 26 | 29 | 33 | 13 | 5 | 7 | 113 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 23,0% | 25,7% | 29,2% | 11,5% | 4,4% | 6,2% | 100,0% |
| | | % within Work experience Interval | 41,9% | 42,6% | 66,0% | 68,4% | 38,5% | 38,9% | 49,1% |
| | | % of Total | 11,3% | 12,6% | 14,3% | 5,7% | 2,2% | 3,0% | 49,1% |
| Total | | Count | 62 | 68 | 50 | 19 | 13 | 18 | 230 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 27,0% | 29,6% | 21,7% | 8,3% | 5,7% | 7,8% | 100,0% |
| | | % within Work experience Interval | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 27,0% | 29,6% | 21,7% | 8,3% | 5,7% | 7,8% | 100,0% |

Age

**Case Processing Summary**

| | Cases | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Valid | | Missing | | Total | |
| | N | Percent | N | Percent | N | Percent |
| Slovenia or Spain * Age Interval | 230 | 100,0% | 0 | ,0% | 230 | 100,0% |

**Slovenia or Spain * Age Interval Crosstabulation**

| | | | Age Interval | | | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | |
| Slovenia or Spain | Slovenia | Count | 3 | 44 | 35 | 18 | 6 | 11 | 117 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 2,6% | 37,6% | 29,9% | 15,4% | 5,1% | 9,4% | 100,0% |
| | | % within Age Interval | 20,0% | 62,0% | 55,6% | 36,0% | 42,9% | 64,7% | 50,9% |
| | | % of Total | 1,3% | 19,1% | 15,2% | 7,8% | 2,6% | 4,8% | 50,9% |
| | Spain | Count | 12 | 27 | 28 | 32 | 8 | 6 | 113 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 10,6% | 23,9% | 24,8% | 28,3% | 7,1% | 5,3% | 100,0% |
| | | % within Age Interval | 80,0% | 38,0% | 44,4% | 64,0% | 57,1% | 35,3% | 49,1% |
| | | % of Total | 5,2% | 11,7% | 12,2% | 13,9% | 3,5% | 2,6% | 49,1% |
| Total | | Count | 15 | 71 | 63 | 50 | 14 | 17 | 230 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 6,5% | 30,9% | 27,4% | 21,7% | 6,1% | 7,4% | 100,0% |
| | | % within Age Interval | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 6,5% | 30,9% | 27,4% | 21,7% | 6,1% | 7,4% | 100,0% |

## Slovenia

**Descriptive Statistics**

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Age | 117 | 23 | 54 | 33,62 | 6,920 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 117 | | | | |

## Spain

**Descriptive Statistics**

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Age | 113 | 23 | 56 | 33,94 | 6,791 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 113 | | | | |

## Management level

**Case Processing Summary**

| | Cases | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Valid | | Missing | | Total | |
| | N | Percent | N | Percent | N | Percent |
| Slovenia or Spain * management level belongness | 230 | 100,0% | 0 | ,0% | 230 | 100,0% |

**Slovenia or Spain * management level belongness Crosstabulation**

| | | | management level belongness | | | | | | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 8 | 9 | |
| Slovenia or Spain | Slovenia | Count | 12 | 29 | 44 | 22 | 7 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 117 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 10,3% | 24,8% | 37,6% | 18,8% | 6,0% | 2,6% | ,0% | ,0% | ,0% | 100,0% |
| | | % within management level belongness | 40,0% | 80,6% | 66,7% | 39,3% | 30,4% | 23,1% | ,0% | ,0% | ,0% | 50,9% |
| | | % of Total | 5,2% | 12,6% | 19,1% | 9,6% | 3,0% | 1,3% | ,0% | ,0% | ,0% | 50,9% |
| | Spain | Count | 18 | 7 | 22 | 34 | 16 | 10 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 113 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 15,9% | 6,2% | 19,5% | 30,1% | 14,2% | 8,8% | 2,7% | ,9% | 1,8% | 100,0% |
| | | % within management level belongness | 60,0% | 19,4% | 33,3% | 60,7% | 69,6% | 76,9% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 49,1% |
| | | % of Total | 7,8% | 3,0% | 9,6% | 14,8% | 7,0% | 4,3% | 1,3% | ,4% | ,9% | 49,1% |
| Total | | Count | 30 | 36 | 66 | 56 | 23 | 13 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 230 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 13,0% | 15,7% | 28,7% | 24,3% | 10,0% | 5,7% | 1,3% | ,4% | ,9% | 100,0% |
| | | % within management level belongness | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 13,0% | 15,7% | 28,7% | 24,3% | 10,0% | 5,7% | 1,3% | ,4% | ,9% | 100,0% |

# Business Function

**Case Processing Summary**

| | Cases | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Valid | | Missing | | Total | |
| | N | Percent | N | Percent | N | Percent |
| Slovenia or Spain * business function | 230 | 100,0% | 0 | ,0% | 230 | 100,0% |

**Slovenia or Spain * business function Crosstabulation**

| | | | business function | | | | | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Accounting and Finance | Human resource management | Informatics | Logistics | Marketing and Sales | Other | Production | Research and Development | |
| Slovenia or Spain | Slovenia | Count | 20 | 10 | 6 | 11 | 33 | 18 | 11 | 8 | 117 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 17,1% | 8,5% | 5,1% | 9,4% | 28,2% | 15,4% | 9,4% | 6,8% | 100,0% |
| | | % within business function | 60,6% | 41,7% | 40,0% | 61,1% | 66,0% | 36,0% | 47,8% | 47,1% | 50,9% |
| | | % of Total | 8,7% | 4,3% | 2,6% | 4,8% | 14,3% | 7,8% | 4,8% | 3,5% | 50,9% |
| | Spain | Count | 13 | 14 | 9 | 7 | 17 | 32 | 12 | 9 | 113 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 11,5% | 12,4% | 8,0% | 6,2% | 15,0% | 28,3% | 10,6% | 8,0% | 100,0% |
| | | % within business function | 39,4% | 58,3% | 60,0% | 38,9% | 34,0% | 64,0% | 52,2% | 52,9% | 49,1% |
| | | % of Total | 5,7% | 6,1% | 3,9% | 3,0% | 7,4% | 13,9% | 5,2% | 3,9% | 49,1% |
| Total | | Count | 33 | 24 | 15 | 18 | 50 | 50 | 23 | 17 | 230 |
| | | % within Slovenia or Spain | 14,3% | 10,4% | 6,5% | 7,8% | 21,7% | 21,7% | 10,0% | 7,4% | 100,0% |
| | | % within business function | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 14,3% | 10,4% | 6,5% | 7,8% | 21,7% | 21,7% | 10,0% | 7,4% | 100,0% |

