

An Implicit Theory of Ideal Leadership and Its Relationships to Cultural Values and Demographic Variables

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The purpose of the present study was to investigate whether or not cultural values(power distance, uncertainty avoidance) and demographic variables(nationality, gender, education level, work experience) are the determinants of personal implicit theory of ideal leadership. For a cross-cultural research, 227 Koreans and 143 Americans were surveyed. The present study has three research hypotheses: First, the demographic variables would influence the cultural values. Second, the demographic variables would influence a personal implicit theory of ideal leadership. Third, the cultural values, nationality and gender would influence a personal implicit theory of ideal leadership. The results showed that 1) an ideal leadership is different from culture to culture because culture, through the process of socialization, shape expectations and judgements about appropriate behaviors of leaders, and 2) within a culture, an implicit theory of ideal leadership is also different depending on an individual background. The present study developed measures for cultural values and an implicit theory of ideal leadership. The reliability coefficients were approximately .80.

Leadership has studied and researched for a number of years, resulting in numerous theories and models (Bass, 1981). The early theories and the current situational theories have generally focused on one objective-identifying effective leadership. Many leadership researchers have proposed effective leadership styles. Most of the research, however, has been performed with European or American samples.

Chemers(1981) pointed out that there would be a serious problem if results of leadership studies found in western countries were generalized to other cultures. Cultural differences in leadership should be considered because research indicates that autocratic leadership behavior is more effective in authoritarian

cultures and democratic leadership behavior is more effective in democratic cultures. Different cultures may require variations in task versus relation orientation, and initiation versus consideration orientation (Whyte & Williams, 1963; Farris & Butterfield, 1972; Bass & Burger, 1979).

In the present study, the main interest is in whether expected best possible leadership style differs from culture to culture.

In order to identify the ideal leadership, a categorization of leadership must be completed. Theories and models of proposed leadership style are reviewed for the purpose of the categorization. And in the sense that culture, through the process of socialization,

helps to shape the values and further create expectations and judgements about appropriate behaviors of leaders, Hofstede's Model on various culture is presented and discussed. Based on Hofstede's research(1980), it can be assumed that different cultural values would lead to a unique implicit leadership theory.

Leadership Models: Numerous theories which has been developed during the past several decades proposed their own leadership styles. Although leadership theories use different labels for leader's style, there are similarities across labels and theories. For example, leaders who are described as initiating structure in one theory (Fleishman, 1957) are also described as job-centered in another theory(Likert, 1961), and leaders who are considerate in one theory(Fleishman, 1957) are similar to employee-centered leaders in another theory(Likert, 1961).

After reviewing different researchers' labels of leader behavior, Bass(1981) proposed that these labels could be described in two broad categories of leader behavior: task-oriented and person-oriented. In Anglo-American leadership theories, two generally accepted leadership styles were found. In other cultures, active research was also performed to validate these categories. For example, Misumi(1981) in Japan and Sinha(1984) in India proposed leadership styles which supported the categories.

For the purpose of the present research, the leadership styles proposed by Ohio State leadership studies, Misumi's PM leadership theory and Sinha's leadership theory were considered. The three leadership theories were selected because each theory represents a different culture. The Ohio State leadership theory is related to culture of U.S.A; the Misumi's theory is related to Japan's culture; the Sinha's theory is related to Indian culture. The Ohio State Studies proposed two independent leadership dimen-

sions. The first dimension, initiating structure, includes behavior in which the leader organizes and defines group activities and the leader's relation to the group. The second one, consideration, includes behaviors indicating mutual trust, respect, warmth and rapport between the leader and the group(Fleishman, 1957). In the PM Leadership Theory, Misumi(1981) proposed P and M leadership style. Leader behavior that prompts and motivates group goal achievement is called P leadership. M leadership behavior is oriented toward promoting and reinforcing the tendency toward self-preservation. The three leadership styles Sinha(1984) has proposed are nurturant, task-oriented and nurturant-task-oriented. According to Sinha, a nurturant leader cares for his or her subordinates, shows affection, and takes personal interests in their well-being while a task-oriented leader structures his or her subordinates' roles in such a way that the subordinates understand and accept goals, and direct them to work hard and maintain a high level of productivity. Nurturant-task-oriented style shows nurturance contingent on the subordinate's task accomplishment. Nurturant-task-oriented leader reinforces with nurturance the subordinates who meet his or her expectations.

In summary, nurturant leadership of Sinha, consideration leadership of the Ohio state studies and M leadership of Misumi are similar to each other in the sense that they all emphasize person-oriented leadership. Task leadership of Sinha, initiating structure of the Ohio state studies and P leadership of Misumi are similar to each other in the sense that they all emphasize task-oriented leadership. Nurturant-task-oriented leadership proposed by Sinha is, however, unique.

Hofstede's Model: Hofstede(1980) has proposed the main criteria by which national cultures differ. The criteria are power distance, uncertainty avoi-

dance, individualism and masculinity. He argues that a culture's standing on the four factors determine the kinds of organizational structure and managerial policies that would be most likely develop. Different implicit personal theory of ideal leadership across countries may be explained by their cultures' standing on the factors. In the present study, power distance and uncertainty avoidance were employed to identify the cultures of Korea and the United States.

