TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERS: ALL THINGS TO ALL PEOPLE IN ALL CULTURES?

by

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(Under the Direction of BRIAN HOFFMAN)

ABSTRACT

This study extends past cross-cultural leadership studies by proposing and testing a model of process differences in the leadership-outcome relationships across cultures. Specifically, the study adopts a process model of charismatic leadership similar to that proposed by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006). Utilizing the cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede (1980) and GLOBE (1997), we examine the role that culture plays in the transformational leadership – job satisfaction relationship, where leaders are proposed to influence followers' perceptions of their work (job characteristics), and these perceptions influence follower attitudes and cognitions. Results from the analyses reveal that, not only was the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction universal but also that the key process variables were also consistent across cultures. Specifically, each of the job characteristics included in the model were shown to mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction across cultures. Only one of the cultural dimensions included in the analysis moderated both of the hypothesized relationships. Hofstede's cultural dimension for masculinity moderated the relationship between transformational leader and interdependence and interdependence and follower satisfaction. Implications for scientists and practitioners are discussed.

INDEX WORDS: TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, CROSS-CULTURAL

LEADERSHIP, JOB CHARACTERISTICS, JOB DESIGN

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DEDICATION

I dedicate my dissertation to my family, as without them this would never have been possible. A special feeling of gratitude to my loving and supportive husband, Steve, whose encouragement pushed me to complete this study. My son, Jackson, whom I wanted to make proud. My parents, Keith and Karen Williams, whose words of encouragement and push for tenacity were always with me. Thank you all for helping me persevere through this process.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Substantial research has investigated the role of culture in leadership. Much of this research focused on the influence of culture on the manifestation of leadership behaviors (e.g. Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effects [GLOBE]: House, Hanges, & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1997; Sadri, Weber, & Gentry, 2011). A growing body of research has attended to the influence of culture on the relationship between leader behaviors and outcomes (e.g. Dorfman, Howell, Hibino, Lee, Tate, Bautista, 1997; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005; Walumbwa, Lawler, & Avolio, 2007). This research has made important first steps by providing initial evidence of leader behaviors that are invariant across cultures and those behaviors whose effectiveness is bound by the culture (cf. Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa, Lawler, Avolio, Wang, & Shi, 2005; Walumbwa et al, 2007).

Yet, this research is characterized by a few important limitations. Specifically, consistent with Dickinson's (Dickson, Den Hartog, & Mitchelson, 2003) observation, the limited existing research continues to be characterized by a comparison of one or two countries, with only a handful of studies using more than five or more countries (Dorfman et al, 1997; Pillai, Scandura, & Williams, 1999). In addition, existing analyses are characterized by small sample sizes within each country (e.g. Casimir, Waldman, Bartram, & Yang, 2006; Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009: Pillai et al, 2009). Finally, there has been some inconsistency in results, with some reporting differences in leader behavior-outcome relationships across culture (e.g. Dorfman et al, 1997; Kirkman et al, 2009) while others have not (e.g. Jackson, Meyer, & Wang, 2013; Jung,

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Yammarino, & Lee, 2009; Pillai et al, 2009; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa et al, 2005). Thus, the first aim of the proposed study is to reexamine the influence of culture on leader-behavior-follower outcomes by examining the role of charismatic leadership on follower job satisfaction in a large sample (N = 31,689) mean N per country = 1173; range = 66 to 9,788) with a much larger number of cultures represented than is typical to this research. This will allow for a more theoretically and empirically robust test of the moderating influence of national culture on the relationship between leaders behavior and a key indicator of followers' attitudes toward their work, job satisfaction.

In addition to replicating past research, this study extends past cross-cultural leadership studies by proposing and testing a model of process differences in leadership-outcome relationships across cultures. Specifically, this study adopts a process model of charismatic leadership similar to that proposed by Piccolo and Colquitt's (2006). This model uses sense-making theory (Festinger, 1954; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Smircich & Morgan, 1982; Weber, 1947) in which charismatic leader behaviors influence followers' cognitions and perceptions of their work, and it is through followers' work perceptions that transformational leaders influence outcomes. This overarching model is amended to take into account the potential moderating influence of national culture on the relationship between (a) leader behavior and followers' perceptions of job characteristics and (b) between followers' perceptions of job characteristics and follower satisfaction (Figure 1). In other words, the first part of this model proposes that transformational leaders provide different forms of motivating work characteristics, depending on what members of the culture find motivating. In this way, the relationship between transformational leadership and a given work characteristic, such as autonomy, opportunity to advance, and skill variety, are contingent on whether the culture finds that aspect of work

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motivating. From a needs-supplies fit perspective (Kristof, 1996), what employees "need" is proposed to differ based on cultural values, and likewise, the intrinsically motivating work perceptions that charismatic leaders have been shown to foster are also proposed to differ by culture. In the second part of the model, the influence of work characteristics on job satisfaction is proposed to differ depending on national culture. This aspect of the model contributes to the work design literature by providing the first analysis of the influence of national culture on the relationship between work characteristics and employee satisfaction. In short, this cultural process model of leadership proposes that because transformational leaders are adept at identifying and filling followers needs at work, they are will have a more satisfied workforce, regardless of the culture. But, the mechanisms by which charismatic leaders foster follower satisfaction is proposed to hinge on broader cultural values, and the work characteristics that are satisfying will also vary by culture.

Although much attention has been placed on determining whether the effectiveness of leader behaviors is universal across cultures, past research has not attended to whether the process of influence differs by culture. Dickson and colleagues (2003) cite the importance of a cross-cultural model of leadership to narrow and refine cross-cultural leadership research. Rather than simply studying main effects, Dickson and colleagues discuss the importance of examining whether theoretical models hold across cultures. In response to Dickson's call, our study will examine a theoretical model across culture thus furthering the cross-cultural literature. This study has the potential to inform leadership research and practice by testing multiple facets of the universality of charismatic leadership, ranging from effect on outcomes to the explanatory processes of charismatic leadership. By isolating culture-bound influence processes, prescriptive recommendations on the most effective modes of influence can be forwarded to managers in

different cultures. Similarly, using the needs-supplies model as a theoretical framework, this study informs the work design literature by providing an initial test of the universality of the intrinsic motivating function of work design features, which can help to refine cross-cultural work design efforts.

Follower Attitudes as an Outcome in Cross-Cultural Leadership Research

Over the past thirty years, a variety of leadership theories have emerged that utilize charismatic, transformational, visionary, or inspirational ideals (House, 1977; Burns, 1978; Bass 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Tichy & Devanna, 1986; Boal & Bryson, 1988; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987; Sashkin, 1988). The various theories of leadership focus on leaders who are able to have extraordinary effects on their followers. The followers then become very highly committed to the leader's goal and make sacrifices to achieve this goal. Transformational leadership, in particular, focuses on the follower's emotional attachment to the leader, emotional arousal of the follower, follower self-esteem and confidence in the leader, values of the follower, and the follower's intrinsic motivation (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). We will use the term transformational leadership to encompass charismatic, visionary leadership as charismatic leadership does not explain variance in outcomes beyond transformation leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Employee attitudes are useful leadership criteria because they directly assess the role of leadership on follower affect and well-being. As Yukl (2009) notes, influence on followers is the essence of leadership. As such, utilizing follower attitudes as leadership criteria are important because they are proximal criteria and capture the impact and perceptions of leadership behaviors on the recipient of the behaviors. In other words, from a needs-supplies perspective, they directly indicate the degree to which leadership behaviors are gratifying to the follower.