# MEAN SCORES FOR LEADERSHIP PRACTICES

**Descriptives**

| | | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | | Minimum | Maximum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | | |
| MV | Slovenia | 117 | 47,15 | 5,550 | ,513 | 46,14 | 48,17 | 30 | 59 |
| | Spain | 113 | 44,62 | 5,831 | ,549 | 43,53 | 45,71 | 23 | 56 |
| | Total | 230 | 45,91 | 5,818 | ,384 | 45,15 | 46,66 | 23 | 59 |
| ISV | Slovenia | 117 | 44,03 | 6,591 | ,609 | 42,83 | 45,24 | 23 | 56 |
| | Spain | 113 | 43,18 | 7,290 | ,686 | 41,82 | 44,54 | 23 | 55 |
| | Total | 230 | 43,61 | 6,942 | ,458 | 42,71 | 44,51 | 23 | 56 |
| CP | Slovenia | 117 | 45,33 | 5,884 | ,544 | 44,26 | 46,41 | 26 | 59 |
| | Spain | 113 | 42,80 | 5,794 | ,545 | 41,72 | 43,88 | 28 | 54 |
| | Total | 230 | 44,09 | 5,964 | ,393 | 43,31 | 44,86 | 26 | 59 |
| EOA | Slovenia | 117 | 49,39 | 4,418 | ,408 | 48,58 | 50,20 | 35 | 60 |
| | Spain | 113 | 49,65 | 4,794 | ,451 | 48,76 | 50,55 | 38 | 59 |
| | Total | 230 | 49,52 | 4,598 | ,303 | 48,92 | 50,12 | 35 | 60 |
| EH | Slovenia | 117 | 47,74 | 7,297 | ,675 | 46,41 | 49,08 | 27 | 60 |
| | Spain | 113 | 48,73 | 5,456 | ,513 | 47,72 | 49,75 | 34 | 60 |
| | Total | 230 | 48,23 | 6,463 | ,426 | 47,39 | 49,07 | 27 | 60 |

**Test of Homogeneity of Variances**

| | Levene Statistic | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| MV | ,000 | 1 | 228 | ,997 |
| ISV | 6,402 | 1 | 228 | ,012 |
| CP | ,048 | 1 | 228 | ,827 |
| EOA | ,806 | 1 | 228 | ,370 |
| EH | 8,896 | 1 | 228 | ,003 |

**ANOVA**

| | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| MV | Between Groups | 369,215 | 1 | 369,215 | 11,404 | ,001 |
| | Within Groups | 7381,868 | 228 | 32,377 | | |
| | Total | 7751,083 | 229 | | | |
| ISV | Between Groups | 42,237 | 1 | 42,237 | ,876 | ,350 |
| | Within Groups | 10992,323 | 228 | 48,212 | | |
| | Total | 11034,561 | 229 | | | |
| CP | Between Groups | 369,942 | 1 | 369,942 | 10,847 | ,001 |
| | Within Groups | 7776,319 | 228 | 34,107 | | |
| | Total | 8146,261 | 229 | | | |
| EOA | Between Groups | 3,937 | 1 | 3,937 | ,186 | ,667 |
| | Within Groups | 4837,454 | 228 | 21,217 | | |
| | Total | 4841,391 | 229 | | | |
| EH | Between Groups | 56,444 | 1 | 56,444 | 1,353 | ,246 |
| | Within Groups | 9510,343 | 228 | 41,712 | | |
| | Total | 9566,787 | 229 | | | |

**Descriptives**

EH

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | | Minimum | Maximum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | | |
| Slovenia | 117 | 47,74 | 7,297 | ,675 | 46,41 | 49,08 | 27 | 60 |
| Spain | 113 | 48,73 | 5,456 | ,513 | 47,72 | 49,75 | 34 | 60 |
| Total | 230 | 48,23 | 6,463 | ,426 | 47,39 | 49,07 | 27 | 60 |

**Test of Homogeneity of Variances**

EH

| Levene Statistic | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 8,896 | 1 | 228 | ,003 |

**ANOVA**

EH

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between Groups | 56,444 | 1 | 56,444 | 1,353 | ,246 |
| Within Groups | 9510,343 | 228 | 41,712 | | |
| Total | 9566,787 | 229 | | | |

**Descriptives**

ISV

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | | Minimum | Maximum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | | |
| 1 | 117 | 44,03 | 6,591 | ,609 | 42,83 | 45,24 | 23 | 56 |
| 2 | 113 | 43,18 | 7,290 | ,686 | 41,82 | 44,54 | 23 | 55 |
| Total | 230 | 43,61 | 6,942 | ,458 | 42,71 | 44,51 | 23 | 56 |

**Test of Homogeneity of Variances**

ISV

| Levene Statistic | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 6,402 | 1 | 228 | ,012 |

**ANOVA**

ISV

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between Groups | 42,237 | 1 | 42,237 | ,876 | ,350 |
| Within Groups | 10992,323 | 228 | 48,212 | | |
| Total | 11034,561 | 229 | | | |

9

# MEAN SCORES FOR OTHER GROUPS OF VARIABLES

## Gender

**Test of Homogeneity of Variances**

|  | Levene Statistic | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| MV | ,342 | 1 | 228 | ,559 |
| ISV | 3,857 | 1 | 228 | ,051 |
| CP | ,593 | 1 | 228 | ,442 |
| EOA | ,250 | 1 | 228 | ,618 |
| EH | ,895 | 1 | 228 | ,345 |

**ANOVA**

|  |  | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| MV | Between Groups | 40,697 | 1 | 40,697 | 1,203 | ,274 |
|  | Within Groups | 7710,386 | 228 | 33,817 |  |  |
|  | Total | 7751,083 | 229 |  |  |  |
| ISV | Between Groups | 11,568 | 1 | 11,568 | ,239 | ,625 |
|  | Within Groups | 11022,993 | 228 | 48,346 |  |  |
|  | Total | 11034,561 | 229 |  |  |  |
| CP | Between Groups | 9,803 | 1 | 9,803 | ,275 | ,601 |
|  | Within Groups | 8136,458 | 228 | 35,686 |  |  |
|  | Total | 8146,261 | 229 |  |  |  |
| EOA | Between Groups | 122,870 | 1 | 122,870 | 5,937 | ,016 |
|  | Within Groups | 4718,521 | 228 | 20,695 |  |  |
|  | Total | 4841,391 | 229 |  |  |  |
| EH | Between Groups | 246,731 | 1 | 246,731 | 6,036 | ,015 |
|  | Within Groups | 9320,056 | 228 | 40,877 |  |  |
|  | Total | 9566,787 | 229 |  |  |  |

## Age

**Test of Homogeneity of Variances**

|  | Levene Statistic | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| MV | 1,152 | 5 | 224 | ,334 |
| ISV | 1,640 | 5 | 224 | ,150 |
| CP | 2,250 | 5 | 224 | ,050 |
| EOA | 4,452 | 5 | 224 | ,001 |
| EH | 2,100 | 5 | 224 | ,066 |

**ANOVA**

| | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| MV | Between Groups | 471,385 | 5 | 94,277 | 2,901 | ,015 |
| | Within Groups | 7279,698 | 224 | 32,499 | | |
| | Total | 7751,083 | 229 | | | |
| ISV | Between Groups | 233,779 | 5 | 46,756 | ,970 | ,437 |
| | Within Groups | 10800,782 | 224 | 48,218 | | |
| | Total | 11034,561 | 229 | | | |
| CP | Between Groups | 204,196 | 5 | 40,839 | 1,152 | ,334 |
| | Within Groups | 7942,065 | 224 | 35,456 | | |
| | Total | 8146,261 | 229 | | | |
| EOA | Between Groups | 112,499 | 5 | 22,500 | 1,066 | ,380 |
| | Within Groups | 4728,892 | 224 | 21,111 | | |
| | Total | 4841,391 | 229 | | | |
| EH | Between Groups | 460,702 | 5 | 92,140 | 2,267 | ,049 |
| | Within Groups | 9106,085 | 224 | 40,652 | | |
| | Total | 9566,787 | 229 | | | |

## Work experience

**Test of Homogeneity of Variances**

| | Levene Statistic | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| MV | 1,072 | 5 | 224 | ,377 |
| ISV | 1,625 | 5 | 224 | ,154 |
| CP | ,769 | 5 | 224 | ,573 |
| EOA | ,979 | 5 | 224 | ,431 |
| EH | ,765 | 5 | 224 | ,576 |