In order to describe meaningfully the relationship between boss and subordinates in a hierarchy, Hofstede(1980) used the concept of power distance. The power distance between a boss B and a subordinates S in a hierarchy is the difference between the extent to which B can determine the behavior of S and the extent to which S can determine the behavior of B. The power distance was taken from a work of Mulder(1976). He defined power distance as the degree of inequality in power between less powerful individual and more powerful individual. The second dimension is uncertainty avoidance. It indicates the extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and tries to avoid these situations.

The Purpose of This Study

The cultural relativity in an implicit theory of ideal leadership is the main interest of the present study. In addition to the main objective, it is investigated whether or not demographic variables are influential in the level of power distance and uncertainty avoidance, and in determining ideal leadership. Below are the research hypotheses the present study has: First, nationality, gender, education level and length of experience will influence a level of power distance and uncertainty avoidance. Second, nationality, gender, education level and length of experience will influence a choice of ideal leadership style. Third,

power distance, uncertainty avoidance, nationality and gender will affect a choice of ideal leadership style.

METHOD

Subject

Three hundred seventy individuals participated in the present study. One hundred ninety(51%) of the participants were males. Two hundred twenty seven(61%) participants were Koreans. Of the Korean participants, sixty three were company workers(Sunk-yong and Ssang Yong), seventy six were Chungbuk National University staff members and eighty eight were Chungbuk National University students. One hundred forty three participants(39%) were Americans. Of the American participants, seventy one were Illinois Institute of Technology staff members and seventy two were Illinois Institute of Technology students.

Measures

Cultural dimensions-A new measure for power distance and uncertainty avoidance has been developed because Hofstede's measure for power distance and uncertainty avoidance has the following problems: First, Hofstede's measure for power distance and uncertainty avoidance focused on a small range of power distance and uncertainty avoidance situations. Second, he developed measure for power distance and uncertainty avoidance based on western European culture, and he used the items to measure power distance and uncertainty avoidance of Asian countries and western European culture. Taking items designed and tested within the cultural context of one country, using the items in other countries, and comparing the results between countries is a debatable form of cross-cultural research. Triandis(1972) called such research "pseudoetic." He referred to the distinction

between emic and etic research. Emics refers to the natives' view of the world while etics refers to viewpoint of another culture imposed on the target culture. Cultures develop emic(cultural specific) constructs that are not shared with other cultures. Third, the measure was designed to calculate power distance and uncertainty avoidance of a country or, at least, a big group, not of an individual. Using his measure, individual difference in terms of power distance and uncertainty avoidance can not be identified. It is also impossible to look at a correlation between Hofstede's measure and other comparable measures for power distance and uncertainty avoidance, or other measures such as satisfaction measure.

Constructing questionnaires in the present cross-cultural research included these four steps: 1)gathering critical incidents from both Koreans and Americans 2) developing items 3)back-translating items for a cross-cultural research, based on Brislin's(1970) back-translation technique, 4)testing reliability of questionnaire.

The new scale used in the present study is different from Hofstede's measure as follows: First, the new scale measures power distance and uncertainty avoidance by considering a larger range of power distance and uncertainty avoidance situations than Hofstede's measure. Second, it can measure not only a country's power distance and uncertainty avoidance but also an individual's. This means that individual difference can be defined in terms of power distance and uncertainty avoidance, and that an individual's score on this measure can be compared to his or her score on another measure. Third, the new scale was developed from critical incidents reported by both Koreans and Americans. As the scale was developed on a basis of both Asian and Western country people, it is less cultural-specific than Hofstede's measure.

Item reliability of the new measure was tested. The

reliability coefficients of power distance and uncertainty avoidance were, respectively, .84 and .73.

Leadership style-For the present study, the three measures of leader behavior were employed: Misumi's, Ohio State Studies' and Sinha's measures representing three cultures. This ensures an international representation of the measurement of leader behavior.

The initiating structure items, P leadership items, task leadership items were combined, content-analyzed, and finally selected to measure the task-oriented leadership style. The reliability coefficient was .87. Likewise, the consideration items, M leadership items, nurturant leadership items were combined, content-analyzed, and finally selected to measure the task-oriented leadership style. The reliability coefficient was .88. The original form of nurturant task-oriented leadership scale of Sinha was employed because of its lack of similarity to other constructs. The reliability coefficient was .73.

Although the three questionnaires were designed to measure perception of leader behaviors, the subjects in the present study were asked to answer on the basis of their ideal leader's behavior expectations.

Data Analysis

There were three groups of variables 1)cultural dimension variables (power distance and uncertainty avoidance) 2)ideal leadership style variables (task-oriented, person-oriented, nurturant task-oriented leadership style) 3)demographic variables(nationality, gender, education level and length of work experience). Three multivariate analyses of variance(MANOVAs) were done to test the hypotheses in this study.

The hypothesis 1 was tested by performing a 2X2X2X2 MANOVA(nationality, i.e.Korea versus the United States by gender, i.e., male versus female by education level, i.e., high versus low by length of

work experience, i.e. long versus short) with cultural dimensions (power distance and uncertainty avoidance) as the dependent variables. High school graduates were classified into the low education level group; college students and college graduates or above into the high education level group. Long and short work experience was formed on a mean split basis(4 years). A median split on work experience could not be used because it produced empty cells in the MANOVA.