Employee attitudes are especially valuable in cross-cultural analyses, because they allow for an analysis of cultural differences in what is satisfying, effective, and motivating to employees. Since employee attitudes are believed to reflect whether the work fills follower needs (e.g. Ostroff, Shin, & Kinicki, 2005; Piasentin & Chapman, 2007; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003), follower attitudes are a particularly useful way to determine the relative importance of different leadership styles or job characteristics across cultures. This is in part due to the direct connection between culture and attitudes. Culture is generally defined as the cumulative deposit of knowledge, experience, beliefs, values, attitudes, meanings, hierarchies, religion, notions of time, roles, spatial relations, concepts of the universe, and material objects and possessions acquired by a group of people in the course of generations through individual and group striving (Samovar & Porter, 1994). In this way follower attitudes are useful proximal criteria in determining whether key aspects of the environment are equally effective across cultures. Accordingly, this study focuses on the universality of the processes by which transformational leaders influence job satisfaction.

The Universality of Transformational Leadership

Reflecting themes in broader cross-cultural research (e.g. Dickson et al, 2003; Drenth & DenHartog, 1998), the majority of past cross-cultural leadership research has been devoted to understanding whether leaders behave differently in different cultures and whether followers have different preferences for leader behavior; that is, the universality of leader behavior. Below we discuss universality and previous findings in the context of cross-cultural influences on leader behavior (transformational leadership) and the cultural dimensions of interest in the present study.

Lonner (1980) drew from sociological theory to distinguish multiple approaches to conceptualize the studies of the universality of leadership. The most commonly examined is the simple universal form, where mean levels of leader behaviors are examined for differences across cultures (e.g. Dorfman et al, 1997; Walumbwa et al, 2005).This study examines this model by investigating mean levels of transformational leadership across 27 countries. Next, functional universal refers to a relationship between two variables being the same across cultures (e.g. Jackson et al, 2013; Jung, et al, 2009; Kirkman et al, 2009). In this model, correlations between variables are invariant across culture (Lonner, 1980). Finally, variform universal refers to a general principle present across culture but the enactment of the principle differing across cultures. In our study, this is our examination of transformational leadership. It exists across culture, but we propose that its enactment differs. We will examine this type of universality by analyzing how transformational leadership and follower attitudes are related across culture, but differ by the utilization of particular job characteristics.

Of particular interest to the current study is the variform universality of transformational leadership. Past studies have proposed that differences in cultural values can influence in implicit leadership theories (House, Wright, and Aditya (1997). From this perspective, the behaviors and characteristics that comprise leader prototypes are potentially culturally bound and are determined by due to societal norms and values (Hunt, Boal, and Sorenson, 1990). With regards to charisma, Bass (1990) posited that "Charismatics appear in societies with traditions of support for them and expectations about their emergence" (p.196). Studies that have asked respondents to evaluate the value or importance of various leader behaviors along with studies that directly measure implicit leadership theories in different cultures often point to the centrality of transformational leadership to humans' conceptions of leadership.

Although many researchers view leader prototypes as culturally bound (e.g. Hunt et al, 1990), research has also focused on many prototypes as a simple universal phenomenon. Epitropaki and Martin (2004) examined implicit leadership theories to assess the generalizability of the phenomenon. Their results indicate that a factor called dynamism, which included charisma, was found to be invariant across groups, indicating support universality of transformational leadership as a prototypical leader behavior.

Den Hartog and colleagues (Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, Dorfman, & Associates, 1999) examined culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories. Researchers asked respondents to rate the importance of twenty-two characteristics for being a good or outstanding manager and leader. In examining sixty-two cultures, they found that many aspects of transformational leadership were found across the globe including motive arouser, foresight, encouraging, communicative, trustworthy, dynamic, positive, confidence builder, and motivational. Others such as enthusiastic, risk taking, ambitious, self-effacing, unique, self-sacrificial, sincere, sensitive, compassionate, and willful were culturally contingent. Dorfman and colleagues (1997) also examined several conceptualizations of leadership. Almost 1,600 respondents were asked to respond to a questionnaire measuring six patterns of leadership behaviors: directive, supportive, contingent reward, contingent punishment, charisma, and participation. Factor analysis showed cultural universality for the presence of three leader behaviors: supportive, contingent reward, and charisma. Others support similar findings in Germany (Kuchinke, 1999) and several post-communist countries (Ardichvili, 2001). Together, these studies support the presence in cross-cultural implicit leadership theories and in doing so, provide evidence for the simple universality of transformational leadership.

Finally studies have directly examined this possibility by examining whether transformational leadership is related to follower attitudes across cultures. For instance, Avolio, Zhu, Koh, and Puja (2004), found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment utilizing a staff of nurses from Singapore. Koh, Steers, and Terborg (1995) found a similar relationship between transformational leadership and follower attitudes using students and principals. Jung, Butler, and Baik (2000), reported similar findings using a sample from Korea.

Together, there is evidence that transformational leadership occurs across cultures and, to some extent, has a positive impact across cultures. Based on the previous research supporting the positive effects of transformational leadership across cultures we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1: Transformational leadership will be positively related to follower satisfaction across culture.

Culture as a moderator. More recently, studies have directly compared the magnitude of effects of transformational leader behaviors on outcomes across cultures in order to more directly compare whether culture moderates the influence of leader behaviors (e.g. Casimir et al, 2006; Dorfman et al, 1997; Pillai et al, 2009; Walumbwa et al, 2005). With a few exceptions (e.g., Kirkman et al., 2009; Walumbwa et al, 2005), this line of research has found evidence of culture moderating the relationship between transformational leadership and follower satisfaction. For instance, Casimir and colleagues (2006) examined the transformational leadership – follower performance relationship within a varied sample of occupations from Australia and China, supporting the moderating role of culture such that transformational leadership was more strongly related to performance in the Australian sample relative to the Chinese sample. Dorfman (1997) examined samples from Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, Mexico,

and the United States identifying the differing effects of transformational leadership in non-western societies and found that transformational leadership was more strongly related to satisfaction with supervisors in the United States, Mexico, South Korea, and Taiwan as compared to Japan. Also, they found that transformational leadership was more strongly related to organizational commitment in the United States and South Korea as compared to Japan, Taiwan, and Mexico. Pillai et al (2009) found that the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction was non-significant in non-western cultures (India, Colombia, and the Middle East).

Thus, although past studies seem to point to differences in the effectiveness of transformational leadership across cultures, variability in findings across studies makes it difficult to generalize across studies. Jackson (2013) presented a meta-analysis examining differences in the relationship between leadership and commitment depending on national culture, operationalized using Hofstede (2001), GLOBE (House et al, 2004) and Schwartz (1994; 1999) cultural dimensions. Results from this study indicated that individualism/collectivism and power distance, moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and follower job satisfaction. In the following section, we propose empirical tests of the mechanisms that underlie the differential effectiveness of transformational leaders across these cultural characteristics.

It has become common place for international researchers to accept that management and leadership processes reflect the culture in which they are found (Ayman, 1993; Smith & Peterson, 1988). Societies' characteristics such as language, belief systems, values, and social structure are expected to demand distinct approaches to leadership (Hofstede, 1993; Jackofsky, Slocum, & McQuaid, 1988; Triandis, 1993). Because of cultural characteristics and implicit

leadership theories, different leadership approaches appear to be differential effective across different cultures. Thus we hypothesize:

> *Hypothesis 2: Culture will moderate the transformational leadership – follower satisfaction relationship, such that transformational leadership will be more strongly related to follower satisfaction in societies with low levels of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity and high levels of individualism.*

The Explanatory Role of Job Characteristics

Despite increasing attention to cultural difference in leadership, the explanatory mechanisms observed differences are unclear. Consistent with Erez (2010), Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) and Hoffman, Bynum, Piccolo, and Sutton (2011), we propose that transformational leaders influence followers perceptions of their work, and these perceptions influence follower attitudes and cognitions. However, this study extends past models by exploring the role of national culture at each step of this process model of transformational leadership. We begin with a general discussion of job characteristics and then discuss the moderating role that culture might play in the relationship between transformational leadership and job characteristics and between job characteristics and outcomes.