**ANOVA**

| | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| MV | Between Groups | 786,462 | 5 | 157,292 | 5,059 | ,000 |
| | Within Groups | 6964,621 | 224 | 31,092 | | |
| | Total | 7751,083 | 229 | | | |
| ISV | Between Groups | 336,939 | 5 | 67,388 | 1,411 | ,221 |
| | Within Groups | 10697,622 | 224 | 47,757 | | |
| | Total | 11034,561 | 229 | | | |
| CP | Between Groups | 248,890 | 5 | 49,778 | 1,412 | ,221 |
| | Within Groups | 7897,371 | 224 | 35,256 | | |
| | Total | 8146,261 | 229 | | | |
| EOA | Between Groups | 319,597 | 5 | 63,919 | 3,166 | ,009 |
| | Within Groups | 4521,794 | 224 | 20,187 | | |
| | Total | 4841,391 | 229 | | | |
| EH | Between Groups | 833,898 | 5 | 166,780 | 4,278 | ,001 |
| | Within Groups | 8732,889 | 224 | 38,986 | | |
| | Total | 9566,787 | 229 | | | |

## Business function

**Test of Homogeneity of Variances**

|  | Levene Statistic | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| MV | 1,295 | 7 | 222 | ,254 |
| ISV | 2,216 | 7 | 222 | ,034 |
| CP | 2,879 | 7 | 222 | ,007 |
| EOA | 2,784 | 7 | 222 | ,009 |
| EH | 2,014 | 7 | 222 | ,055 |

**ANOVA**

|  |  | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| MV | Between Groups | 771,539 | 7 | 110,220 | 3,506 | ,001 |
|  | Within Groups | 6979,544 | 222 | 31,439 |  |  |
|  | Total | 7751,083 | 229 |  |  |  |
| ISV | Between Groups | 433,667 | 7 | 61,952 | 1,297 | ,253 |
|  | Within Groups | 10600,894 | 222 | 47,752 |  |  |
|  | Total | 11034,561 | 229 |  |  |  |
| CP | Between Groups | 305,189 | 7 | 43,598 | 1,234 | ,285 |
|  | Within Groups | 7841,072 | 222 | 35,320 |  |  |
|  | Total | 8146,261 | 229 |  |  |  |
| EOA | Between Groups | 324,040 | 7 | 46,291 | 2,275 | ,030 |
|  | Within Groups | 4517,352 | 222 | 20,348 |  |  |
|  | Total | 4841,391 | 229 |  |  |  |
| EH | Between Groups | 1190,114 | 7 | 170,016 | 4,506 | ,000 |
|  | Within Groups | 8376,673 | 222 | 37,733 |  |  |
|  | Total | 9566,787 | 229 |  |  |  |

## EFFECT SIZE

## Modeling the Way

**Between-Subjects Factors**

|  |  | N |
|---|---|---|
| Slovenia or Spain | Slovenia | 117 |
|  | Spain | 113 |

**Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable:MV

| Slovenia or Spain | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Slovenia | 47,15 | 5,550 | 117 |
| Spain | 44,62 | 5,831 | 113 |
| Total | 45,91 | 5,818 | 230 |

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]**

Dependent Variable:MV

| F | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|
| ,000 | 1 | 228 | ,997 |

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + SloveniaorSpain

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:MV

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 369,215[a] | 1 | 369,215 | 11,404 | ,001 | ,048 |
| Intercept | 484138,154 | 1 | 484138,154 | 14953,329 | ,000 | ,985 |
| SloveniaorSpain | 369,215 | 1 | 369,215 | 11,404 | ,001 | ,048 |
| Error | 7381,868 | 228 | 32,377 | | | |
| Total | 492501,000 | 230 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 7751,083 | 229 | | | | |

a. R Squared = ,048 (Adjusted R Squared = ,043)

## Inspiring a Shared Vision

**Between-Subjects Factors**

| | | N |
|---|---|---|
| Slovenia or Spain | Slovenia | 117 |
| | Spain | 113 |

**Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable:ISV

| Slovenia or Spain | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Slovenia | 44,03 | 6,591 | 117 |
| Spain | 43,18 | 7,290 | 113 |
| Total | 43,61 | 6,942 | 230 |

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]**

Dependent Variable:ISV

| F | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 6,402 | 1 | 228 | ,012 |

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + SloveniaorSpain

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:ISV

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 42,237[a] | 1 | 42,237 | ,876 | ,350 | ,004 |
| Intercept | 437200,637 | 1 | 437200,637 | 9068,305 | ,000 | ,975 |
| SloveniaorSpain | 42,237 | 1 | 42,237 | ,876 | ,350 | ,004 |
| Error | 10992,323 | 228 | 48,212 | | | |
| Total | 448517,000 | 230 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 11034,561 | 229 | | | | |

a. R Squared = ,004 (Adjusted R Squared = -,001)

# Challenging the Process

**Between-Subjects Factors**

| | | N |
|---|---|---|
| Slovenia or Spain | Slovenia | 117 |
| | Spain | 113 |

**Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable:CP

| Slovenia or Spain | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Slovenia | 45,33 | 5,884 | 117 |
| Spain | 42,80 | 5,794 | 113 |
| Total | 44,09 | 5,964 | 230 |

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]**

Dependent Variable:CP

| F | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|
| ,048 | 1 | 228 | ,827 |

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + SloveniaorSpain

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:CP

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 369,942[a] | 1 | 369,942 | 10,847 | ,001 | ,045 |
| Intercept | 446459,403 | 1 | 446459,403 | 13090,094 | ,000 | ,983 |
| SloveniaorSpain | 369,942 | 1 | 369,942 | 10,847 | ,001 | ,045 |
| Error | 7776,319 | 228 | 34,107 | | | |
| Total | 455188,000 | 230 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 8146,261 | 229 | | | | |

a. R Squared = ,045 (Adjusted R Squared = ,041)

# Enabling Others to Act

**Between-Subjects Factors**

| | | N |
|---|---|---|
| Slovenia or Spain | Slovenia | 117 |
| | Spain | 113 |

**Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable:EOA

| Slovenia or Spain | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Slovenia | 49,39 | 4,418 | 117 |
| Spain | 49,65 | 4,794 | 113 |
| Total | 49,52 | 4,598 | 230 |

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]**

Dependent Variable:EOA

| F | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|---|-----|-----|------|
| ,806 | 1 | 228 | ,370 |

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the
dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + SloveniaorSpain

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:EOA

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|--------|------------------------|----|-------------|---|------|---------------------|
| Corrected Model | 3,937[a] | 1 | 3,937 | ,186 | ,667 | ,001 |
| Intercept | 563933,833 | 1 | 563933,833 | 26579,458 | ,000 | ,991 |
| SloveniaorSpain | 3,937 | 1 | 3,937 | ,186 | ,667 | ,001 |
| Error | 4837,454 | 228 | 21,217 | | | |
| Total | 568894,000 | 230 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 4841,391 | 229 | | | | |

a. R Squared = ,001 (Adjusted R Squared = -,004)

## Encouraging the Heart

**Between-Subjects Factors**

| | | N |
|---|---|---|
| Slovenia or Spain | Slovenia | 117 |
| | Spain | 113 |

**Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable:EH

| Slovenia or Spain | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|-------------------|------|----------------|---|
| Slovenia | 47,74 | 7,297 | 117 |
| Spain | 48,73 | 5,456 | 113 |
| Total | 48,23 | 6,463 | 230 |

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]**

Dependent Variable:EH

| F | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|---|-----|-----|------|
| 8,896 | 1 | 228 | ,003 |

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the
dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + SloveniaorSpain

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:EH

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 56,444[a] | 1 | 56,444 | 1,353 | ,246 | ,006 |
| Intercept | 535049,522 | 1 | 535049,522 | 12827,223 | ,000 | ,983 |
| SloveniaorSpain | 56,444 | 1 | 56,444 | 1,353 | ,246 | ,006 |
| Error | 9510,343 | 228 | 41,712 | | | |
| Total | 544587,000 | 230 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 9566,787 | 229 | | | | |

a. R Squared = ,006 (Adjusted R Squared = ,002)

# RELIABILITY TEST

**Reliability Statistics**

| Cronbach's Alpha | N of Items |
|---|---|
| ,868 | 5 |

**Item Statistics**

| | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| MV | 45,91 | 5,818 | 230 |
| ISV | 43,61 | 6,942 | 230 |
| CP | 44,09 | 5,964 | 230 |
| EOA | 49,52 | 4,598 | 230 |
| EH | 48,23 | 6,463 | 230 |

**Item-Total Statistics**

| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| MV | 185,45 | 390,589 | ,726 | ,833 |
| ISV | 187,75 | 351,176 | ,738 | ,831 |
| CP | 187,27 | 395,274 | ,677 | ,844 |
| EOA | 181,84 | 440,310 | ,674 | ,851 |
| EH | 183,13 | 377,564 | ,685 | ,843 |

**Scale Statistics**

| Mean | Variance | Std. Deviation | N of Items |
|---|---|---|---|
| 231,36 | 591,463 | 24,320 | 5 |

**Appendix 3: Thesis summary in Slovenian language**

**UVOD**. Kljub temu da je v relativno velikem številu medkulturnih študij o vodenju samoumevno, da obstajajo kulturne razlike, je jasno, da primanjkljaj ustreznega merjenja ali preizkušanja predstavlja ovire, medtem ko se razpravlja o tem, ali so te identificirane razlike res rezultat le-tega. Da bi dobili boljši pregled nad vedenjem vodstva v povezavi s kulturo, je potrebno izmeriti kulturne podobnosti in razlike med preučevanima državama (Slovenijo in Španijo) v okviru tega magistrskega dela na pravilen in zanesljiv način. V sklopu tega je zanimivo, kako se vedenje vodstva spreminja na podlagi različnih kulturnih dimenzij v večkulturnem kontekstu. Tako je potrebno poskusiti konceptualno povezati prakse vodenja, pridobljene iz anketnega vzorca in kulturne dimenzije. V okviru ideje je namen magistrskega dela s pomočjo domače in še posebej tuje literature s poudarkom na neokarizmatični in transformacijski teoriji analizirati, do katere stopnje kultura vpliva na vedenje vodstva v Sloveniji ter Španiji, glede na njihove prakse vodenja. Da bi to dosegli, je treba razviti teoretični okvir in analizirati, ali obstajajo podobnosti in razlike v uporabi praks vodenja iz izbranega anketnega vzorca Slovencev in Špancev. Tako je bilo za to analizo uporabljeno priročno vzorčenje, ki se je osredotočilo na "menedžerje" (odrasle anketirance, ki imajo izkušnje z vodenjem, kar pomeni, da so že vodili ljudi). Tako vzorčenje je omogočilo, da bi dobili boljše rezultate, saj tak vzorec anketirancev zagotavlja širši in globlji pregled nad praksami vodenja, poleg tega da že sam tip vzorčenja pripomore bolje zaznamovati vodenje.

Ker je glavni cilj naloge povezava vedenja vodstva in kulture, ali pa, kot že omenjeno, povezava praks vodenja in kulturnih dimenzij, je cilj izpostaviti kulturo kot enega izmed pomembnejših dejavnikov, ki vplivajo na vodenje in prav tako na vedenje vodstva v medkulturni analizi držav Slovenije in Španije s sledečimi raziskovalnimi vprašanji:

**Kakšne so podobnosti in razlike vedenja vodstva med Slovenijo in Španijo?**

Glavnemu raziskovalnemu problemu sledijo še stranski, kot so:

- Za katero vedenje vodstva so razlike najvišje/najnižje, ali obstajajo na osnovi njihovih rezultatov praks vodenja?
- Do katere ravni kultura vpliva na vedenje vodstva v Sloveniji in Španiji na osnovi njihovih rezultatov praks vodenja?

Na osnovi zastavljenih vprašanj temelji metoda analitičnega pristopa, uporabljena v magistrskem delu, na preučevanju teoretičnega znanja na področju vodenja in kulture, zlasti vodenja in njegovih osnovnih značilnosti in posebnosti (opisna - deskriptivna metoda). Pri pisanju je poudarek na domači in tuji literaturi, še zlasti na medkulturnih raziskavah, ki preučujejo vodenje s poudarkom na kulturi. Empirično temelji na raziskavi, ki je bila izvedena s pomočjo primerjalne analize med Slovenci in Španci. To je

kvantitativna metoda pridobivanja podatkov in klasičen način za raziskovanje tovrstne problematike s pomočjo LPI (vprašalnik praks vodenja avtorjev Kouzes & Posner), ki predstavlja standardiziran anketni inštrument, ki zbira odziv na samoocenjeno uporabo petih tipov transformacijskih praks vodenja v anketnem vzorcu. Ta primerjalna raziskava je osnovana tako, da bo zajemala ključne elemente teme in odgovorila na zastavljena vprašanja in raziskovalne cilje. Podatki, potrebni za izvedbo primerjave držav, so bili zbrani iz sekundarnih virov. V sklepnem delu je povzetek, ki je bil narejen s pomočjo metode sinteze in ki je omogočil izdelavo zaključka na osnovi zastavljene problematike. Na ta način je bila pridobljena informacija o vedenju vodstva in ugotovljeno, ali obstajajo podobnosti in razlike med vedenjem vodstva v Sloveniji in Španiji.

Struktura magistrskega dela je kategorizirana na šest poglavij in vsebuje naslednje vsebinske sklope. Prvo, uvodno poglavje opredeljuje problem, namen, cilje in metode dela, zaključi pa se s pregledom strukture. Drugo poglavje identificira vodenje in kulturo, dve obsežni področji znanja, ki predstavljata podlago za medkulturno analizo vodenja. Kot prvo teorije vodenja poskušajo zagotoviti razumevanje, kaj vodenje pomeni in katero vedenje je povezano z vsakim posameznim tipom vodenja. Dodan je tudi pregled glavnih teorij vodenja. Drugo, kulturne dimenzije poskušajo prikazati pregled kulture in dimenzij, ki preučujejo kulture kot osnovo za primerjalno analizo. Tretji in zadnji del v sklopu tega poglavja opisuje vpliv kulture na vodenje. Ta del opredeljuje, kakšen vpliv ima kultura na vodenje in kako pomembna je medkulturna analiza vodenja v današnjem času. Da bi bolje razumeli ta vpliv, je potrebno narediti analizo razlik med Slovenijo in Španijo - zgrajeno na zgodovinskih, kulturnih in ekonomskih podatkih, pridobljenih iz sekundarnih virov -, ki je opredeljena v tretjem poglavju. Kot dodatek so predstavljeni tudi rezultati Globe raziskave, kjer so opredeljene ocene kulturnih dimenzij Slovenije in Španije. Zadnji del tega poglavja predstavljajo hipoteze, ki so vodilo za empirično raziskavo in testirane kasneje v empiričnem delu. Četrto poglavje je osredotočeno na dizajn primerjalne analize. Najprej je razprava o metodoloških problemih, ki se lahko pojavijo v okviru tega, nato pa sledi obrazložitev najpogosteje uporabljenih metod v okviru medkulturne analize, raziskave inštrumenta in postopka vzorčenja. S koncem tega poglavja se teoretični del konča in prične empirični del. Kot prvo poglavje empiričnega dela in peto poglavje magistrskega dela opisujem zbrani anketni vzorec in njegove značilnosti. S tem je predstavljena primerjava uporabe praks vodenja v Sloveniji in Španiji. Ta primerjava je narejena glede na spol, starost, delovne izkušnje in poslovno področje. Na koncu je povzetek, ki opredeljuje, do katere ravni kultura vpliva na vodenje na splošno in na osnovi zgoraj opisanih kazalcev. V šestem poglavju so predstavljene ključne ugotovitve, ki temeljijo na raziskovalnih ciljih, vidnih v uvodnem poglavju. Ta del praktično predstavlja testiranje in predstavitev ključnih utemeljitev na osnovi hipotez, opredeljenih v tretjem poglavju. Zadnji del predstavlja povzetek celotnega magistrskega dela in obravnava tudi možne omejitve in predloge za nadaljnje raziskave.