The hypothesis 2 was tested by performing a 2X2X2X2 MANOVA(nationality by gender by education level by length of work experience) with the three ideal leadership style variables(task-oriented, person-oriented, nurturant task-oriented leadership style) as the dependent variables.

The hypothesis 3 was tested by performing a 2X2X2X2 MANOVA(power distance, i.e., high versus low by uncertainty avoidance i.e., high versus low by nationality by gender) with the three ideal leadership style variables(task-oriented, person-oriented, nurturant task-oriented leadership style) as the dependent variables. The high and low power distance and uncertainty avoidance were formed by using a median split on both of these variables(150 for power distance ; 64 for uncertainty avoidance)

A significance level of .05 was selected for the MANOVAs. For post-hoc analyses, based on Dunn-Bonferroni(see Bray and Maxwell, 1985), the significance level of .05 was divided by the number of dependent variables. For the MANOVA with two dependent variables, the significance level of .025 was employed for post-hoc analyses. The MANOVA

with three dependent variables used the significance level of .02.

RESULT

Demographic variables and cultural values

The 4-way MANOVA where demographic variables were the independent variables and cultural dimensions were the dependent variables resulted in three significant main effects for nationality, gender and education level, and also one interaction effect of nationality by length of work experience was significant. Homogeneity assumption was not met as done by Box's M test ($M=67.78, F_{42,6734}=1.48, p<.05$). However, Pillai-Bartlett trace was significant. The significance level for the follow-up univariate tests was set at .025. The followings describe the results in detail :

Nationality effect on cultural dimensions was significant using Wilks' Lambda(.87) with Rao's $F(p<$

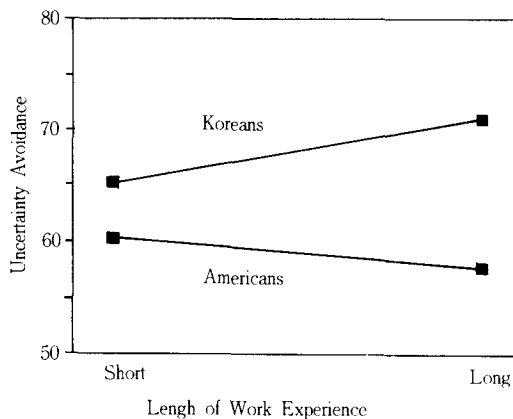


Figure 1. Relationship of nationality and work experience to uncertainty avoidance

Table 1. Means of uncertainty avoidance by nationality and work experience

	Short work experience	Long work experience
Koreans	65.15(n=169)	70.91(n=51)
Americans	60.28(n=89)	57.74(n=57)

.001). In the follow-up tests, the univariate analysis for power distance was significant ($F_{1,354}=35.3, p<.001$) and the univariate analysis for uncertainty avoidance was also significant ($F_{1,354}=30.75, p<.001$). Mean power distance score was significantly higher for Koreans(155.63) compared to Americans (140.13). Mean uncertainty avoidance score was significantly higher for Koreans (.66.56) compared to Americans(59.29).

Gender effect on cultural dimensions was significant using Wilks' Lambda (.98)with Rao's F($p<.03$). In the follow-up tests, the univariate analysis for power distance was significant ($F_{1,354}=6.45, p<.01$). Mean power distance score was significantly higher for females (152.27) compared to males(147.02).

Education level effect on cultural dimensions was significant using Wilks' Lambda(.97) with Rao's F($p<.01$). In the follow-up tests, the univariate analysis for power distance was significant ($F_{1,354}=7.94, p<.01$). Mean power distance score was significantly higher for people with low education level(153.37) compared to people with high education level(148.48).

An interaction of nationality by length of work experience effect on cultural dimensions was significant using Wilks' Lambda (.97) with Rao's F ($p<.02$). In the follow-up tests, the univariate analysis for uncertainty avoidance was significant($F_{1,354}=7.08, p<.01$). A simple main effect test revealed that there were significant differences in uncertainty avoidance between Koreans with long work experiences and Americans with long work experiences($p<.01$), between Koreans with long work experiences and Koreans with short work experiences, ($p<.01$), and between Koreans with short work experiences and Americans with short work experiences ($p<.01$). The table 1 provides the cell means and the figure 1 shows the interaction.

Demographic variables and ideal leadership

The 4-way MANOVA where demographic variables were independent variables and the three ideal leadership were dependent variables resulted in two significant main effects for nationality and gender, and also one interaction effect of education by length of work experience was significant. Homogeneity assumption was not met as done by Box's M test($M=152.26, F_{84,4838}=1.57, p<.01$). However, Pillai-Bartlett trace was significant. The significance level for the follow-up univariate tests was set at .02. The followings describe the results in detail :

Nationality effect on the three ideal leadership was significant using Wilks' Lambda (.97) with Rao's F($p<.01$). In the follow-up tests, no univariate analysis was significant. There was, however, a general trend that mean person-oriented ideal leadership score was higher for Koreans (79.57) compared to Americans (71.74). The univariate $F_{1,354}=3.96 (p<.05)$.

