Power Distance Profiles in Organizations: A Cluster-Analytic Approach and Associations with Organizational Outcomes

Chung, Eun Kyoung[†]

Kangwon National University

Department of Psychology

Jung, Yeseul

Hannam University

Department of Counseling Psychology

This study aimed to investigate the influence of power distance on organizational outcome variables from the perspective of employee-organizational fit. Through cluster analysis, we sought to identify the subgroups that exist based on the combination of employees' power distance and organizational power distance. Additionally, we examined whether differences exist among these subgroups in terms of positive and negative organizational outcomes. A total of 398 participants were included in the study, and three distinct clusters were identified through cluster analysis. Cluster 1 comprised individuals with low power distance among employees and high power distance within the organization(LH), Cluster 2 consisted of individuals with high power distance in both employees and organizations(HH), and Cluster 3 represented individuals with significantly higher power distance among employees compared to their respective organizations(HL). When analyzing the differences between these three subgroups in relation to organizational outcomes, no significant differences were found in positive work affects. Overall, the LH group exhibited the most favorable organizational results, while the HH group displayed the most negative organizational outcomes. In light of these findings, we discussed the academic and practical implications of this study, as well as its limitations.

Key words : Power distance, Employees-organizational fit, Organizational outcomes, Cluster analysis

[†]Corresponding author : Chung, Eun Kyoung, Department of Psychology, Kangwon National University, Professor, 1 Kangwondaehak-gil, Chungcheon-si, Gangwon-do, E-mail: ekchung@kangwon.ac.kr

According to a survey of 1,124 companies in Korea conducted by Saramin, a job portal company, the rate of early resignation within a year of employment is quite high, with an average of 28.7%. The reasons for quitting were unsuitability for the job(45.9%), low salary (36.2%), and dissatisfaction with organizational culture(31.5%). Recently, the rate of civil servants quitting has also increased rapidly, with 8,442 retirees under three years, up 37% from the previous year, according to statistics from the Government Employees Pension Service (Government Employees Pension Service, 2022). The high rate of resignation is not just a problem in Korea. According to a survey by Deloitte Consulting, 49 percent of MZs (Millennials and Zoomers) in 42 countries stated that they would quit their current jobs within the next two years, marking an 11 percent increase from 2017(Newsphim, 2022). This global trend of high resignation rates poses a significant burden on organizations in various ways. Consequently, organizations are exploring diverse measures to reduce this escalating trend.

While salary or job-related maladjustment is challenging for companies to address innovatively, organizational culture is a more manageable factor for organizations to intervene in. There is a growing movement to improve the traditional organizational culture of the past. In fact, according to the Deloitte survey mentioned above, 25% of respondents cited organizational

culture as a factor related to turnover. One of the representative theories related to organizational culture is Hofstede's(1980) framework of cultural values, which classifies cultural values by country and organization into four dimensions: individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, power distance, and avoidance of uncertainty. Among these dimensions, power distance represents the degree to which the organization accepts inequality in the distribution of power(Hofstede, 1980). It is closely related to intra-organizational communication, vertical decision-making, effective leaderships, and the delegation of authority or autonomy(Kirkman et al., 2009). Furthermore, research is not limited to the power distance of organizations or leaders; it also encompasses the power distance of employees.

This study assumes that the level of power distance is not only related to the organization's outcome variables, such as turnover intention, but also that the combination of an individual employee's power distance and the organization's power distance will impact the outcome variables. This can be predicted, in part, by the theory of person-organizational fit, which refers to the compatibility between an individual and an organization in terms of values, goals, work styles, and culture. A meta-analysis on P-O fit revealed that high P-O fit positively influences the organization(Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Several empirical studies have also shown the effect of power distance matching from a P-O

fit perspective(e.g., Choi et al., 2017; Cole et al., 2013; Jung & Yoon, 2016; Kim & Chung, 2018). These studies demonstrate that, when evaluating organizational outcome variables, it is essential to take into account both the cultural values of individuals and organizations, as well as the influence of organizational cultural values themselves.