TEORETIČNI PREGLED TEMATIKE (VPLIV KULTURE NA VODENJE)

**Vodenje.** Vodenje ima lahko ožji in širši pomen. V širšem smislu obstaja s tem, da zagotovi, da so cilji podjetja doseženi, medtem ko v ožjem smislu obstaja vsakič, ko nekdo želi vplivati na vedenje posameznikov in njihove cilje. Strokovna literatura na področju vodenja je zelo obsežna in ne glede na obseg je mogoče najti več kot le eno definicijo vodenja, čeprav ni večjih razlik med znanimi opredelitvami. Razlogi za to so različni. Vsaka organizacija deluje v okviru posebnih kulturnih, družbenopolitičnih in gospodarskih področij. Ta s svojimi vrednotami, prepričanji, pravili in pričakovanji vpliva na način delovanja organizacije in s tem na njeno vodenje. Razloge gre iskati v dejstvu, da je vodenje obravnavano z različnimi strokovnjaki iz znanstvenih ved in disciplin.

Na podlagi opredelitev, ki so bile predlagane, se zdi, da je več ali manj veliko skupnega. Definicije se razlikujejo na mnogih področjih, zlasti z vidika, kako se vpliv uporablja in prenese na privržence. Tako je bilo skozi zgodovino predlagano veliko teorij vodenja in že davno so bili nekateri, ki so prve teorije vodenja usmerjevali na vedenje in na to, kako se lahko razlikujejo vodje in privrženci glede na njihove lastnosti. Kasnejše teorije pa so se osredotočile na druge spremenljivke, ki so dajale večji pomen vlogam sodelavcev in privržencev, ko govorimo o situacijskih dejavnikih in ravni usposobljenosti. Od vseh teh je zelo malo modelov in teorij, ki prevladujejo, in mnoge od teh so bile le popravki obstoječih. Od vseh tistih, ki so se pojavile, pa se je večina od njih razvrstila v eno od osmih glavnih teorij vodenja, predstavljenih v tem magistrskem delu.

- Teorija "*Great Man*"
- Teorija lastnosti
- Kontingenčna teorija
- Situacijska teorija
- Vedenjska teorija
- Sodelovalna teorija
- Upravljalna teorija
- Relacijska teorija
- Transformacijska in transakcijska teorija
- Kouzes in Posner-jev neokarizmatičen model

**Kultura.** Dandanes je kultura videti kot širok izbor tiho razumljivih pravil in postopkov, ki jim sledijo členi organizacije in na osnovi tega vedo, kaj narediti in na kakšen način to storiti v različnem številu identificiranih situacij. Kultura je v veliki meri vidna tudi kot večdimenzionalni koncept in splošno je znano, da je ni mogoče v celoti opredeliti. Zaradi tega je veliko aspektov, ki lahko merijo kulturne razlike s sprejemljivo veljavo in zanesljivostjo. Medtem ko se naslanjamo na literaturo, lahko identificiramo različne implicitne načine opredeljevanja kulture. Eden od pristopov, ki se nanaša na kolektive, so skupne psihološke podobnosti - domneve, vrednote, prepričanja, motivi in družbene

identitete, upoštevane v sklopu skupnih norm, poznane kot normativne opredelitve kulture. Drugi lahko alternativno opredeljuje kulturo v smislu značilnih skupnih izkušenj in okoljskih organov, če so te resnične, objektivne in predvsem merljive, kar imenujemo poskuse definicij kulture.

**Kulturne dimenzije po Globe.** Obstaja veliko načinov proučevanja kulture in eden od njih je proučevanje kulture z merjenjem in označevanjem "kulturnih dimenzij". Pomen "kulturnih dimenzij" je najbolj uspešen način (kot se je izkazalo) za pristop te vrste študije znanstvenega primerjanja kulture. Ta pristop omogoča in pomaga uvrstitev držav na teh dimenzijah in primerjavo kulture z vidika kvantitativnih rezultatov. Pomembno je povedati tudi, da uporablja vzorec anketirancev - s ciljem pridobiti potrebne podatke - skupaj z ostalimi modeli.

Najbolj celovita študija do danes, ki je empirično raziskala odnos med obnašanjem vodje in kulturo v mnogih državah z vidika več kvalitativnih in kvantitativnih meritev in metod družbenih, kulturnih, organizacijskih in vodenjskih razlik med 62 državami, se imenuje Globe. Namen te študije je bil ugotoviti, v kolikšni meri so prakse in vrednote poslovnega vodenja univerzalne (tj. podobne na svetovni ravni, in obseg, v katerem so prisotne, ali so posebne le v nekaterih družbah). Ta raziskava, ki kaže največjo replikacijo Hofstedvoih "kulturnih dimenzij", ki zagotavljajo celovite in natančne rezultate, kaže najbolj obsežne meritve kulture, ki so bile objavljene v letu 2004 na podlagi okoli 17.300 srednjih menedžerjev iz 951 organizacij na področju finančnih storitev, storitvenega sektorja, telekomunikacij in predelave hrane. Na splošno so avtorji študije naleteli na devet osnovnih kulturnih dimenzij:

- Razdalja moči
- Izogibanje negotovosti
- Človeška usmerjenost
- Kolektivizem I
- Kolektivizem II
- Asertivnost
- Spol / Egalitarizem
- Usmeritev v prihodnost
- Usmerjenost k uspešnosti

**Vpliv kulture na vodenje**. Mnoge medkulturne študije kažejo, da kultura lahko vpliva na vodstvene koncepte, sloge in prakse. Na podlagi tega so empirični podatki o kulturnih razlikah lahko zelo koristni in tukaj se je treba spomniti, da je že bilo ugotovljeno, da se pomembne nacionalne in kulturne razlike v bistvu povezujejo po regijah, jeziku, zemljepisno, po veri in stopnji gospodarskega razvoja. Tukaj kultura kot pomemben vsebinski dejavnik vpliva na vrednote, osebnost in odnos posameznikov. To se kaže tudi v podobnosti v vedenjskih vzorcih kot "jezik, v katerem se izražamo, razlika, ki jo pokažemo

do drugih, in fizična oddaljenost od drugih ljudi, ki jo moramo ohraniti, da bi se počutili udobno".