Gender effect on the three ideal leadership was significant using Wilks' Lambda (.97) with Rao's F($p<.02$). In the follow-up tests, the univariate analyses for task-oriented, nurturant-task-oriented, and person-oriented ideal leadership were all significant ($F_{1,354}=8.09, p<.01$; $F_{1,354}=6.03, p<.02$; $F_{1,354}=6.76, p<.01$, respectively). Mean task-oriented ideal leadership score was significantly higher for females (88.05) compared to males (83.34). Mean nurturant-task-oriented ideal leadership score was significantly higher for females (36.48) compared to males (34.74). Mean person-oriented ideal leadership score was significantly higher for females (78.05) compared to males(75.01).

An interaction of education level by length of work experience effect on the three ideal leadership was significant using Wilks' Lambda(.97) with Rao's F($p<.01$). In the follow-up tests, the univariate analysis for nurturant-task-oriented ideal leadership was signifi-

Table 2. Means of nurturant-task-oriented leadership by education level and work experience

	Short work experience	Long work experience
Low education level	35.09(n=34)	37.84(n=61)
High education level	35.58(n=224)	34.33(n=51)

cant ($F_{1,354}=4.50, p<.02$). A simple main effect test revealed that there were significant differences between individuals with low education level and long work experiences, and individuals with high education level and long work experience. The table 2 provides the cell means and the figure 2 shows the interaction.

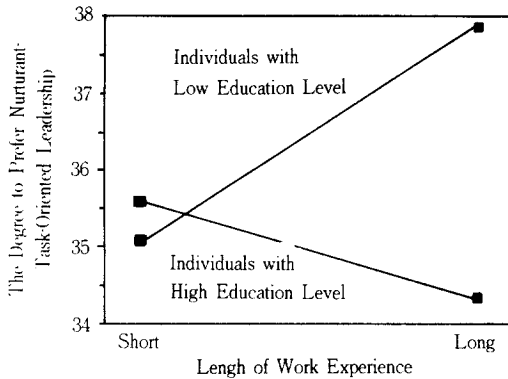


Figure 2. Relationship of education level and work experience to nurturant-task-oriented ideal leadership

Ideal leadership, demographic variables and cultural dimensions

The 4-way MANOVA where demographic variables (here, only nationality and gender were included) and cultural dimensions were independent variables and the three ideal leadership were dependent variables resulted in four significant main effects for all of the independent variables and four interaction effects. Homogeneity assumption was not met as done by Box's M test ($M=173.49, F_{34,11818}=1.88, p<$

.001). However, Pillai-Bartlett trace was significant. The significance level for the follow-up univariate tests was set at .02. The followings describe the results in detail (the results of main effects of nationality and gender were presented in the previous section):

Power distance effect on the three ideal leadership was significant using Wilks' Lambda(.94) with Rao's $F(p<.001)$. In the follow-up tests, the univariate analysis for task-oriented ideal leadership was significant ($F_{1,366}=9.34, p<.001$) and the univariate analysis for person-oriented ideal leadership was significant ($F_{1,366}=19.39, p<.001$). Mean task-oriented ideal leadership score was significantly higher for high power distance group (86.93) compared to low power distance group (84.29). Mean person-oriented ideal leadership score was significantly higher for high power distance group(78.46) compared to low power distance group(74.53).

Uncertainty avoidance effect on the three ideal leadership was significant using wilks' Lambda(.98) with Rao's $F(p<.04)$. In the follow-up tests, the univariate analyses for task-oriented ideal leadership was significant ($F_{1,366}=5.20, p<.02$) Mean task-oriented ideal leadership score was significantly higher for low uncertainty avoidance group(86.20) compared to high uncertainty avoidance group(84.87).

An interaction of gender by power distance by uncertainty avoidance effect on the three ideal leadership was significant using Wilks' Lambda(.96) with Rao's $F(p<.003)$. In the follow-up tests, the univariate analyses for person-oriented ideal leadership was sig-

Table 3. Means of person-oriented leadership by gender, power distance and uncertainty avoidance

Power distance	Low		High	
	Low	High	Low	High
Uncertainty Avoidance				
Male	75.1(n=79)	68.9(n=35)	76.1(n=27)	77.8(n=53)
Female	77.5(n=57)	79.5(n=18)	81.6(n=33)	78.1(n=66)

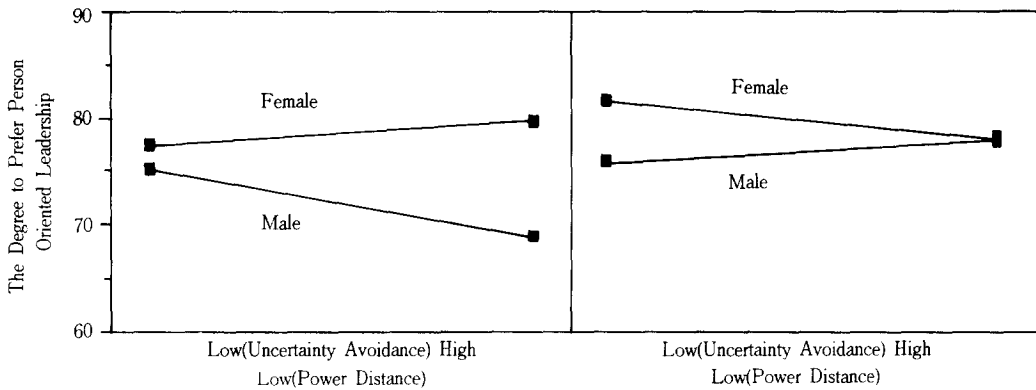


Figure 3. Relationship of Gender, Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance to Person-Oriented ideal Leadership

nificant ($F_{1,353}=12.9, p<.001$). A simple simple main effect test revealed that there was a significant difference between males with low power distance and high uncertainty avoidance (68.9) and females with low power distance and high uncertainty avoidance(78.5)($p<.01$), and between males with low power distance and high uncertainty avoidance(68.9) and males with high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance (77.8)($p<.01$). The table 3 provides the cell means and the figure 3 shows the interaction.