Previous research has underscored the significance of aligning power distances between individuals and organizations. However, there is a gap in research regarding how the combination of power distances between employees and organizations manifests within the actual organizational context(Kim & Chung, 2018; Guzman & Fu, 2022; Choi et al., 2019). Therefore, this study aims to examine the emergence of subgroups based on the power distance combinations of individuals and organizations and explore their association with organizational outcomes. Coaching, which reduces organizational power distance and promotes horizontal communication and decision-making, is currently offered to executives in both domestic and foreign organizations. This study seeks to provide additional insights into whether unconditionally decreasing power distance is beneficial and aims to identify specific organizations that stand to gain from fostering coaching to further reduce power distance.

The power distance of employees and the organization

Initially, the concept of power distance was introduced by scholar Mulder(1977) in the context of social inequality rather than from a cultural perspective. Subsequently, Hofstede (1980), who was employed by the multinational company IBM, explored this concept as one of the four dimensions essential for understanding the cultural nuances of various countries through research conducted on employees in each country. The concept of power distance was originally studied as an organizational-level variable and defined as the extent to which one accepts that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally(Hofstede, 2001). Research findings suggest that in cultures characterized by a high power distance, lower-level positions face challenges in participating in decision-making, possess limited decision-making authority, and exhibit a strong inclination to obey their superiors. Conversely, senior employees wield significant power and control, receive respect primarily based on their years of service rather than their abilities, are more susceptible to unethical behavior, and tend to report even minor matters to top management(Khatri, 2009).

Following the 1990s, researchers started to measure power distance at the individual level in addition to the organizational or national level. This shift is evident in studies conducted by various researchers(e.g., Ackerman & Brockner,

1996; Begley et al., 2002; Bochner & Hesketh, 1994; Clugston et al., 2000; Earley, 1993). Accordingly, Kirkman and his colleagues(2009) introduced the term 'Power distance orientation' and emphasized the importance of measuring power distance at the individual level, differentiating it from the broader concepts of national or organizational culture. According to Kirkman and colleagues, power distance orientation refers to an individual's attitudes, beliefs, and expectations regarding the acceptability and desirability of hierarchical power structures within a given social or organizational context. Recently, there have been proposals to revise the existing organizational-level measurement of power distance and individual-level measurement, advocating for distinct measures and a redefinition of the concept of individual power distance(Adamovic, 2023)

It has been reported that power distance is significantly related to various organizational outcomes including organizational commitment (Jeon & Seol, 2016; Uzun, 2020), job enthusiasm(Choi & Tak, 2017), turnover intention(Ahn & Kim, 2022; Lee & Lee, 2012; Shojaee, 2016; Zagladi et al., 2015), job stress(Park & Lee, 2015; Jeong & Chung, 2019; Adamovic, 2022; Oruh, & Divia, 2020; Tripathi, & Bharadwaja, 2019), and leadership(Kirkman et al., 2009; Mulki et al., 2015).

There are few studies that explore the alignment between an individual's power distance and the power distance of their organization or leader. In a recent study, Guzman and Fu(2022) investigated the connection between the congruence of power distance between supervisors and employees and its impact on subordinates' speech behavior. The study revealed that both leaders and subordinates exhibited low power distance, or a combination of low power distance among leaders and high power distance among subordinates resulted in more extensive speech behavior. A study conducted by Kim and Chung(2018) discovered that the greater alignment between the organization's power distance and that of its employees led to more positive effects on variables related to the organization. However, Choi et al.(2019) did not demonstrate this fit effect. Instead, it was found that when the leader's power distance was lower than that of the subordinate, trust and cohesion in the leader were also lower, and counterproductive work behavior was higher. This means the leader's low power distance has a negative impact on the organization. Taken together, these findings indicate that a low power distance among leaders or organizations is not universally advantageous, highlighting the significance of aligning the organization with its individuals, although this may vary based on the context.

When considering person-organizational fit in power distance, we have four possible combinations(high or low power distance * employees or the organization). However, there

has been a dearth of studies investigating the existence of these combinations within organizations and their associations with outcome variables. In this study, we aimed to identify subgroups formed by the interplay between the organization's power distance and the employee's power distance, and examine how each subgroup relates to both positive and negative organizational outcome variables. The research questions of this study are as follows.

Research Question 1. What subgroups exist in the combination of organizational power distance and employee power distance?

Research Question 2. Is there a difference between the subgroups derived from Research Question 1 in terms of organizational positive and negative outcome variables?