S strani raziskovalcev je bilo potrjeno, da kultura kot vsebinski dejavnik vpliva na vsebino lastnosti vodje in njegovega vedenja, ki zaznava te lastnosti in vedenje vodje. Kot se lahko tudi pričakuje, je učinkovito vodenje odvisno tako od kultur kot od njihovih vrednosti. Glede na to so atributi, ki so običajno sprejeti in učinkoviti v določeni kulturi in temeljijo na kulturnih vrednotah, tisti, ki vplivajo na obnašanje vodje. Te lastnosti in vedenja, ki niso v skladu z določeno vrednostjo kultur, običajno omejuje učinkovitost in splošno sprejetost vodje. Poleg tega so bile predstavljene študije z dokazom, da se bonitetne ocene lastnosti vodje razlikujejo med kulturami, medtem ko so primerjali lastnosti vodenja med populacijo in ugotovili omembe vredne razlike v načinu, kako člani iz različnih držav dojemajo vodenje. Nadaljnje raziskave navajajo, da so osnovne funkcije vodje univerzalne, tudi če se te funkcije izvajajo drugače v drugačnem kulturnem kontekstu. Pomembno je tudi navesti, da če nekaj deluje v eni kulturi, to morda ne bo delovalo v drugi, ne glede na univerzalnost, saj se kultura razlikuje od države do države, zato lahko pričakujemo, da bi se obseg, v katerem bi anketiranci iz izbranih držav izvajali določene vodstvene prakse, razlikoval med njimi. Poleg tega ima kultura večji vpliv na ključna vodstvena izhodišča in vrednote, kot jo ima katera koli druga edinstvena značilnost, kot so stopnja izobrazbe, poklic ali spol. Kot posledica tega je možno potrditi pričakovanja, da kultura vpliva na vedenje vodstva.

## PRIMERJALNI PREGLED PREUČEVANIH DRŽAV

Ko na kratko pogledamo v preučevani državi, lahko rečemo, da Slovenci in Španci nimajo veliko podobnosti, vendar pa je pred potrditvijo ali zavrnitvijo potrebno pogledati globlje v profil držav. Globe študija je v procesu raziskave družbenih kultur opredelila, da so Slovenci del vzhodnoevropske zveze, ki temelji na sovjetski nadvladi, medtem ko Španci sodijo v latinsko-evropsko zvezo, ki je pod močnim vplivom rimske kulture. Geografska razdalja med prestolnicami držav je precej dolga, in sicer 1597km (od Ljubljane do Madrida), zgodovina in jezik sta popolnoma drugačna in državi prav tako ne prihajata iz podobne jezikovne skupine. Vendar ko gledamo globlje v profil teh dveh držav, lahko morda najdemo nekaj podobnosti, kot so razvoj države, heterogenost, ekonomski položaj pred vstopom v EU, pa tudi nekatere demografske in socialne faktorje.

Glede na Globe bi lahko rekli, da imajo ženske v Sloveniji bolj avtoritativen položaj, segregacija spola je manj vidna pri delu, oboji, moški in ženske, imajo ekvivalentno stopnjo izobrazbe in poleg tega se bolj nagibajo k dobrobiti drugih ter dajejo bolj prednost iskanju potrebe po pripadnosti kot pa osebnostnemu razvoju. Na drugi strani Španci pripadajo kulturi, ki je veliko bolj primerna za moške, saj so spodbudni, izrazni in odprti, z močno tendenco k osebnostnemu razvoju, nadzoru in dobremu počutju.

Kot je bilo že navedeno, ugotovitve iz raziskave Globe kažejo tudi, da obstajajo precejšnje razlike v percepciji ljudi o tem, kakšne naj bi stvari bile, v primerjavi s tem, kakšne stvari

dejansko so. Poleg tega dimenziji egalitarizem in človeška usmerjenost predstavljata največje obstoječe razlike med praksami za obe državi. Dodatno lahko sklepamo tudi, da razdalja moči predstavlja največjo razliko med vrednotami in praksami za obe državi, kjer za Slovenijo velja še posebej usmerjenost k uspešnosti in v institucionalni kolektivizem. Na splošno lahko ugotovimo tudi, da sta bili največji razliki med praksami in vrednotami za Slovenijo usmerjenost k uspešnosti in človeška usmerjenost za Španijo.

Opredelitve kulture po Globe je omogočilo razviti sledeče hipoteze:

**Hipoteza 1**: Precejšnje razlike v uporabi petih praks vodenja v preučevanih državah ne bo.
**Hipoteza 2**: Najmanj pogosto uporabljena praksa v obeh državah bo navdih za skupno vizijo in najredkeje uporabljena praksa bo omogočanje delovanja drugim.
**Hipoteza 3**: Omogočanje delovanja drugim bo bolj pogosto uporabljena praksa v Sloveniji kot v Španiji.
**Hipoteza 4**: Spodbujanje srca bo bolj pogosto uporabljena praksa v Španiji kot v Sloveniji.

MEDKULTURNA ANALIZA IN REZULTATI

Anketni vprašalnik z imenom LPI, oblikovan od Kouzes & Posner (1987), je bil uporabljen za merjenje transformacijskega vedenja vodstva med slovenskimi in španskimi anketiranci z namenom, da se oceni pet praks vodenja, določenih v njihovem vzorčnem modelu. V tej analizi je bila uporabljena različica "lastno poročilo" v sklopu LPI preizkusa.

LPI vprašalnik je sestavljen iz tridesetih vprašanj, ki zajemajo bistvene oblike vedenja, ki jih lahko najdemo, medtem ko ljudje poročajo - po svojih najboljših močeh - kot vodje. Odzivi z vedenjskimi zaznamki so označeni na desettočkovni lestvici. V vsaki izjavi so anketiranci navedli pogostost, s katero je določeno vedenje izvedeno. Odzivi segajo od ena, kar kaže "skoraj nikoli", do deset, kar pomeni "skoraj vedno".Višja kot je vrednost, večja je uporaba vedenja vodstva. Ker obstaja 30 izjav, so le-te bile razvrščene v pet skupin (po šest izjav sestavlja pet vodstvenih praks). Poleg zbiranja podatkov LPI je bilo zbranih še nekaj demografskih spremenljivk, kot so spol, starost, izobrazba, delovne izkušnje, in še nekateri drugi podatki o trenutnem delovnem mestu in zadovoljstvu z delom. Vprašanja, ki so v originalu bila navedena v angleškem jeziku, so bila prevedena v slovenščino in kastiljsko španščino. Uporabljena metoda prevajanja je bila ena proti ena.

Podatki za analizo so bili zbrani v obdobju med februarjem in junijem 2012. Vprašalnik LPI je bil razdeljen odraslim anketirancem, ki imajo izkušnje z vodenjem, večinoma prek elektronske pošte, nekaterim pa osebno v tiskani obliki, s ciljem, da bi se zbralo večje število rešenih anket. Število zbranih anket slovenskega vzorca je 117 anketirancev, španski vzorec pa sestavlja 113 anketirancev. Skupaj je bilo pridobljenih 230 pravilno izpolnjenih anket.

**Rezultati**. Prvi demografski zaznamek je ta, da celoten vzorec ne vsebuje enakomerne razporeditve med spoloma, saj je bilo 39,1% vprašanih žensk in 60,9% moških. Na državni ravni vzorec prav tako vsebuje zelo podobno porazdelitev spolov kot na skupni ravni vzorca. Z vidika starosti je skupna povprečna starost slovenskih anketirancev 33,62 let in 33,94 za španske anketirance. Poleg tega je večina anketirancev slovenskega vzorca v starosti med 26 in 35 let (67,5%), medtem ko je v Španiji večina vprašanih v starosti med 31 in 40 let (53,1%).

Ko pogledamo na izobrazbo celotnega vzorca, je pomembno omeniti, da je večina vprašanih študirala menedžment in ekonomijo (43%), temu sledi inženiring (19,1%) in družbene vede (18,3%). Preostali del vzorca, ki predstavlja 19,6%, se razporeja preko ostalih izobraževalnih področij.