An interaction of nationality by gender by power distance effect on the three ideal leadership was significant using Wilks' Lambda(.96) with Rao's $F(p <.001)$. In the follow-up tests, the two univariate analyses for task-oriented and person-oriented ideal leadership was significant ($F_{1,354}=13.6, p<.001$; $F_{1,354}=14.4, p<.001$, respectively). A simple simple main effect test revealed that there were significant

difference in task-oriented ideal leadership score between Korean males with high power distance (83.5) and American males with high power distance (91.6)($p<.01$), and between American males with high power (91.6) and American males with low power distance (82.1)($p<.05$). The table 4 provides the cell means and the figure 4 shows the interaction.

A simple simple main effect test revealed that there was a significant difference in person-oriented ideal leadership score between American males with high power distance(79.1) and American males with low power distance (70.3)($p<.05$). The table 5 provides the cell means and the figure 5 shows the interaction.

An interaction of nationality by gender by uncertainty avoidance effect on the three ideal leadership was significant using Wilks' Lambda(.97) with Rao's $F(p<.01)$. In the follow-up tests, the two univariate analyses for task-oriented and nurturant-task-oriented

Table 4. Means of task-oriented leadership by nationality, gender and power distance

Gender	Male		Female	
	Low	High	Low	High
Korean	83.9(n=57)	83.5(n=71)	83.0(n=22)	87.8(n=74)
American	81.2(n=57)	91.6(n= 9)	88.5(n=53)	92.1(n=27)

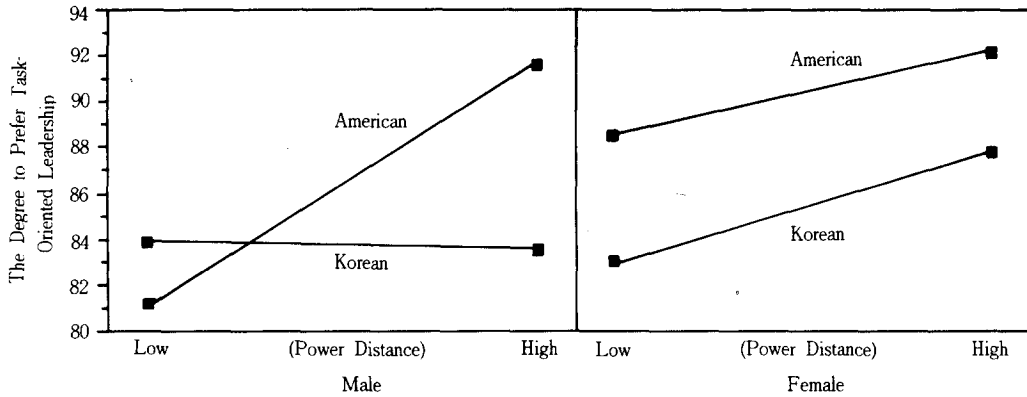


Figure 4. Relationship of Nationality, Gender and Power Distance to Task-Oriented Ideal Leadership

Table 5. Means of person-oriented leadership by nationality, gender and power distance

Gender	Male		Female	
	Low	High	Low	High
Korean	76.3(n=57)	77.3(n=71)	74.3(n=22)	79.8(n=74)
American	70.3(n=57)	79.1(n= 9)	77.4(n=53)	77.5(n=27)

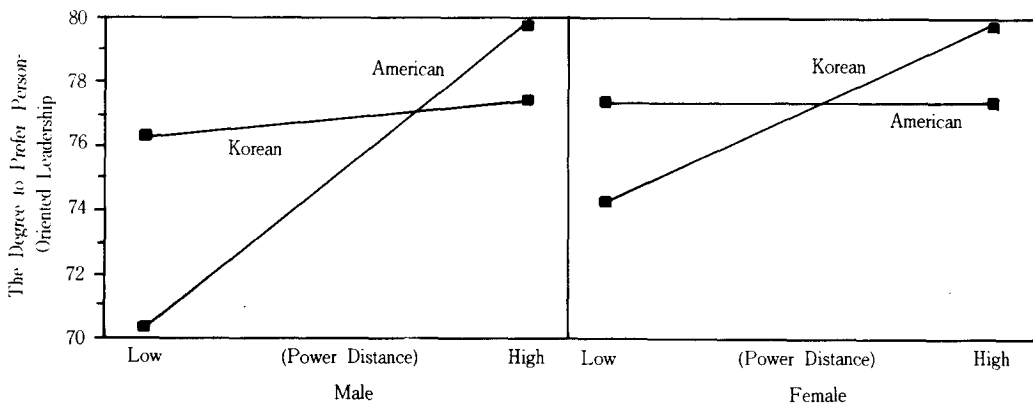


Figure 5. Relationship of Nationality, Gender and Power Distance to Person-Oriented Ideal Leadership

ideal leadership was significant ($F_{1,354} = 5.50, p < .02$; $F_{1,354} = 10.44, p < .001$, respectively). A simple main effect test revealed that there was a significant difference in task-oriented ideal leadership score between American females with high uncertainty avoidance (93.7) and American males with high uncertainty avoidance (79.4) ($p < .01$). The table 6 provides the cell means and the figure 6 shows the interaction.