Job characteristics. Job design was among the first topics of scientific attention in management research (Taylor, 1911), and although the popularity of job design ebbed and flowed over the past century, it is now widely recognized that job characteristics play a pivotal role in employees' work experiences (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). Although work characteristics have proliferated, the core model has remained stable since Taylor's seminal research: work that provides valued, needed, or otherwise desirable characteristics will be more satisfying to employees (e.g. Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Vroom, 1964; Turner & Lawrence,

1965; Herzberg, 1966; Blood & Hulin, 1967; Hackman & Lawler, 1971). On the basis of theoretical links with transformational leadership, we examined five job characteristics in this study: *skill variety, significance, autonomy, interdependence,* and *development*. Skill variety represents "the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities to carry out the work, which involve the use of a number of different skills and talents of the employee" (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, p. 161). Significance describes "the degree to which the job has substantial impact on the lives or work of other people – whether in the immediate organization or in the external environment" (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, p. 161). Autonomy refers to "the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in scheduling the work and determining the procedures to be used to carrying it out" (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, p. 162).

Personal development and interdependence were a not included in Hackman and Oldham's original job characteristics model but have more recently been shown to be important work characteristics (Humphrey et al, 2007). Interdependence is "the extent to which a job is contingent on others' work and other jobs are dependent on the work of the focal job" (Humphrey, et al, 2007, p. 1336). Development is concerned with the amount of learning and growth opportunities one's job provides and can include formal training or more informal developmental opportunities such as feedback from others, mentoring, and coaching (Humphrey et al, 2007).

Sense-making mechanism. Salancik and Pfeffer's (1978), social information processing theory suggests that individuals rely on cues from their social contexts when assessing their level of satisfaction with their work environment, and direct supervisors are proposed to be a key source of important cues (Goffman, 1974; Schutz, 1967; Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Smircich

and Morgan (1982) suggest that leaders influence followers by "mobilizing meaning, articulating and defining what has previously remained implicit or unsaid, by inventing images and meanings that provide a focus for new attention, and by consolidating, confronting, or changing prevailing wisdom" (p. 258). From this perspective, a key function of leadership is to provide a frame of reference that enables followers to understand work and work activities (Goffman, 1974; Schutz, 1967; Smircich & Morgan, 1982) or manage the meaning of work. Toward this end, research has shown that follower perceptions of work characteristics (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Piccolo, Greenbaum, Den Hartog, & Folger, 2010) mediate the influence of transformational leadership on a variety of outcomes. Piccolo and colleagues (2006, 2010) suggest that transformational leaders influence followers' perceptions of their job characteristics, helping followers to interpret their job as more enriched, despite objective levels of job enrichment. We adopt a sense-making framework to determine and investigate the influence of national culture links of this underlying this explanatory model, including the relationship between transformational leadership and perceived job characteristics and the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction.

The Role of Culture in the Explanatory Model

Culture is likely to play a key role in the job design process. Recognizing minimal empirical attention to the influence of culture on job design, Hackman and Oldham (2010) urged research identifying job characteristics that are most salient in a particular culture. In doing so, they supported efforts to design jobs or the perceptions of jobs to align with local culture. Taras, Steel, and Kirkman (2010) propose that job design efforts should match the local culture in order to create an environment that is motivating and satisfying to employees. When interpreted from a needs-supplied perspective on person-environment fit (Kristof, 1996), national culture is proposed to influence worker values for various job characteristics; employees from different

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cultures are potentially motivated by different job characteristics. For instance, in a developing nation, existence needs are potentially more important than growth needs; however, in industrialized nations, growth needs potentially take on increased importance relative to existence needs (Adler, 1957). Given that transformational leaders are proposed to effectively read social cues to provide employees intrinsically motivating awards (Riggio & Reichard, 2008), transformational leaders are proposed to tailor their motivational approach to the cultural values of followers.

In other words, the relationship between transformational leadership and job characteristics will be moderated by culture such that transformational leadership will be more strongly related to followers' perceptions of work characteristics that are more valued by members of that culture. Similarly, we expect those characteristics that are valued by a particular culture will be more strongly related to indicators of follower satisfaction in that culture. Thus, this model proposes that in a given culture, the same underlying job characteristic will be more strongly related to both transformational leadership and employee attitudes.

Cultural dimensions and their role in the explanatory model. Culture can play a variety of roles in the explanatory model. In understanding its role, we examine its effects in multiple ways. First, we examine whether culture influence the relationship between transformational leadership and job characteristics differs by culture. Based on past research demonstrating differences in the influence of transformational leadership on follower outcomes, it is possible that transformational leaders emphasize job characteristics that are not motivating to the followers. This is consistent with the social intelligence perspective of transformational leadership. Social intelligence is the ability to understand and manage people (Thorndike, 1920). The social intelligence perspective will be supported if the relationship between transformational

leadership and job characteristics differs by culture, such that followers of transformational leaders perceive their jobs to be enriched on characteristics of the job that are important to them. It is also possible that the relationship between characteristics and job satisfaction will depend on national culture. Specifically, given difference in values across cultures, it is possible that cultures will differ in the job characteristics that are satisfying, and transformational leaders emphasize the characteristics that are most satisfying. If this is the case, mediated moderation will manifest, where job characteristics mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower satisfaction.

Cultural differences are proposed to reflect differences in shared values, with values defined as a tendency to prefer certain states over others (Hofstede, 1998; Schwartz, 1994; House et al, 1997). Consistent with recent research by Brock, Shenkar, Shoham, and Siscovick (2008), Vaara, Sarala, Stahl, and Bjorkman (2012) and Vecchi and Brennan (2011), we adopt multiple approaches to generate culture scores. Specifically, we use both Hofstede's (1980, 2001) proposed four cultural dimensions: *power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism,* and *masculinity* and their associated means scores (Sivakumar & Nakata, 2001; Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006; McSweeny, 2002; Schwartz, 1994; Smith, 2002). We also utilize the same cultural dimensions and their associated mean scores from the Globe study (House et al, 2004).

Consistent with Dickinson's (2003) suggestion and a recent comprehensive review (Jackson et al, 2013), we focus on theoretically relevant cultural dimensions. Thus, we focus on power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity and collectivism because these cultural differences have the strongest a priori links with transformational leadership. Hofstede and GLOBE values for each of the twenty-seven countries included in this study are reported in Table 1 and Table 2.

Power distance. The cultural value for power distance is proposed to moderate not only the relationship between transformational leadership and job characteristics, but also the relationship between job characteristics and follower satisfaction. Power distance is *the "extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally"* (Hofstede, 1993, p. 28). Status and power are fundamental to the concept of leadership (Barnard, 1938; Hollander, 2008; Yukl, 2009). Organizations in high power distance societies typically have more hierarchical levels and a more formal chain of command (Hofstede, 1980). In terms of preferences for leader styles, research shows that subordinates in high power distance countries are more reluctant to challenge their managers and prefer managers who provide concrete direction (Adsit, London, Crom, & Jones, 1997). Similarly, followers from high power distance cultures want and expect more guidance from their leaders (Dickson et al, 2003) and value autonomy (Taras et al, 2010) relative to those from low power distance cultures. In terms of mean levels of leader behavior, leaders in high power distance countries use more formal rules and procedures in handling day-to-day events and report less reliance on their subordinates (Smith, Peterson, Schwartz, Ahmad, Akande, & Anderson, 2002; Smith, Peterson, & Misumi, 1994) and provide more leadership support (Shane, Vankataraman, & MacMillan, 1995).