V okviru delovnih izkušenj kaže skupni vzorec, da ima večina vprašanih (56,6%) od 1 do 10 let delovnih izkušenj. To je posledica dejstva, da ima večina slovenskih anketirancev (64,1%)
med 1 in 10 let delovnih izkušenj, medtem ko ima v Španiji večina anketirancev (54,9%) med 6 in 15 let delovnih izkušenj. Tako je povprečna dolžina delovnih izkušenj za slovenske anketirance 10,69 let in 11,44 let za španske anketirance.

Ker je bil vzorec dobro izdelan, predstavlja 87% celotnega vzorca anketirancev, ki so del menedžmenta. Znotraj tega večina slovenskih anketirancev (62,4%) pripada bodisi 1. ali 2. ravni menedžmenta, kar pomeni, da večina pripada najvišjemu vodstvu, medtem ko večina španskih anketirancev (63,8%) sodi v 2. do 4. raven menedžmenta, kar pomeni, da večina pripada srednjemu menedžmentu.

Ko govorimo o vrsti in velikosti podjetja, lahko rečemo, da na osnovi celotnega vzorca večina anketirancev prihaja iz (78,5%) podjetij v zasebni lasti, in ker so bili anketiranci enakomerno porazdeljeni med različno velika podjetja, številke kažejo, da 58,8% od njih dela v podjetjih, ki imajo več kot 50 zaposlenih, kjer ista večina dela v podjetjih z več kot 250 zaposlenimi.

Na koncu, ko pogledamo še na področje delovnih izkušenj, je treba poudariti, da ima 21,7% anketirancev večino delovnih izkušenj v trženju in prodaji ter z enakim odstotkom ostali sektorji, ki niso v standardnem izboru, ter takoj zatem računovodstvo in finančni sektor s 14,3%.

Rezultati LPI anketnega vprašalnika kažejo tudi, da so rezultati ankete v Sloveniji in Španiji precej podobni. Razvidno je, da so skupne ocene petih praks vodenja v obeh državah precej visoke. V okviru tega so španski anketiranci dosegli najvišje ocene v praksi omogočanja delovanja drugim, z 49,65 v povprečju, medtem ko so dosegli najnižje ocene v praksi izpodbijanja procesa, z 42,80 v povprečju. Pomembno je omeniti, da sta obe državi dosegli najvišje ocene v praksi omogočanja delovanja drugim, s to razliko, da so slovenski

anketiranci dosegli najnižje ocene v praksi navdiha za skupno vizijo, medtem ko španski najnižje v praksi izpodbijanja procesa. V primerjavi s Španijo je Slovenija dosegla višje v praksah modeliranja poti, navdiha za skupno vizijo in izpodbijanja procesa, medtem ko je Španija dosegla višje ocene v praksah omogočanja delovanja drugim in spodbujanja srca. Poleg tega so bile ugotovljene najvišje razlike med povprečji obeh držav v praksah izpodbijanja procesa in modeliranja poti. Po drugi strani pa so bile najnižje razlike med obema državama v praksi omogočanja delovanja drugim. Najvišja meddržavna variabilnost, ki je izražena s standardnim odklonom, je za slovenske anketirance pokazala spodbujanje srca, za Špance pa navdih za skupno vizijo, medtem ko je najnižja, ugotovljena za obe državi, omogočanje delovanja drugim.

Levenov test homogenosti variance je pokazal, da so odmiki za večino praks homogeni, kjer je bila edina izjema vidna v praksi spodbujanja srca, za katero se variance bistveno razlikujejo med Slovenijo in Španijo (p = 0,003). V tem primeru je bil izveden močan, robusten preizkus ANOVA, ki ne predpostavlja enakosti varianc pri uporabi Welch Brown-Forsythe postopka. ANOVA je pokazala, da se za dve praksi rezultati povprečij izrecno razlikujejo med preučevanima državama. Obstajajo pomembne razlike v uporabi praks modeliranje poti (F (1,228) = 11,505, p <0,05) in izpodbijanje procesa (F (1,228) = 10,847, p <0,05) med Slovenijo in Španijo.

Na podlagi tega se je pokazalo, da se španski anketiranci precej manj v povprečju ukvarjajo z obema omenjenima praksama, ki predstavljata največjo razliko med preučevanima državama. Za prakso omogočanja delovanje drugim in spodbujanja srca ni bistvenih razlik med preučevanima državama, kar pomeni, da ni bilo pomembnega vpliva kulture na uporabo vodstvenih praks.

Ena pomembna stvar, ki je bila navedena s strani raziskovalcev Kouzes in Posner (2002), je bila, da LPI rezultati običajno niso priključeni na različne demografske značilnosti, kot so starost, delovne izkušnje, poslovne funkcije, raven izobrazbe niti organizacijske funkcije. Glede na to, da so bili španski anketiranci v povprečju nekoliko starejši in hkrati bolj izkušeni, je bila izvedena enosmerna ANOVA, z namenom preizkusiti, če so velike razlike v uporabi vodstvenih praks s stališča demografskih značilnosti, testirani na dveh spremenljivkah. Poleg tega je bil test izveden, da bi potrdili ali zavrnili trditev, da so LPS rezultati na splošno povezani z demografijo. Pokazalo je velike razlike v uporabi vodstvenih praks med Slovenijo in Španijo, ki temelji na demografskih značilnosti, in potrdilo, da nimajo močnega učinka na vodstvo, vendar pa ga še vedno ni mogoče izključiti kot dejavnik, ki bi lahko pomagal vplivati na vodstvo. Poleg tega je razvidno, da so bile razlike predvsem za prakse vodenja modeliranje poti, omogočanje delovanja drugim, spodbujane srca, medtem ko navdih za skupno vizijo ter izpodbijanje procesa ne kažeta teh razlik z Levenovim testom homogenosti.

Ko gledamo na razvrstitev praks vodenja znotraj države, lahko vidimo, da sta obe državi precej podobni. To je posledica dejstva, da se v obeh državah omogočanje delovanja drugim najpogosteje izvaja, temu sledita spodbujanje srca in modeliranje poti. Če primerjamo z ugotovitvami Kouzes in Posner-ja, je razvidno, da je omogočanje delovanje drugim najdeno na primarnem položaju v obeh primerih. Tukaj je variabilnost prakse prav tako najnižja v obeh državah, kar pomeni, da anketiranci v obeh državah spodbujajo timsko delo in sodelovanje, delegirajo moč in spodbujajo samoodločitve ter razvijajo kompetence precej pogosto brez večjih odklonov od povprečja. Na drugi strani je navdih za skupno vizijo najmanj pogosto uporabljena praksa v Sloveniji in izpodbijanje procesa v Španiji, za katero je vidna precej visoka variabilnost, kar pomeni, da se uporaba te prakse precej razlikuje od anketiranca do anketiranca v vsaki državi, kjer se nekateri angažirajo res pogosto, drugi pa ne.

**Vpliv kulture na vodenje**. Enosmerna ANOVA analiza z idejo, da bi našli razlike v povprečnih ocenah med Slovenijo in Španijo, je pokazala, da obstajajo pomembne razlike le za dve vodstveni praksi. Ena od njiju je modeliranje poti (F (1, 228) = 11,505, p <0,05), druga pa je izpodbijanje procesa (F (1, 228) = 10,847, p <0,05). Poleg tega ni bilo nobenega pomembnega vpliva na spol, starost, delo, izkušnje, niti poslovne funkcije na uporabo vodstvenih praks.