A simple main effect test revealed that there

were significant difference in nurturant-task-oriented ideal leadership score between American females with high uncertainty avoidance (40.7) and American males with high uncertainty avoidance (32.2) ($p < .01$), and between American females with high uncertainty avoidance (40.7) and Korean females with high uncertainty avoidance (35.2) ($p < .05$). The table 7 provides the cell means and the figure 7 shows the interaction.

An interaction of gender by power distance effect on the three ideal leadership was significant using

Table 6. Means of task-oriented leadership by nationality, gender and uncertainty avoidance

Gender	Male		Female	
	Low	High	Low	High
Korean	84.6 (n=61)	82.8 (n=67)	87.7 (n=27)	86.3 (n=69)
American	84.1 (n=45)	79.4 (n=21)	88.6 (n=63)	93.7 (n=17)

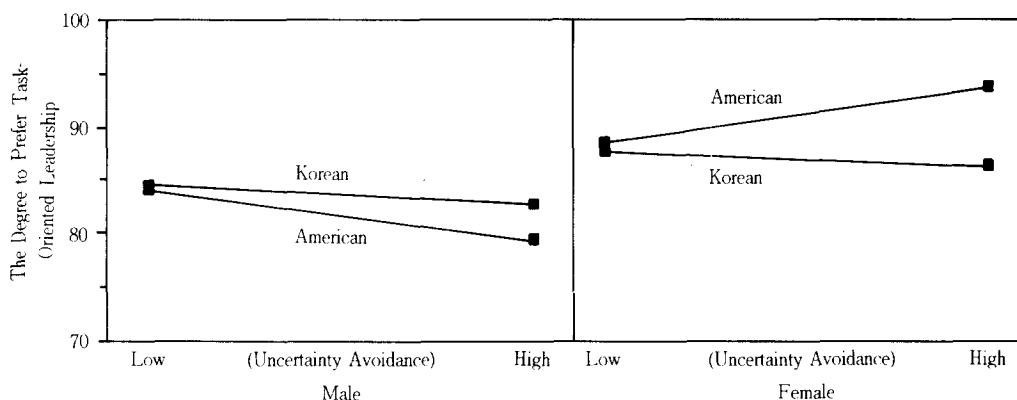


Figure 6. Relationship of Nationality, Gender and Uncertainty Avoidance to Task-Oriented Ideal Leadership

Table 7. Means of nurturant-task-oriented leadership by nationality, gender and uncertainty avoidance

Gender	Male		Female	
	Low	High	Low	High
Korean	34.3 (n=61)	36.2 (n=67)	35.9 (n=27)	35.2 (n=69)
American	34.3 (n=45)	32.2 (n=21)	37.1 (n=63)	40.7 (n=17)

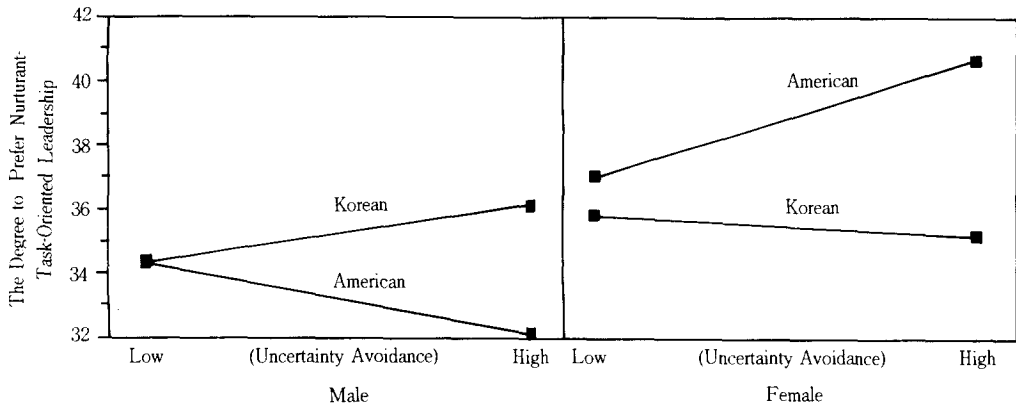


Figure 7. Relationship of Nationality, Gender and Uncertainty Avoidance to Nurturant-Task-Oriented Ideal Leadership

Table 8. Means of nurturant-task-oriented leadership by gender and power distance

Power distance	Low	High
Male	34.0(n=114)	35.8(n=80)
Female	37.4(n=75)	35.9(n=101)

Wilks' Lambda(.97) with Rao's $F(p<.03)$. In the follow-up tests, the univariate analysis for nurturant-task-oriented ideal leadership was significant ($F_{1,354}=9.05, p<.003$). A simple main effect test revealed that there was a significant difference be-

tween females with low power distance(37.4) and males with low power distance (34.0)($p<.01$). The table 8 provides the cell means and the figure 8 shows the interaction.