In other words, the average employee in high power distance societies prefer jobs typified by high levels of structure and clearly defined roles and thus, autonomy is proposed to be less desired by and satisfying to followers in high power distance relative to low power distance societies. Similarly, recognizing follower value for autonomy, transformational leaders in lower power distance societies are proposed to fill the desire for autonomy by enhancing follower

perceptions of autonomy. Thus, transformational leadership is proposed to be more strongly associated with autonomy in low relative to high power distance cultures.

In light of proposed differences in value for autonomy in high relative to low power distance cultures, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3a: Power distance will moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower perceptions of autonomy, such that transformational leadership will be more strongly related to follower perceptions of autonomy in low power distance cultures.

Hypothesis 3b: Power distance will moderate the relationship between follower perceptions of autonomy and follower satisfaction, such that in low power distance societies, autonomy will be more strongly related follower satisfaction.

Uncertainty avoidance. The cultural value for uncertainty avoidance is proposed to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and job characteristics, and also the relationship between job characteristics and follower satisfaction. Uncertainty avoidance refers to the degree to which a society feels uncomfortable with ambiguous and uncertain situations and tries to avoid them (Hofstede, 1980, 2001) and describes a society's reliance on social norms and procedures to reduce the unpredictability of the future. In societies high in uncertainty avoidance, individuals tend to value greater career stability, more formal rules, and reject deviant ideas and behaviors. Employees in high uncertainty avoidance cultures prefer career stability and formal rules (Stewart, Barsoux, Kieser, Ganter, & Walgenbach, 1994). Leaders in high uncertainty avoidance cultures tend to be more controlling and less approachable (Offermann & Hallmann, 1997).

The value for skill variety and autonomy are proposed to differ by culture. Although skill variety and autonomy are often viewed as factors that enrich jobs, both are also associated with increased role ambiguity. That is, when employees are required to use a varied skill set and have more voice in how their work is done, their work roles are more ambiguous. Given that those in low uncertainty avoidance cultures tend to dislike role ambiguity, whereas high uncertainty avoidance cultures tend to embrace ambiguity, transformational leaders will fill the cultural desire for variety or autonomy. Thus, when uncertainty avoidance is low, employees are proposed to place a particular value on skill variety and autonomy and will be more satisfied when skill variety and autonomy are present in their work. Alternatively, in high uncertainty avoidance societies, autonomy and skill variety will be less satisfying to followers; instead, followers will prefer more structure, rules, plans, details, and consistency and thus, transformational leaders will likely to provide these job characteristics.

In light of proposed differences in value for autonomy and skill variety in high relative to low uncertainty avoidance cultures, we hypothesize that:

> *Hypothesis 4a: Uncertainty avoidance will moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower perceptions of autonomy and variety, such that transformational leadership will be more strongly related to perceptions of skill variety and autonomy in low uncertainty avoidant cultures.*

> *Hypothesis 4b: Uncertainty avoidance will moderate the relationship between follower perceptions of autonomy and variety and follower satisfaction, such that in low uncertainty avoidance cultures, autonomy and variety will be more strongly related to employee satisfaction.*

Individualism. The cultural value for individualism is proposed to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and job characteristics, and also the relationship between job characteristics and follower satisfaction. Individualism, a pole of the individualism – collectivism continuum, describes cultures that value a loose social framework with weak cohesion between individuals in which individuals are expected to care for themselves (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). Individualism is also associated with competitiveness, desire for extrinsic rewards, and career focus (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). Conversely, in collectivistic societies there are stronger ties between individuals, where group members protect and care for each other (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). Members of collectivist cultures tend to a form a stronger attachment to their organization and other group members and are willing to forgo their individual goals for those of the group and their leaders (Earley, 1989). In collectivist cultures, leaders tend to build more group cohesion, show consideration behaviors for their followers, and stress the importance of the group (Hofstede, 1980).

The value for interdependence is proposed to differ based on culture. In collective societies, leaders that facilitate a sense of collective will be particularly motivating for followers. Those from collectivistic cultures have self-concepts which are typified by interconnection or interdependence with others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Conversely, those in individualistic societies view themselves as unique, less integrated with society, contrast themselves from the larger society, and are less dependent on others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Additionally, individualistic societies stress the importance and primacy of individual goals and needs, while collectivistic cultures are more motivated by what is best for the larger team or group (Earley, 1989; Trinandis, 1995). Thus, the development and goals of the individual employee are

important in individualistic societies, while the needs of the individual are not the utmost priority in collectivistic cultures.

In other words, the average employee in highly individualistic societies prefers jobs typified by high levels of development and independence and thus, development is proposed to be more satisfying and interdependence less satisfying in individualistic societies as compared to collectivistic societies. Similarly, recognizing follower value for interdependence and needing less focus on individualized development, transformational leaders in collectivistic societies are proposed to fill these desires by enhancing follower perceptions of interdependence, but not development. Thus, transformational leadership is proposed to be less associated with interdependence and more related to development in individualistic societies as compared to collectivistic societies.

In light of proposed differences in value for interdependence and development in individualistic verses collectivistic cultures, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 5a: Individualism will moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower perceptions of interdependence and development, such that in individualistic cultures, transformational leadership will be more strongly related to perceptions of development and decreased interdependence in individualistic cultures.

Hypothesis 5b: Individualism will moderate the relationship between follower perceptions of interdependence and development and follower satisfaction, such that in individualistic cultures, development and decreased interdependence will be more strongly related to satisfaction.

Masculinity. Finally, masculinity is proposed to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and job characteristics as well as the relationship between job

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characteristics and follower satisfaction on the basis of cultural differences in the value for interdependence. Masculinity represents a preference in a society for achievement, heroism, assertiveness, and material reward for success (Hofstede, 1980, 2001).

The value for interdependence is again proposed to differ based on culture. In more masculine societies, individuals are more competitive and less cooperative, modest, and caring. Employees tend to value achievement and a direct style of management (Triandis, 1994). Leaders in these societies reward individuals for their personal achievement and focus more on the individual than the group. Conversely in feminine cultures, equality, teamwork, and collaboration are valued (Emrich, Denmark, & Den Harton, 2004), all of which are key components of interdependence. The masculine/feminine cultural value is proposed to influence the relationship between leader behaviors and two of the job characteristics: interdependence and significance.

In other words, the average employee in masculine societies prefers jobs typified by low levels of interdependence and thus, interdependence is proposed to be less satisfying to followers in masculine countries as compared to feminine societies. Similarly, understanding follower value for interdependence, transformational leaders in feminine societies are proposed to fill these desires by enhancing follower perceptions of interdependence. Thus, transformational leadership is proposed to be less associated with interdependence in masculine societies as compared to feminine societies.

In light of proposed differences in value for interdependence in masculine versus feminine cultures, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 6a: Masculinity will moderate the relationship between transformational

leadership and follower perceptions of interdependence, such that in masculine cultures,

transformational leadership will be less related to perceptions of interdependence and more strongly related to perceptions of significance in masculine cultures.

Hypothesis 6b: Masculinity will moderate the relationship between follower perceptions of interdependence and follower satisfaction, such that in masculine cultures, decreased interdependence and increased significance will be more strongly related to satisfaction.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

The Present Study

The sample was collected via the WorkTrends™ survey, an employee opinion survey that has been administered annually or biannually since 1985 via written or online mediums. When WorkTrends™ has been administered online, the survey vendor has both built and maintained the data collection process online. Organizations included in the survey process included more than sixty multi-national organizations from more than twenty-five countries. Additional demographics gathered during the survey process include: gender, age, tenure, and ethnicity (in the United States and Canada).

Measures

Transformational leadership. The scale included three items which are consistent with the charisma component of many transformational leadership scales. Using a 6-point Likert scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree, 6=I don't know), respondents indicated the extent to which they agreed with statements concerning their leader.