Na podlagi zahtevanega izhoda je enosmerna ANOVA dodatno uporabljena, s ciljem, da bi našli velikosti učinka omenjenih dveh vodstvenih praks, ki sta pokazali statistično pomembne razlike. Prav tako je bila izvedena, da potrdi rezultate preostalih treh vodstvenih praks, ki v prvi vrsti niso pokazali pomembnih razlik, poleg določanja njihove velikosti učinka.

Velikost učinka, izračunana z uporabo delnega eta kvadrata za prakso modeliranja poti kot za prakso izpodbijanja procesa, je bila 0,048. Ti rezultati kažejo zelo majhen učinek kulture, ki temelji na smernicah, ki jih Cohen (1988) predlaga in določa 0,01 kot majhen učinek, 0,05 zmeren učinek in 0,14 velik učinek. Tako da je približno 5 odstotkov celotne variacije za obe praksi mogoče razložiti s pomočjo kulturnega ozadja vprašanih, za katerega sta vezana zaposlovanje modeliranja in vzorno vedenje modeliranja poti in se nanašata na zahtevno in inovativno vedenje prakse izpodbijanje procesa.

Tudi če ima kultura različne vplive na vodstvene prakse in če navdih za skupno vizijo, omogočanje delovanja drugih in spodbujanje srca niso pokazali bistvene razlike, še vedno ni mogoče trditi, da kultura ni pokazala nobenega vpliva na njih. Kljub temu pa je smiselno, da vodstvo kot kompleksen pojav, ki je sestavljen iz mnogih temeljnih okolij, ne more razložiti večino razlik v uporabi vodstvene prakse, kot je ne more za demografske spremenljivke. Če primerjamo rezultate z ugotovitvami Zagorška (2004), je razvidno, da je bil največji vpliv na izpodbijanje procesa, nato pa navdih za skupno vizijo, modeliranje poti in spodbujane srca, medtem ko je bil najmanjši vpliv na prakso omogočanja delovanja

drugim. Poleg tega se je ugotovilo, da je le 5% celotne variance mogoče razložiti z uporabo vodstvenih praks.

ZAKLJUČEK

Pred izvedbo raziskave so bile oblikovane tri glavne teme, ki služijo kot stebri tega magistrskega dela in kot cilj, da bi bolje razumeli rezultate, pridobljene v raziskavi. Kot prvo je bil preučen koncept vodenja s pomočjo različnih teorij, ki je predstavil pomen, strukturo in kakšno vedenje je lahko povezano z vodenjem. To delo je predstavilo glavne teorije vodenja, kjer je bil največji poudarek na relacijskih teorijah, še posebej neokarizmatični in transformacijski teoriji. Poleg tega je bil pojasnjen model petih praks vodenja avtorjev Kouzes in Posner, uporabljen v LPI vprašalniku za empirične raziskave. S tem je bil prvi del zaključen in osredotočenje se je obrnilo na kulturo, ki je drugi pomemben steber magistrskega dela. Ker obstaja toliko opredelitev kulture kot ljudi, ki so kulturo želeli opredeliti, je ena od njenih značilnosti, da služi kot pomemben dejavnik pri medkulturnih raziskavah o vodenju, ki ne vpliva le na vodenje na splošno, ampak kot tudi na njihovo ravnanje, vedenje in slog. Za povezovanje in testiranje kulture z vodenjem je bila uporabljena raziskava Globe, ki opredeljuje kulturne dimenzije kot osnovo za primerjavo. Praksa govori, da se lahko pojavijo določeni stili vedenja vodstva kot posledica kulturnih vplivov, medtem ko so drugi bolj univerzalni. To pomeni, da določena vedenja vodstva ne bodo imela enakega učinka v različnih državah. Ker je vodenje vključeno skoraj povsod in povezano s socialno in kulturno filozofijo, ga je še vedno relativno težko popolnoma razumeti ločeno od konteksta, v katerem obstaja. Zaradi tega medkulturne študije zagotavljajo pomemben prispevek za ugotavljanje učinkov, saj literatura ne vsebuje veliko količino smernic za vodje, ki se soočajo z izzivi. Namen tega magistrskega dela - s pomočjo domače in predvsem tuje literature, ki se kot omenjeno osredotoča na najbolj razvito neokarizmatično in transformacijsko teorijo in skuša omogočiti dobro razlago o vedenju vodstva - je analizirati, do katere ravni kultura vpliva na vedenje vodstva v Sloveniji in v Španiji, na podlagi njihovih praks vodenja. Zaradi tega je bil razvit teoretični okvir in ob tem opravljena empirična preiskava za ugotavljanje podobnosti in razlik v uporabi praks vodenja iz zbranega vzorca Slovencev in Špancev. Za to raziskavo je bilo uporabljeno priročno vzorčenje na osnovi "menedžerjev" (odraslih anketirancev, ki imajo izkušnje z vodenjem, kar pomeni, da so že vodili ljudi).

Empirični del je osredotočen na glavna raziskovalna vprašanja, ki sprašujejo, ali obstajajo razlike v dejanski uporabi praks vodenja v Sloveniji in Španiji. Vzorec raziskave je sestavljalo 230 vprašanih, od katerih je bilo 117 Slovencev in 113 Špancev. Rezultati so pokazali, da obstaja več podobnosti kot razlik med preučevanima državama, razlike so bile ugotovljene samo v praksi vodenja modeliranja poti in izpodbijana procesa. V okviru tega je najbolj pogosto uporabljeno praksa v obeh državah bila omogočanje delovanja drugim, medtem ko najmanj navdih za skupno vizijo v Sloveniji in izpodbijanje procesa v Španiji. Kultura na splošno ni imela bistvenega vpliva na vodenje v obeh državah. Edini učinek na

vodenje se je pokazal z modeliranjem in težavnih vedenj, ki jih je bilo skoraj za 5% učinka. Poleg tega je bilo ugotovljeno, da ni bilo vpliva na spol, starost, delovne izkušnje in poslovne funkcije v uporabi petih praks vodenja. Druge možne spremenljivke za testiranje niso bile vključene v raziskavo. Poleg tega so bile tri hipoteze večinoma potrjene. Od tega je bilo potrjeno, da je bilo manj razlik kot podobnosti med uporabo praks vodenja med preučevanima državama. Potem je bilo potrjeno, da je praksa vodenja omogočanja delovanja drugim najbolj uporabljena v obeh državah in da je spodbujanje srca uporabljeno več v Španiji kot v Sloveniji. Po drugi strani pa 3. hipoteza, ki je napovedala, da naj bi slovenski anketiranci bili bolj angažirani v omogočanju delovanja drugim, ni bila potrjena, saj so rezultati Španije nekoliko višji v primerjavi z rezultati slovenskih anketirancev.

Ker je kultura le eden od številnih dejavnikov, ki lahko do neke mere vplivajo na vodenje, je pomembno vedeti, kolikšni so dejanski učinka vodenja, da vodja deluje in se obnaša na pravilen način in da posledično vpliva na uspešnost organizacije. To je pomembno zlasti za vse vodje, ki delujejo zunaj domačih meja, ki se morajo prilagoditi zelo spreminjajočemu se in večkulturnemu okolju, ki predstavlja veliko izzivov. Včasih tudi, ko je učinek kulture še vedno majhen, še vedno lahko vpliva na vodenje ali povzroča uspešnost ali neuspešnost v medkulturnem okolju. Torej, da bi uspešno delovali v večkulturnem okolju, se morajo vodje prilagoditi na področju kulture, s ciljem, da se zagotoviti učinkovito vodenje. To je še toliko bolj pomembno v vseh tistih državah, kjer obstaja več razlik kot podobnosti.