Method

Participants and Procedure

Data(N=398) were collected from workers in the U.S. using Amazon.com's Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Those individuals who are currently employed are eligible to participate in this study, and they were paid $0.5 for the completion of the study. Participation was voluntary, and responses were anonymous. Of the respondents, 47.2% male 52.8% female, and the mean age

of the participants was 34.12 years, with a range of 19 years to 71 years. The majority of respondents were European American(79.4%), followed by African American(8.3%), Asian American(6.0%), Native American(1.3%), and others(5.1%). Average organizational tenure was 5.12 years, with a range of 0 years to 30 years.

Measures

Power distance

We measured employee's power distance orientation(EPD) and organizational power distance(OPD) by using a six-item measure taken from Dorfman and Howell(1988). Participants were asked to indicate the degree to which they agree with the statement(EPD) and which they agree with the statement that describes the organizational culture at present job(OPD). Each item is scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The sample items from the scale are, "Mangers should make most decisions WITHOUT consulting subordinates." and "It is frequently necessary for a manager to use authority and power when dealing with subordinates." Coefficient alpha for the scale with this sample was .70 for EPD and .81 for OPD. The correlation between EPD and OPD was significant (r = .45), but not very high.

Work affect

We used twenty items from Job Affect Scale

developed by Burke et al.(1988). Participants were asked to indicate how they felt at work during the past week. This scale contains four subscales: activated negative affect(6 items; e.g., "distressed", "scornful", "hostile", "fearful", "nervous", and "jittery"), low-activation positive affect(4 items; e.g., "calm", "relaxed", "at rest", and "placid"), activated positive affect(6 items; e.g., "active", "strong", "excited", enthusiastic", "peppy", and "elated"), and low-activation negative affect(4 items; e.g., "sleepy", "dull", "drowsy", and "sluggish"). Items were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much). Coefficient alpha for the whole scale was found to be .74: .82 for negative activation; .70 for low activation; .87 for positive arousal; .86 for low arousal.

Organizational commitment

We employed organizational commitment using Affective Commitment scale developed by Allen and Meyer(1990). Participants were asked to indicate the degree to which they agree with the statement by using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The sample items included: "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization." and "I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it." Coefficient alpha for the scale with this sample was .90.

Organization Citizenship Behavior

We assessed OCB using a sixteen-item measure taken from Lee and Allen(2002). Participants were asked to indicate how they often engaged in particular behavior by using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always). This scale contains two subscales: OCBI(8 items; e.g., "Help others who have been absent.") and OCBO(8 items; e.g., "Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image."). Coefficient alpha for the whole scale was found to be .95: .92 for OCBI; .94 for OCBO.

Turnover intentions

We employed a three-item scale(Irving, Coleman, & Cooper, 1997). Participants were asked to indicate the degree to which they agree with the statement by using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The sample items included: "I intend to stay in this job for the foreseeable future." and "I will probably look for a new job within the next year." Coefficient alpha for the scale with this sample was .86.

Counterproductive work behavior (CWB)

We assessed counterproductive work behavior by using a thirty two-item scale developed by Spector et al.(2006). Participants were asked to how they have engaged in particular behavior by using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (every day). This scale contains five subscales: Abuse(17 items; e.g., "Started or continued a damaging or harmful rumor at

work" and "Been nasty or rude to a client or customer"), production deviance(3 items; e.g. "Purposely did your work incorrectly" and "Purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done"), sabotage(3 items; e.g. , "Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies" and "Purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property theft"), theft(5 items; e.g., "Stolen something belonging to your employer" and "Took supplies or tools home without permission"), and withdrawl(4 items; e.g. "Came to work late without permission" and "Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't")

Analytic approach

To investigate the relationship between two variables and dependent variables, previous research traditionally used the difference between two rating values, absolute value of the difference, square of the difference. In recent studies, polynominal regression and response surface methodology(Edwards, 1993, 1994; Edwards & Parry, 1993) has been largely used in the analyses.

Polynomial regression and response surface methodology have the advantage of analyzing the relationship between the two variables and the outcome variables in the third dimension and verifying appropriateness of the model based on the difference values. However, This method can only verify whether the more the two variables match, the more significant the

dependent variable, and whether the results differ depending on the level of fit(high or low) between the two variables but the difference between the subtypes of the inconsistent group(e.g., high-low and low-low) or the subtypes of the matching group(e.g., high-high and low-low) cannot be identified. In this study, we adopt cluster analyses using Euclidean distance between EPD and OPD to distinguish the groups with similar characteristics, since the primary goal of our study is to investigate subsets of participants based on EPD and OPD.