Job characteristics. We used items adapted by the consulting organization to measure job characteristics including *skill variety, task significance, autonomy, interdependence,* and *development.* A full list of the items used can be seen in Table 2. The items utilized in the WorkTrends™ survey are conceptually similar to the constructs defined by Hackman and Oldham (1975). For example, the questions that comprise the *autonomy* scale assess the

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authority of the employee and the freedom to make decisions, both of which are key facets of

Hackman and Oldham's autonomy construct. Participants were asked to indicate on a 6-point

Likert scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4= Agree, 5=

Strongly Agree, 6=I don't know) the agreement with statements regarding the five job

characteristics. The items and scales are presented in Table 2.

Job Satisfaction. To assess employee attitudes, employees responded to four items

assessing job satisfaction. Although this scale was developed for the purpose of the

WorkTrends™ study, it was again compared to commonly accepted scales that represent the

three attitudinal constructs. Additionally, confirmatory analyses will be completed to ensure that

each of the scales loaded onto the defined constructs of interest. Employee participants were

asked to indicate on a 6-point Likert scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neither Agree

nor Disagree, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree, 6=I don't know) the agreement with statements

regarding the five job characteristics.

Culture. Hofstede (1980) and GLOBE (2004) cultural dimensions were assigned to each

participant to align with their country of origin. For example, a participant from the United States

would have scores for culture that are identical to the country's scores: power distance equal to

40, individualism equal to 91, masculinity equal to 62, uncertainty avoidance equal to 46, and

long-term orientation equal to 29.

Analyses

Prior to testing the hypothesized model, we categorized each of the twenty-five countries

into low and high categories for each of the cultural dimensions. Consistent with Hofstede

(2001), we utilized a median level split to separate the cultural values into low and high

groupings. The assigned values can be seen in Table 2. To further investigate the influences of

the cultural dimensions, we categorized the countries into groups based on the low or high values

on the cultural categories (Hofstede and GLOBE): those who are categorized high on both,

categorized low on both, or categorized high on one and low on the other. For example, the

United States rates highly on both the Hofstede and GLOBE values for individualism, while

Russia has lower ratings and Brazil has one low value and one high value on the same cultural

value. These countries are categorized into a different group based on their Hofstede and

GLOBE cultural values (Table 1).

Next, to be able to make meaningful inferences on the influence of culture on the

proposed relationships, it is crucial to first demonstrate the measurement invariance of each of

the scales included in the model. Using the steps outlined by Vandenberg and Lance (2000), we

conducted measurement invariance analyses, with country clusters serving as a group.

Measurement invariance analyses were completed testing configural, metric, and scalar

invariance for each of the cultural dimensions as Vandenberg and Lance (2000) assert that at

least partial scalar invariance must be demonstrated before meaningful comparisons can be made

between groups.

These nested analyses provide evidence of whether respondents across different countries

are interpreting items in a consistent way. With nested models, it is common to assess the χ^2 test.

Although this test is useful, the statistic is greatly influenced by sample size. As a result, small

differences between models are significant with large sample sizes, such as the one in this study.

Accordingly, in addition to the χ^2 test, we will examine other fit indices, including the

comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), nonnormed fit index (NNFI; Bentler & Bonnett,

1980), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI; Tucker & Lewis, 1973), the root mean square error of

approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR;

Bentler, 1995). It is generally accepted that CFI and TLI values greater than .90 indicate adequate fit, while values at or above .95 indicate good fit. RMSEA values less than .08 and SRMR values less than .10 indicate adequate fit, while RMSEA values lower than .06 and SRMR values less than .08 indicate good fit (e.g. Hu & Bentler, 1999; Lance & Vandenberg, 2002).

Measurement invariance is a critical assumption in cross-cultural comparative research, as the influence of language and culture can significantly affect the interpretation of a measurement scale. One common method to complete measurement invariance in cross cultural research is to cluster the cultural groups in a meaningful way (Byrne & van de Vijver, 2010). Doing so helps to remove the areas where the factor structure of the measurement instruments may be different. Although this limits the ability to complete comparisons across all countries involved in the analysis, it allows for comparisons within the high and low cultural clusters.

With measurement invariance confirmed with the use of cultural clusters, we then tested the full structural model for each of the cultural categories, comparing low and high (e.g. low vs. high values for power distance). For each of the comparisons, we used a multigroup confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and placed equality constraints on the set of hypothesized moderation relationships. For example, if transformational leadership is expected to be more strongly related to autonomy and skill variety in high power distance societies relative to low power distance societies, we placed equality constraints on the correlation between transformational leadership and autonomy and skill variety in the high and low power distance samples. We repeated this process for the other cultural dimensions and hypothesized relationships. For each cultural variable, we compared the χ^2 and ΔCFI to determine if the underlying model differs across the cultural dimension (low vs. high values). If differences were

found, the paths in the model were freed to determine which path(s) were responsible for the

difference.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Prior to examining the hypothesized relationships, analyses were completed to test the

factor structure of the items included in the study. Results from the confirmatory factor analysis

reveal that items load on the expected factors and the measurement model as a whole has

reasonable fit (Table 4). An alternative model in which each of the job characteristics was

specified to load on a single factor was also tested; however, this model yielded a significant

decrement in model fit ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 1,740.07, Δdf = 30, p<.05) relative to the baseline model which

supports the discriminant validity of the work characteristic variables. Sample correlation matrix

and reliability estimates can be seen in Table 5.

Baseline Model

Transformational leadership and follower satisfaction. A structural equation model

was specified using the entire sample to test the overarching relationship between

transformational leadership and follower satisfaction. Consistent with previous research (Avolio,

et al, 2004; Koh, et al, 1995; Jung, et al, 2000), transformational leadership was significantly

related to follower job satisfaction (β = .52). Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported, transformational

leadership is positively related to follower satisfaction.

The influence of job characteristics. An analysis was next completed using the entire

sample to test the influence of job characteristics on the relationship between transformational

leadership and follower satisfaction. Results indicate reasonable fit (Table 4), but further

analyses were completed to understand transformational leadership's direct and indirect effects on follower satisfaction. Results (Table 6) indicate a significant indirect effect between transformational leadership to follower satisfaction through job characteristics (β = .46, p<.05). Having supported the baseline model, we next turned our attention to differences in this model across cultures.

Analysis of Measurement Invariance

Prior to analyzing the proposed model, an analysis of measurement invariance was completed in order to ensure that the specified scales were equivalent across samples with high and low levels of each cultural value. Consistent with the recommendations of Vandenberg and Lance (2000), multigroup analyses were completed testing configural, metric, and scalar invariance for each of the cultural dimensions by comparing subsamples with high and low values for each cultural dimension.

The baseline model utilized to evaluate measurement invariance included all items and constructs of interest in the study. In testing for configural invariance, an unrestricted baseline model was specified for each group with identical patterns of factor loadings, but parameter estimates were allowed to vary between groups to determine if the observed measures represent the same constructs across groups. To test for metric invariance, factor loadings were constrained to be equivalent across groups to determine if the groups responded to the items on the same scale. Finally, to test for scalar invariance, item intercepts were constrained to be equivalent. Scalar invariance indicates that individuals who have the same latent construct score would obtain the same observed score despite their group membership. Supporting scalar invariance is necessary to complete meaningful mean comparisons (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; De

Beuckelaer, 2005; Harkness, van de Vijver, & Mohler, 2003; Hui & Triandis, 1985; Meredith, 1993; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000).