DISCUSSION

Cultural dimensions and demographic variables

The present study showed that power distance and uncertainty avoidance scores were different, depending on nationality. That is, Koreans had higher power distance and uncertainty avoidance scores as compared to Americans. The higher power distance and uncertainty avoidance of Koreans can be understood through Korean value systems. One dominant factor that has influenced the behaviors of Korean is Confucianism. Confucianism is a school of teaching by the great Chinese philosopher Confucius. The core of his thought focused on the maintenance of proper

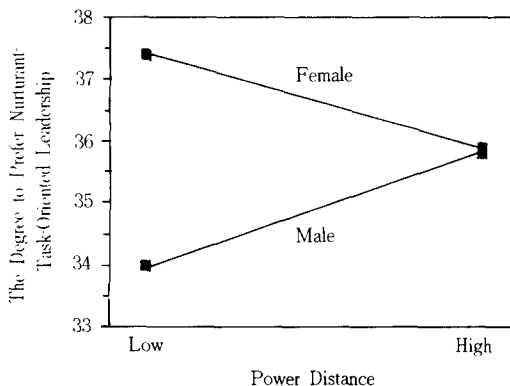


Figure 8. Relationship of Gender and Power Distance to Nurturant-Task-Oriented Ideal Leadership

relationships between King and his subordinates, father and son, and the young and the old. In the traditional Korean family and associated social life, juniors are expected to obey senior. These norms have influenced behavioral patterns of employees in organizations.

The gender variable also had a significant effect on power distance. The orientation of females was different from the orientation of males in relation to people with status. Because females as compared to males showed higher power distance scores, females were more inclined to respect authority and not to challenge it.

Individuals with higher education levels showed a lower power distance score as compared to lower education levels. This results supports Hofstede's (1977) observation, using his measure, that lower education level leads to higher power distance values while higher education level leads to lower power distance values.

Koreans generally showed higher uncertainty avoidance as compared to Americans, regardless of length of work experience. In Korea, the more experienced workers had significantly higher uncertainty avoidance scores as compared to less experienced workers. Senior workers in Korea preferred a structured environment. This findings also suggests that older person showed the higher uncertainty avoidance as a result of high correlation between work experience and age (.82). In the United States, there was no significant relationship between uncertainty avoidance and length of work experience. The data from Korean subjects in the present study supported Hofstede's (1981) results. Hofstede suggests that older people show higher uncertainty avoidance score. However, the United States subjects did not show relationship between uncertainty avoidance and age.

Demographic variables and ideal leadership style

Koreans generally favored person-oriented leadership style as compared to Americans. Both peoples preferred comparable levels of task-oriented and nurturant-task-oriented leadership styles. Kim and Kim(1989) also maintains that at Korean workplaces interpersonal relations are considered most important.

Males and females in the present study, regardless of which country they were from, showed varied expectations of ideal leader behaviors. Females more than males expected the ideal leader to exhibit task-oriented, nurturant-task-oriented, and person-oriented leader behaviors. Female workers may expect more interaction with their boss than males. Among highly experienced participants, those with a lower education level expected their ideal leader to exhibit a great amount of nurturant-task-behavior than those with higher education level. This support Sinha's Leadership Model. Sinha (1984) proposed that nurturant-task-leader reinforces with nurturance the subordinates who meet his or her expectations. But as subordinates are more experienced and knowledgeable, they prefer less direction and start to demand a participative leadership. Therefore, the highly experienced individuals with low education level prefer nurturant-task-oriented leadership because they can meet their leader's expectation and receive nurturance from the leaders. However, nurturant-task-oriented leader can not satisfy subordinates who are not only experienced but also knowledgeable because they prefer participative leadership.

Demographic variables(nationality, gender), cultural dimension and ideal leadership style

The results on this analysis showed that each independent variable contributed to implicit theory of leadership, through both main effects and interaction

effects with each other. Here, main effects of cultural dimensions and interaction effects on implicit theory of leadership were discussed. The discussion of main effects of nationality and gender was presented in the previous section.

Those with high power distance score had higher expectation for their ideal leader to exhibit task-oriented and person-oriented leader behaviors. On the other hand, those who showed lower uncertainty avoidance expected their ideal leaders to exhibit task-oriented leader behavior.

Among those with low power distance and high uncertainty avoidance, females as compared to males expected their ideal leader to exhibit a greater amount of person-oriented behavior. And, among males with high uncertainty avoidance, individuals with high power distance as compared to individuals with low power distance expected their ideal leader to exhibit a greater amount of person-oriented behavior.

Among males with high power distance, Americans as compared to Korean expected their ideal leader to exhibit more task-oriented behavior. Among American males, individuals with high power distance as compared to individuals with low power distance expected their ideal leader to exhibit more task-oriented behavior. And, among American males, individuals with high power distance as compared to individuals with low power distance expected their ideal leader to exhibit a greater amount of person-oriented behavior.

Among Americans with high uncertainty avoidance, females as compared to males expected their ideal leader to exhibit a greater amount of task-oriented behavior. Among Americans with high uncertainty avoidance, females as compared to males expected their ideal leader to exhibit a greater amount of nurturant-task-oriented behavior. And, among females with high uncertainty avoidance, Americans as compared to Koreans expected their ideal leader to

exhibit a greater amount of nurturant-task-oriented behavior.