We first assessed the impact of common method bias using exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. We further conducted exploratory factor analysis to test the factor structure of work affect. We then conducted both hierarchical cluster analysis using Ward's method of minimum variance (Ward Jr., 1963) and non-hierarchical cluster analysis using k-means clustering method to determine the distinct content of EPD-OPD combinations. Cluster differences with respect to work affect and work outcomes were then tested via analyses of variance(ANOVAs).

Results

Preliminary analyses

Since our data were collected with a

self-reported questionnaire, there is a possibility of common method biases. To examine the effect of common method bias, we conducted Harman's single-factor test(1967). All the study variables were entered into an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with no rotation. This technique assumes that common method variance exists if a single factor emerges from the factor analysis, or one general factor explains for the majority of the covariance among variables(Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The results revealed that the most covariance accounted by one factor is less than 50 percent, and thus seven-factor model may be more appropriate than single-factor model.

As another procedure for test the common method bias, we additionally conducted confirmatory factor analyses for our study variables. The fit indices showed a better fit for a seven-factor model(CFI = .84, TLI = .82, RMSEA = .08) relative to a one-factor model (CFI = .41, TLI = .37, RMSEA = .15). Thus, the problems with common method biases are not likely to be serious.

Exploratory factor analysis results

We conducted exploratory factor analysis (maximum likelihood) with oblique rotation to judge the dimensionality of work affect. As a result, the four factors account for 62.63% of the variance. The first factor including hostile, scornful, fearful, jittery, and nervous, explaining 32.90% of the variance, represented high-activation negative affect(HN). The second factor including enthusiastic, exited, active, strong, peppy, and elated, explaining 17.62% of the variance, represented high-activation positive affect(HP). The third factor(Eigenvalue = 1.81) including drowsy, sleepy, and sluggish, explaining 9.07% of the variance, represented low-activation negative affect(LN). The fourth factor(Eigenvalue = 1.21) including relaxed, at rest, and calm, explaining 6.07% of the variance, represented low-activation positive affect(LP). On the basis of the analyses, we deleted two items, dull and placid, that loaded more on two factors. In addition, scree test also suggested that four factors could be extracted because the eigenvalue curve begins to level off after the fourth component. Thus, work affect can be consisted of four separate factors, and these findings are in line with the prior research(Burke et al., 1989).

Cluster analysis results

We used a two-stage clustering method (Hair et al., 1998) in order to investigate subsets of participants with similar profiles. In the first stage, hierarchical cluster analyses using Ward's method of minimum variance with a squared Euclidean distance measure(Ward Jr., 1963) was conducted. The distance coefficients and the dendrogram suggested three cluster solutions to be appropriate. To verify the stability of the

cluster solutions, we used a double-split cross-validation procedure(Tinsley & Brown, 2000). Samples were randomly divided in half, two-stage procedures were performed on each sample, and participants in each sample were allocated to new clusters based on Euclidean distances. Since then, The degree of agreement between these new clusters and the original clusters was calculated by Cohen's (1988) kappa. If the average value of the final two kappa's is more than 0.60, it is considered acceptable(Asendorpf et al., 2001). The resulting kappa was .63, which means that the three-cluster solution is stable.

In the second stage, we examined k-means clustering method by specifying three clusters. The EPD and OPD scores of each group are presented in Table 1. Cluster one(N = 136), labelled 'low EPD and high OPD(LH)' cluster, was characterized by significantly low levels of EPD compared to the levels of OPD(M = 2.81, SD = .52). Cluster two(N = 98), designated 'high EPD and high OPD (HH)' group, had both the highest mean EPD(M = 3.34, SD =

.45) and the highest mean OPD(M = 3.23, SD = .60). Cluster three(N = 164), labelled 'high EPD and low OPD (HL)' group, was characterized by significantly higher levels of EPD(M = 2.22, SD = .43) than the levels of OPD(M = 1.57, SD = .38).

The relationship of clusters to work outcomes

We examined ANOVAs and post-hoc mean comparison tests to determine if mean scores on outcome variables differed across clusters. The results indicated that clusters significantly differed on various work outcomes(see Table 2). Overall, HL(cluster 3) had the highest scores on positive work outcomes and HH(cluster 2) had the highest scores on negative work outcomes except for turnover intention.