Results from the analysis reveal that measurement invariance held across all groups for both the GLOBE cultural dimensions and the Hofstede cultural dimensions, with the exception of uncertainty avoidance under the GLOBE dimensions (Table 8). As scalar invariance was not confirmed for the GLOBE dimension of uncertainty avoidance, we refined these analyses to test for partial invariance by including constraints only on constructs that were hypothesized to differ depending on level of uncertainty avoidance (autonomy and variety) and removing constraints on constructs that were not hypothesized to differ. Scalar invariance was supported in this subset of items for the uncertainty avoidance GLOBE cultural dimension and thus, analyses proceeded on this dimension.

Evaluation of Culture in the Explanatory Model

Culture as a moderator of the transformational leadership – follower satisfaction relationship. Having supported measurement invariance across cultures, we next examined whether the relationship between transformational leadership and satisfaction differed between subsamples with high and low values for each of the cultural dimensions. To do so a multigroup equivalence analysis was completed for each of the Hofstede and GLOBE cultural dimensions, with the first group including participants from cultures with higher levels of each cultural dimensions and the second group including participants form cultures with low levels on each cultural dimensions. To complete these analyses, a model was specified for each cultural dimension which allowed the relationship between transformational leadership and follower satisfaction to be freely estimated. A second model was also specified to equate the relationship

between transformational leadership and follower satisfaction for the low and high groupings of each cultural dimension.

Hofstede. Results from the analysis of the moderating effect of culture on the transformational leadership – follower satisfaction relationship (Tables 9 and 10) were mixed in regards to the Hofstede dimensions. The uncertainty avoidance and individualism dimensions as defined by Hofstede did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower satisfaction, while the power distance and masculinity dimensions did impact the relationship. Specifically, transformational leadership was slightly more strongly related to job satisfaction in low power distance cultures ($\beta = .38$) as compared to high power distance cultures ($\beta = .34$; $\Delta \chi^2 = 3.99$, Δ df=1, p <.05), however, this difference is small in magnitude and thus, might not be practically significant. Finally, transformational leadership was slightly more strongly related to follower satisfaction in low masculinity cultures ($\beta = .41$) as compared to cultures with high levels of masculinity ($\beta = .33$; $\Delta \chi^2 = 37.02$, Δ df=1, p <.05). Together, these findings provide mixed support for Hypothesis 2 based on the Hofstede dimensions.

GLOBE. For the Globe dimensions (see Tables 9 and 10), the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction differed significantly across cultures with high relative to low levels of uncertainty avoidance, power distance, and individualism, with the constrained models showing a significant decrement in fit. Specifically, transformational leadership was slightly more strongly related to job satisfaction in cultures with low uncertainty avoidance ($\beta = .39$) as compared to cultures typified by high levels of uncertainty avoidance ($\beta = .35$, $\Delta \chi^2 = 7.90$, Δ df = 1, p < .05). Similarly, transformational leadership was also slightly more strongly related to satisfaction in cultures with low levels of individualism ($\beta = .39$) as compared to cultures with high levels of individualism ($\beta = .34$, $\Delta \chi^2 = 19.93$, Δ df=1, p < .05). For power

distance, transformational leadership was slightly more strongly related to job satisfaction in low power distance cultures ($\beta = .38$) as compared to high power distance cultures ($\beta = .34$; $\Delta \chi^2 = 4.59$, $\Delta df=1$, $p < .05$). However, despite evidence of significant differences in the relationship between transformational leadership and satisfaction across cultures, it is important to note that the magnitude of the differences was relatively small for each set of comparisons, as the difference in path weights for 5 of the 7 comparisons was less than .05. In fact, only the different in path weigh between transformational leadership and satisfaction in high relative to low masculinity cultures exceeded .05. Together although many of the differences were significant, given the small magnitude of the differences, Hypothesis 2 received limited support.

Cultural dimensions as a moderator in the explanatory model. Next, we examined whether the relationship between transformational leadership and job characteristics and between job characteristics and follower job satisfaction differed by culture. With multigroup equivalence supported we were able to examine the model which included paths from transformational leadership to job characteristics and from job characteristics to satisfaction. A constrained model was specified that equated the relationship between transformational leadership and the job characteristics that were hypothesized to have differential relationships depending on each cultural dimensions. This model also constrained the relationship between job characteristics and follower satisfaction for those job characteristics that were hypothesized to have different relationships with job satisfaction depending on each culture. A second model was also specified for each of the cultural dimensions, allowing the relationship between transformational leadership and job characteristics and job characteristics and follower satisfaction to be freely estimated across the low and high cultural groupings.

Hofstede. The results for comparisons between the constrained and unconstrained models are presented in Table 11. We examined whether power distance moderates the relationship transformational leadership and job characteristics and job characteristics and follower satisfaction. Results indicated that the constrained model showed significant decrement in fit (Δ χ^2 =5.41, Δ df=2, p < .05), suggesting that the cultural dimension for power distance affects the relationship. Specifically in examining the path estimates, for high and low power distance cultures, the path between transformational leadership and autonomy did not differ significantly based on culture, which does not support Hypothesis 3a. Conversely, in low power distance societies perceptions of autonomy were more strongly related to follower satisfaction (β = .55) than high power distance societies (β = .50). Although the difference as small, these results provide some support for Hypothesis 3b for Hofstede's power distance dimension.

We next examined whether uncertainty avoidance moderates either step of the process model. Results showed that the constrained model did not differ significantly from the unconstrained model (Δ χ^2 =2.06, Δdf=4), suggesting that uncertainty avoidance did not moderate the transformational leadership – job characteristics relationship or the job characteristics – follower satisfaction relationship. Thus, Hypothesis 4a and 4b for Hofstede's conceptualization of uncertainty avoidance were rejected.

The effects of individualism on the specified relationship were next examined. The results from unconstrained model revealed no significant differences (Δ χ^2 =2.08, Δdf=4) between the low and high cultural groupings. Thus, individualism did not moderate the transformational leadership – job characteristics relationship or the job characteristics – follower satisfaction relationship. Accordingly, Hypothesis 5a and 5b were rejected for Hofstede's conceptualization of individualism.

Finally the effect of Hofstede's masculinity dimension on the relationship between both

the transformational leadership – job characteristics relationship and the job characteristics –

follower satisfaction relationship was examined. Results indicated that the constrained model

showed significantly worse fit ($\Delta \chi^2$=61.99, Δdf=4, p < .05), suggesting that some relationships

differ depending on whether the culture is high or low on masculinity. Specifically, the results

indicate that transformational leadership with slightly more strongly associated with perceptions

of interdependence in more feminine (β=.32) relative to more masculine cultures (β=.26).

Similarly, masculinity also moderated the relationship between perceptions of interdependence

and satisfaction, such that interdependence is more strongly related to satisfaction in more

feminine cultures (β=.12), as compared to more masculine cultures (β=.06). Conversely,

masculinity did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and

perceptions of significance nor the relationship between perceptions of significance and follower

satisfaction as the path values for the low and high cultural groups did not differ significantly.

Thus, Hypothesis 6a and 6b were supported with respect to the explanatory role of perceptions of

interdependence but not with respect to the explanatory role of perceptions of significance.

GLOBE. Multigroup analyses were completed for each of the three GLOBE cultural

dimensions (Tables 11 and 12). We first examined whether power distance moderated the

relationship transformational leadership and job characteristics and job characteristics and

follower satisfaction. Results indicated that the constrained model showed a significant

decrement in fit ($\Delta \chi^2$=11.50, Δdf = 2, p < .05), suggesting that power distance impacts the

relationship between transformational leadership and job characteristics and job characteristics

and satisfaction. Specifically, the relationship between transformational leadership and

perceptions of autonomy in low power distance cultures (β = .36) was slightly stronger than the

same relationship in high power distance cultures (β = .32), but not significant. Conversely, GLOBE's conceptualization of power distance did not impact the relationship between perceptions of autonomy and follower satisfaction when comparing the low and high cultural groupings. Thus for GLOBE's definition of power distance, analyses provided modest support for Hypothesis 3a while Hypothesis 3b was not supported.