Among individuals with low power distance, females as compared to males expected their ideal leader to exhibit a greater amount of nurturant-task-oriented behavior.

In summary, when demographic characteristics of the sample and their cultural values were used independently to predict implicit theories of ideal leadership, each independent variables (demographic variables and cultural values) had a main effect explaining implicit theories of ideal leadership. However, when the "key" demographic characteristics (nationality and gender) were combined with the cultural values, the results yielded significant interaction effects between demographic characteristics and the cultural values. This analysis attests to the position that demographic characteristics are confounding variables. Therefore, it is important to recognize that there are variabilities within the two gender types or citizens of a country due to their adherence to levels of certain values or orientations.

In considering the above-mentioned results, it should be noted that the statistical criteria used for the three MANOVAs was Wilks' Lambda, which is dependent on the homogeneity assumption. This assumption was not met in the present study, and the violation thus may weaken the Wilks' Lambda results. However, Pillai-Bartlett trace was significant. Olson(1976) states that Pillai-Bartlett trace is robust enough to deal with the violation of homogeneity assumption.

CONCLUSION

From a theoretical standpoint, as several several researchers (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Lord, Binning, Rush & Thomas, 1978) suggest, an implicit theory of

leadership serves as a cognitive filter to determine what an observer will notice, remember and report about the leadership behavior. However, there are few studies (e.g., Arkelin, 1987) which investigate factors influencing an implicit personal theory of leadership. As Eden and Leviatan(1975) recommended, the present study, thus, investigated whether cultural values, nationality, gender, education level, and work experience influence an implicit theory of leadership. As a result, the present study demonstrated that cultural values and background of people impacted an implicit theory of leadership. Based on the varied implicit theories of leadership influenced by culture, the present study supported Hofstede's(1981) cultural relativity in organizational theories, rather than Goodstein (1981) and Hunt's (1981) cultural universality. Hofstede(1981) argues that there may be problems in applying American organizational theories abroad because of cultural difference while Goodstein(1981) and Hunt (1981) argue that American organizational theories can be applied to other cultures.

On a practical perspective, the results of the present study may make a contribution to training managers in organizations, especially multi-national or international organizations. Managers must be trained both to understand 1)ideal leadership may be different from culture to culture because culture, through the process of socialization, shape expectations and judgements about appropriate behaviors of leaders, and 2)within a culture, an implicit theory of leadership may also differ depending on a background of an individual.

The significance of this study is as follows : First, this is the first study that considered the power distance and uncertainty avoidance as the variables contributing to the implicit theory of ideal leadership. Second, a new scale for power distance and uncertainty avoidance was developed. The new scale resolved the problems of Hofstede's measure in that it

considered a large range of power distance and uncertainty avoidance situations. The structure of these measures, unlike Hofstede's (1980), allows not only country's differences but also individual differences to be measured. In addition, a compilation of three leadership measures, representing each culture, was made. The final measure of leader behavior scale included both leader behaviors in western countries and in Asia. This cross-cultural representation of leader behavior descriptions reduces some concerns of overly emically imposed measurements in cross-cultural research.

Future studies need to consider these points : First, future research can examine the effect of the difference between expected and observed leadership behavior in effective communication. Second, when the influence of cultural dimensions on the implicit theory of ideal leadership is studied, all cultural dimensions proposed by Hofstede(i.e., power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and masculinity) should be considered to identify cultural differences. Third, other variables influencing the implicit theory of ideal leader behavior should be investigated. Fourth, the power distance and uncertainty avoidance measure developed in this study should be further validated and expanded for other cultures.

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이상적 지도자유형에 대한 개인의 암묵적 이론과 문화 가치 및 인구학적 변인과의 관계

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본 연구의 목적은 문화 가치(권력차이, 불확실성 회피)와 인구학적 변인(국적, 성별, 학력, 경력)이 이상적 지도자유형에 대한 개인의 암묵적 이론에 어떠한 영향을 주는지 알아보는 것이다. 한국에서 227명, 미국에서 143명의 피험자를 각각 조사 대상으로 하였으므로 두 나라의 문화적 가치에 대한 비교가 가능하도록 하였다. 첫째가설은 인구학적 변인에 따라 문화적 가치가 다르다는 것이었다. 둘째가설은 인구학적 변인에 따라 이상적 지도자유형에 대한 개인의 암묵적 이론이 다르다는 것이었다. 셋째가설은 이상적 지도자유형에 대한 개인의 암묵적 이론의 형성에 문화 가치와 인구학적 변인(국적, 성별)의 상호작용의 영향이 있을 것이라는 것이었다. 자료분석결과 위의 세가지 가설은 지지되었다. 연구 결과가 시사하는 바는 이상적 지도자유형에 대한 개인의 암묵적 이론은 문화에 따라 다르며 동일문화권내에서도 개인의 인구학적 변인에 따라 달라질 수 있다는 점이다. 또 본 연구에서는 문화가치와 이상적 지도자유형에 대한 개인의 암묵적 이론을 측정하는 도구를 개발하였는데 신뢰도는 약 .80이었다.