In particular, results revealed that in terms of positive work outcomes, those employees in HL(cluster 3) scored significantly higher than LH(cluster 1) on organizational commitment and higher than both HH(Cluster 2) and HL(cluster

Table 1. Power distance profile clusters

	cluster 1: LH	cluster 2: HH	cluster 3: HL
	low EPD and high OPD	high EPD and high OPD	high EPD and low OPD
	n=136	n=98	n=164
EPD	2.46 (.39)	3.33 (.45)	2.22 (.43)
OPD	2.81 (.52)	3.23 (.60)	1.57 (.38)
t	-5.17[***]	1.48	16.48[***]

Note. Means are outside of the parentheses. Standard deviations are inside the parentheses. [***]p < .001.

Table 2. Comparisons of power distance profile groups

	cluster 1: LH low EPD and high OPD	cluster 2: HH high EPD and high OPD	cluster 3: HL high EPD and low OPD	F-value	Group difference
	n=136	n=98	n=164		
Positive outcomes					
High activated affect	2.83 (.92)	2.99 (.89)	3.06 (.91)	2.30	-
Low activated affect	2.72 (.75)	2.78 (.81)	2.85 (.84)	0.99	-
Organizational commitment	4.44 (1.25)	4.59 (1.02)	4.95 (1.14)	7.53**	HL>LH**
OCB	4.51 (1.23)	4.60 (1.27)	4.99 (1.10)	6.63**	HL>LH**, HL>HH*
Negative outcomes					
High activated affect	1.79 (.74)	1.89 (.87)	1.49 (.55)	11.86**	HH>HL***, LH>HL**
Low activated affect	2.29 (.94)	2.33 (1.02)	2.00 (.88)	5.29**	HH>HL*, LH>HL*
Turnover intention	2.82 (1.13)	2.66 (.97)	2.40 (1.10)	5.85**	LH>HL**
CWB	1.32 (.40)	1.72 (.93)	1.21 (.26)	27.44***	HH>LH***, HH>HL***

Note. Means are outside of the parentheses. Standard deviations are inside the parentheses. $^*p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$, $^{***}p < .001$.
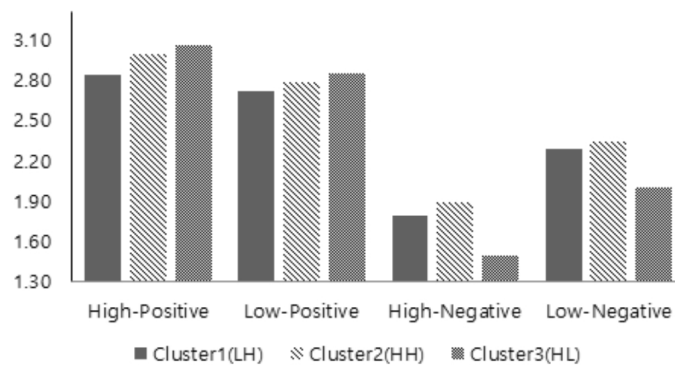

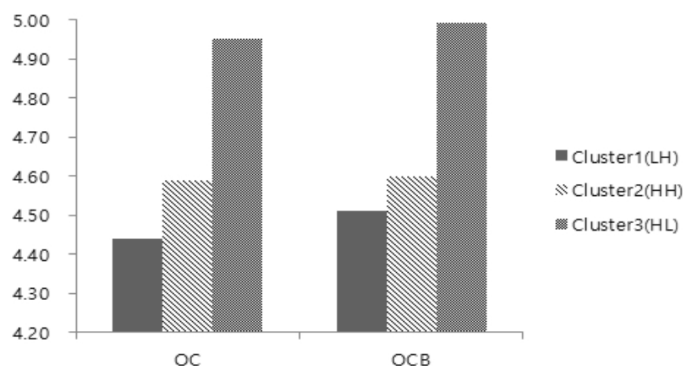Figure 1. Work affects among the subgroups

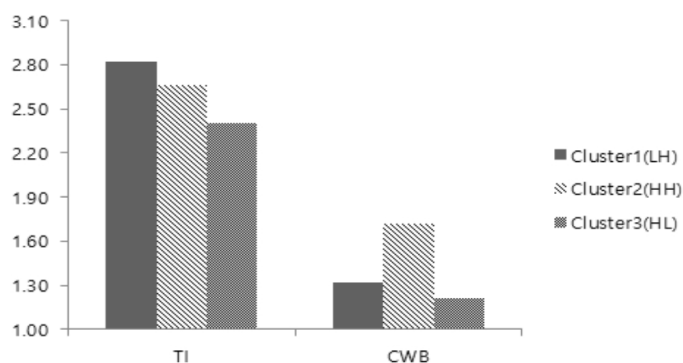Figure 2. Organizational commitment(OC) and organizational citizenship behavior(OCB) among the subgroups