We next examined whether uncertainty avoidance moderates the relationship transformational leadership and job characteristics and job characteristics and follower satisfaction. Results indicated that the model which constrained the hypothesized relationships fit the data significantly worse than the unconstrained model ($\Delta \chi^2$ =17.64, Δdf=4, $p < .05$), suggesting differences in observed relationships depending on whether the culture is high or low on uncertainty avoidance. For high and low uncertainty avoidance cultures, the transformational leadership – autonomy and transformational leadership – variety relationships did not differ based on culture. Thus, Hypothesis 4a was not supported. Additionally, the relationship between autonomy and follower satisfaction did not significantly differ based on low and high levels of uncertainty avoidance. Conversely, in cultures with low levels of uncertainty avoidance, perceptions of variety were significantly more strongly related to follower satisfaction (β = .67) than high uncertainty avoidance societies (β = .59). Thus Hypothesis 4b was partially supported for GLOBE's uncertainty avoidance dimension.

Finally, the impact of GLOBE's conceptualization of individualism on the proposed model was examined. Results indicate that the constrained model showed significant decrement in fit ($\Delta \chi^2$ =11.50, Δdf=4, $p < .05$), suggesting that some relationships differ depending on whether the cultures is high or low on individualism. Specifically, for high and low individualism cultures, the transformational leadership – interdependence and transformational

leadership – development relationships did not differ based on culture, which does not support Hypothesis 4a. Similarly, the relationship between development and follower satisfaction did not differ based on cultural groupings for low and high levels of individualism. On the other hand, in cultures with low levels of individualism, perceptions of interdependence were significantly more strongly related to follower satisfaction ($\beta = .19$) than high individualism societies ($\beta = .14$). Thus Hypothesis 4b was partially supported for GLOBE's individualism dimension.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

Substantial research has examined whether transformational leadership has a different

influence on outcomes, such as satisfaction, across cultures (Casimir et al, 2006; Dorfman et al,

1997; Pillai et al, 2009; Walumbwa et al, 2005). This study extends cross-cultural leadership

research by testing whether a process model of the influence of transformational leadership on

follower satisfaction differs across cultures. Specifically, we examined whether perceptions of

job characteristics, motivational mechanisms that have been shown to account for the

transformational leadership – outcome relationship (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006), differ depending

on cultural values. The results suggest that, with a few exceptions, the relationship between

transformational leadership and perceptions of job characteristics and between perceptions of job

characteristics and satisfaction remain the same across cultures. In other words, not only are

transformational leaders similarly effective in enhancing levels of follower satisfaction across

situations, transformational leaders use similar motivational levers across cultures. Likewise,

across different cultures, job characteristics have a similar association with job satisfaction.

Together, this general trend supports functional universal models of cross-cultural leadership.

Main Findings

The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of transformational leadership on

satisfaction across culture. Analyses first revealed that transformational leadership was in fact

related to satisfaction across culture and the functional universality (Lonner, 1980) of

transformational leadership was supported. Consistent with previous research (Den Hartog et al,

1999; Dorfman et al, 1997; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004), transformation leadership was shown to universally influence follower satisfaction. This study extends past research by documenting these effects with a larger number of countries and a larger sample size than past studies. As noted above transformational leadership showed similar relationships to job satisfaction across high and low levels of some conceptualizations of uncertainty avoidance and individualism.

To examine culture's impact on hypothesized model, GLOBE and Hofstede cultural dimensions were utilized. The GLOBE dimension for individualism was found to moderate the transformational leadership – follower satisfaction relationship where transformational leadership was significantly more strongly related to satisfaction in highly individualistic societies ($\beta = .39$) as compared to more collectivist societies ($\beta = .34$). The Hofstede dimension for power distance also impacted this relationship where transformational leadership was significantly more strongly related to satisfaction in low power distance societies ($\beta = .38$) as compared to high power distance societies ($\beta = .33$). These results are consistent with some of the findings found in a comprehensive meta-analysis completed by Jackson et al. (2013), which found that both the Hofstede and GLOBE individualism dimensions significantly moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and follower outcomes in the present study. Conversely, the meta-analysis by Jackson et al. (2013) did not find support for the moderating influence of the Hofstede and GLOBE conceptualizations for power distance on the relationship between transformational leadership and follower outcomes.

Next, the role of culture in the relationship between transformational leadership and perceptions of job characteristics was examined. We hypothesized that transformational leaders would influence perceptions of job characteristics that are most aligned to the country's cultural values. Overall, with the exception of Hofstede's conceptualization of masculinity, culture had

very little impact on the relationship between transformational leadership and follower perceptions of job characteristics. Although there were significant differences in some of the paths across culture, the majority of the differences were quite small and likely not practically significant. The failure to support differences in how transformational leaders motivate followers across cultures indicates that not only does transformational leadership have similar outcome relationships across cultures but also that the process used to motivate followers may actually be the same.

This extends past work by examining the relationship between transformational leadership and specific job characteristics and a broader range of job characteristics than has been examined in past studies and whereas most studies have examined overall job characteristics, this study examined different types of job characteristics (e.g. Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006. Interestingly, across cultures, transformational leadership was particularly strongly associated with follower perceptions of development and autonomy but less strongly associated with follower perceptions of variety. These relationships in particular make sense considering Bass's (1985, 1990) characteristics of a transformational leader. These leaders are ones that focus on the individual to provide the appropriate learning and development opportunities, while also allowing the employees the freedom to question assumptions and the independence to try new things. These characteristics align closely with both development and autonomy. It also provides some evidence to support the notion that transformational leaders can more effectively influence their followers by focusing their efforts on particular job characteristics.

The largest effects were seen in the influence of Hofstede's conceptualization of masculinity. In fact, his conceptualization of masculinity moderated the relationships between

transformational leadership – interdependence– follower satisfaction. Transformational leaders was more strongly related to interdependence in more feminine cultures and perceptions of interdependence are more satisfying to employees in more feminine cultures.

Researchers have examined the relationship between transformational leadership and gender (Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Rosener, 1990; Ross & Offermann, 1997). Many of these researchers cite strong relationships between gender and transformational leadership due to the relational nature of both constructs. Transformational leaders are slightly more satisfying in more feminine cultures and they utilize different motivating mechanisms by focusing on collectivity. Leaders can utilize this information to support the societal preferences of their subordinates in highly masculine countries by rewarding individuals for their personal achievements, while those in feminine cultures should focus more on the team and group achievements.

The role of culture was also examined in the relationship between perceptions of job characteristics and follower satisfaction. We hypothesized that job characteristics that were expected to be of value in a given culture would be more strongly related to indicators of follower satisfaction in that culture. Generally, results indicate that culture had minimal impact on the relationship between perceptions of job characteristics and follower satisfaction. This was surprising, given that culture is proposed to play a central role in worker values, expectations, and motivations. However, our results support that, for the most part, the job characteristics examined here were similarly satisfying across cultures.

Few exceptions to the lack of influence of culture are seen via Hofstede's cultural dimensions for masculinity and power distance as well as GLOBE's cultural dimension for individualism and uncertainty avoidance. Followers in cultures characterized by high levels of

masculinity were less satisfied with interdependence than cultures that are highly feminine. This is consistent with the ideal that feminine cultures value equality, teamwork, and collaboration much more than their masculine counterparts (Emrich et al, 2004). Additionally, followers in cultures characterized by high levels of individualism were also less satisfied with interdependence than collectivist cultures. This is consistent with the idea that those from individualistic societies view themselves as more independent from others in society (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Together these two findings support the notion that leaders should try to ensure that followers in masculine and individualistic cultures feel heighted levels of independence and are rewarded for their individual achievements, while those in feminine cultures are allowed to work as a team or collaborate with their peers.