Figure 3. Turnover intention(TI) and counterproductive work behavior(CWB) among the subgroups

3) on OCB. No difference was found among groups on positive affect. In terms of negative work outcomes, those employees in HH(cluster 2) scored significantly higher than HL(cluster 3) on negative affect and CWB. HH also scored higher than LH(cluster 1) on CWB. LH(cluster 1) scored higher than HL(cluster 3) on negative affect and turnover intention.

Discussion

This study aimed to identify profiles of subgroups using employees' power distance and organizational power distances and examine the differences in organizational outcomes between the subgroups. Specifically, cluster analysis was employed to identify existing subgroups in the combination of the two power distances and whether there are differences between the groups

in terms of organizational outcome variables was explored.

First, as a result of cluster analysis on the power distance of employees(EPD) and the power distance of the organization(OPD), a total of three groups were derived. Cluster 1 was a group with low EPD and high OPD(LH), and it included 136 samples. Cluster 2 was classified as a group with high PD for both employees and organizations(HH), with 98 people falling into this category. In the last cluster, Cluster 3, the EPD was high, and the OPD was low(HL), with 136 individuals corresponding to this cluster. The last logically possible combination, which would be the group with low PD for both employees and organizations, was not derived in this study. This suggests that in real life, there are likely to be organizations with high EPD and low OPD, but it's improbable to find organizations with low levels of power distance for both employees and the organization. However, when looking at the descriptive statistics in Table 1, Cluster 3 shows a lower PD level than the other two clusters in both employees and organizations. This suggests that organizations within Cluster 3 have a more horizontal culture compared to those in the other clusters(ps < .01). In such low power distance organizations, employees may have higher PD than in other organizations.

The outcome variables consisted of two categories: positive variables(positive work affect, organizational commitment, and OCB) and negative variables(negative work affect, turnover intentions, and CWB). Firstly, the difference between groups was not significant in positive work emotions. Thus, it was found that the alignment between the employee and the organization's power distance did not significantly impact the employee's positive emotions. On the other hand, there was a difference between groups in negative emotions, and the negative emotions of the group with high EPD and low OPD(cluster 3: HL) were significantly lower than those of the other two groups. These results, in which differences between groups in negative emotions are apparent, while differences in positive emotions are not observed, provide further evidence that positive and negative emotions do not necessarily exhibit an inversely correlated relationship. They indicate that low organizational power distances reduce employees' negative emotions but do not necessarily increase positive emotions. In other words, low organizational power distances can act as a protective factor against employee stress, but they are unlikely to serve as a facilitating factor for happiness or satisfaction. Given the absence of prior research on the relationship between power distance and employee emotions, future studies should employ more sophisticated methods to explore this connection.

In terms of organizational commitment, cluster 3(HL) had higher levels than cluster 1(LH), and OCB was also higher in cluster 3(HL) than in the other two clusters. Even in the case of

negative outcomes, turnover intention was lower in cluster 3(HL) than in cluster 1(LH), and in CWB, cluster 2(HH) had higher levels compared to the other two clusters. These results can be summarized as follows: organizational outings were found to be most positive when overall organizational PD was low, and the PD of employees was relatively higher than that of the organization. This contradict studies on specialized organizations such as military organizations (e.g., Choi et al., 2017), but align with most previous studies showing that lower organizational power distance is associated with more positive organizational outcomes, especially when there is a combination of low-power distance leaders and high-power distance employees(Guzman & Fu, 2022). Additionally, in this study, it was found that emotional variables and counterproductive work behavior(CWB) were most negatively correlated with the high power distance group(HH), whereas organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior(OCB), and turnover intentions were negatively associated with the group where employees' power distance was lower than that of the organization(LH). Nevertheless, the difference between the HH cluster and the LH cluster was not significant in almost all variables. In other words, even though the level of organizational power distance(PD) was moderate in the LH cluster, organizational outcomes were negative, similar to those of the HH clusters when the moderate organizational PD was

combined with the low PD of employees. However, regarding CWB, clusters with high EPO and OPO(HH) were significantly higher than the other two clusters, indicating that CWB is significantly affected by the absolute level of power distance. This finding aligns with previous studies(e.g., Jeong & Chung, 2019; Weipeng et al., 2013) that high power distance is associated with high stress, which is thought to cause negative emotions such as irritation and weaken the ability to control impulses, making it easier for negative behaviors such as CWB to manifest.

The academic and practical implications of this study are as follows. First, this study demonstrates that there are three distinct subgroups of combinations of employees' power distance and organizational power distance in reality Furthermore, it emphasizes that the profile of power distance is as important as its absolute level. Notably, in the context of modern democratic societies, the demand for horizontal communication and reduced power distance is on the rise. However, organizational culture may not always keep pace with the evolving consciousness of employees. This study reveals that an organizational culture that lags behind this era can have a detrimental impact on organizations. Therefore, organizations should prioritize the training of leaders and management to embrace lower power distance orientations through individual coaching, along with fostering a company-wide culture of

innovation.

Second, this study shows that the power distance of management and leaders can be very low, but reducing the power distance of employees below a certain level can be challenging. This is thought to be related to the characteristics of the organization, which cannot completely eliminate hierarchical traits Since hierarchy inherently implies a chain of command, it is unlikely that employees will operate horizontally beyond the limits of this vertical chain of command. Furthermore, unlike leaders and executives, it appears that the organization does not need to allocate significant resources to reduce the power distance of employees, as it has been demonstrated that indiscriminately reducing the power distance of employees is not beneficial to the organization.

The limitations of this study are as follows. Firstly, the subjects who assessed the power distance of organization in this study were all employees. For the purpose of this study, employee subjective perception is considered more important than objective indicators. Some studies have even reported that subjective perception plays a more crucial role in shaping individual attitudes and behaviors than objective indicators(Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). However, if the leader's power distance is directly measured and analyzed, the results may differ from those of this study. Hence, future research is needed to measure the power distance of each leader and employee.

Secondly, given that the subjects of this study are Americans, caution should be exercised when applying the results directly to Korean organizations. However, even in U.S. culture, where the power distance is lower than that of Korea, no group with a very low power distance among employees has been identified. Therefore, similar results can be expected in Korean organizations with a high power distance. Finally, as this study is not a longitudinal study, caution should be exercised when interpreting the results causally.

Despite these limitations, this study examines how the combination of the organization's power distance and the employee's power distance manifests in reality. It also makes a significant contribution by investigating the differences between various groups in both the positive and negative outcomes of the organization.

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조직과 개인의 권력거리 간 하위집단 탐색:
조직 결과 변인과의 관계

정 은 경　　　　　　　정 예 슬
강원대학교 심리학과　　　　한남대학교 상담심리학과

본 연구는 조직의 결과변인에 유의한 영향을 주는 것으로 알려진 권력거리를 종업원-조직 부합의 관점에서 알아보고자 하였다. 군집분석을 통해 종업원과 조직의 권력거리 조합이 현실에서 어떤 하위그룹으로 존재하는지를 알아보고자 하였으며, 조직의 긍정 결과변인과 부정 결과변인들에 있어서 도출된 하위집단들 간 차이가 있는지도 살펴보았다. 총 398명의 데이터가 수집되었으며 군집분석을 통해 총 3개 집단이 도출되었다. 군집 1은 종업원의 권력거리는 낮고 조직의 권력거리는 높은 집단이었으며(LH), 군집 2는 종업원과 조직의 권력거리가 모두 높은 집단, 군집 3은 종업원과 조직이 전반적으로 낮은 권려거리 수준을 보였으나 종업원의 권력거리가 조직의 권력거리보다 유의하게 높은 집단(HL)이었다. 조직 결과변인에 대해 세 하위 집단 간 차이를 분석한 결과, 긍정적 일 정서에서는 집단 간 차이가 없었으며 전반적으로 LH 집단이 가장 긍정적인 조직 결과를, HH 집단이 가장 부정적인 조직 결과를 보이는 것으로 나타났다. 상기 결과를 바탕으로 본 연구의 학문적, 실용적 함의 및 제한점에 대해 논의하였다.

주요어 : 권력거리, 종업원과 조직 간의 부합, 조직 결과 변인, 군집분석