Hofstede's dimension for power distance also affected the relationship between job characteristics and follower satisfaction. Specifically, autonomy is more strongly related to satisfaction in lower power distance societies. This is consistent with the idea that those from high power distance cultures want more guidance from their leaders (Dickson et al, 2003) and value autonomy as compared to their low power distance counterparts. This finding supports the idea that leaders should attempt to ensure that followers in high power distance societies receive the guidance and support they need while followers in low power distance societies are allowed the autonomy needed to feel satisfied.

GLOBE's dimension for uncertainty avoidance also affected the relationship between job characteristics and follower satisfaction. Specifically, skill variety is more strongly related to satisfaction in low uncertainty avoidance societies. This is consistent with the idea that those from cultures characterized by high level of uncertainty avoidance value formal rules and

consistency, while their low uncertainty avoidance counterparts are more comfortable with ambiguity (Stewart, et al., 1994).

Hofstede vs. GLOBE Cultural Dimensions. Although not the focus of the study, a comparison of the Hofstede and GLOBE cultural dimensions is inevitable given the inclusion of both cultural models. By in large, one conceptualization of culture did not impact the hypothesized relationships greater than the other. Hofstede's power distance dimension significantly impacted the relationship between follower perceptions of autonomy and satisfaction, while masculinity impacted the relationship between transformational leadership and perceptions of interdependence and interdependence and follower satisfaction. Similarly, GLOBE's conceptualization of uncertainty avoidance impacted the relationship between variety and satisfaction, while the conceptualization of individualism impacted the relationship between interdependence and satisfaction. Overall, for the purpose of this study, it would be inappropriate to emphasize the merits of one cultural conceptualization over another due to the general lack of effects from either cultural model.

Implications and Directions for Future Research

The current study has several implications for both practitioners and scientists concerned with cross-cultural leadership. First, this study extends past cross-cultural leadership studies by testing a model of process difference in the leadership-outcome relationship across cultures. Overall, the mechanisms by which transformational leaders foster follower satisfaction did not differ based on broad cultural values and the work characteristics that are satisfying do not seem to differ by culture. This answers calls by Dickson et al. (2003) to examine theoretical models across culture in order to further cross-cultural research.

Next, this study provides valuable information regarding leadership development across culture. Although we posited that the satisfying mechanism for employees would differ across culture, results as a whole support the idea that societal culture has little impact on the transformational leadership – job characteristics and job characteristics – follower satisfaction relationships. Thus, transformational leadership appears to be a universal phenomenon and the motivating mechanisms these leaders use does not differ based on culture. Leaders should instead be taught to focus on other individual differences of the targeted employee rather than attempting to change their leadership behaviors by culture. Additionally, because transformational leadership seems to be slightly more effective at increasing satisfaction in some cultures as compared to others (e.g. low power distance, low masculinity) it could be beneficial for development practitioners in countries characterized by low levels of power distance and masculinity to focus on training surrounding transformational leadership.

This study also provides valuable information regarding job design, as some job characteristics (e.g. autonomy, interdependence) are more related to job satisfaction in some settings. Specifically, in cultures with high levels of either masculinity or individualism, interdependence is more strongly related to satisfaction. Similarly, autonomy is more strongly related to satisfaction in low power distance societies. Practitioners can utilize this information to ensure that a job is designed in a way that aligns with follower preferences in these societies.

In terms of future research, researchers should continue to determine what information transformational leaders use to frame job characteristics for employees; thus, further moderators should be identified. One possible area for future research is to utilize individual level cultural assessments rather than imposing country level cultural characteristics to the individual. This could provide a more precise understanding of what cultural values the individual espouses in

order to garner a better understand of how individual values affect the transformational leadership – job characteristics and job characteristics – satisfaction relationships. Another potential moderating variable that could be introduced to this relationship is organizational culture. In fact, Hofstede (1991) cites that organizational culture should be examined together with national culture as it strongly influences employees' behavior while at work.

Researchers should also continue to determine how transformational leaders influence their followers across cultures. Job characteristics have been identified as one sense-making mechanism that transformational leaders utilize to impact their followers, but many others could also impact the relationship. For example, willingness to trust (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990), personal identification with leader (Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003), and other mechanisms have been found to mediate relationship between transformational leadership and follower outcomes, but others that are culturally relevant could be identified.

Finally, future research could continue to understand and compare the applicability of the Hofstede and GLOBE cultural dimensions. In general, neither of the cultural paradigms influenced the model more significantly than the other. Future research should continue to understand how the cultural models should be utilized and if one should be applied over the other.

Limitations

This study is not without limitations. One of the key limitations of this study is the utilization of the Hofstede and GLOBE cultural dimensions rather than directly measuring national culture as a variable in the study. Although the cultural values developed by Hofstede and the GLOBE study are built upon a great deal of research, directly measuring culture would have ensured that the cultural values of the sample included in the study were accurately

considered rather than utilizing country values. Additionally, the cultural dimensions utilized in the study were originally conceptualized to be used at the country level, but the methodology of applying them to the individual is commonly used in cross cultural research. We acknowledge the ongoing debate regarding applying the country level values to the individual.

Another limitation of the present study is the focus on a single follower outcome. Although job satisfaction are useful proximal criteria in determining whether key aspects of the environment are effective across cultures, the examination could be expanded to include additional consequences of transformational leadership to enrich this body of leadership research.

Additionally, the survey utilized to collect the data also resulted in a single source of data: the follower. Ideally, more than one data source would have been used to lessen possible common source variance, but this was not possible due to the archival nature of the data.

Because the data utilized in the study was gathered via a large organizational development consulting form, many of the measures utilized to complete the analyses were developed solely for the purpose of this study and had not been previously validated. Additionally, in some cases, scales were comprised of only two items. However, this is a common issue in large-scale cross-cultural research due to survey length concerns (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa, et.al, 2005; Walumbwa, et.al, 2007.

Conclusion

The purpose of this research was to examine the influence of transformational leadership on satisfaction across culture. Using a sample composed of multi-national organizations from more than twenty-five countries, analyses were completed to understand the role that culture plays in the explanatory model, including the relationship between transformational leadership

and perceived job characteristics and the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction. Overall, it was found that culture has little effect on the sense-making framework, and thus culture should not be a significant focus when considering job enrichment. Not only is transformational leadership universally effective at predicting job satisfaction, but the strength of the relationship is similar across cultures and that with a few exceptions, the mechanisms that account for the association between transformational leadership and job satisfaction are similar across culture.

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Table 1. Cultural Dimension Values

Country	Sample Size	Power Distance		Uncertainty Avoidance		Individualism		Masculinity	
		Hofstede	GLOBE	Hofstede	GLOBE	Hofstede	GLOBE*	Hofstede	GLOBE
Argentina	974	49[a]	2.30[a]	86[b]	4.62[b]	46[b]	5.29[b]	56[b]	N/A
Australia	1,007	36[a]	2.77[b]	51[a]	3.99[a]	90[b]	4.47[a]	61[b]	N/A
Brazil	1,060	69[b]	2.59[a]	76[b]	5.00[b]	38[a]	5.57[b]	49[a]	N/A
Canada	1,018	39[a]	2.73[a]	48[b]	3.73[a]	80[a]	4.20[a]	52[b]	N/A
China	991	80[b]	3.01[b]	30[a]	5.34[b]	20[a]	4.52[b]	66[b]	N/A
Denmark	985	18[a]	2.96[b]	23[a]	4.01[a]	74[b]	4.41[a]	16[a]	N/A
Finland	989	33[a]	2.46[a]	59[a]	4.04[a]	63[b]	4.34[a]	26[a]	N/A
France	1,005	68[b]	2.96[b]	86[b]	4.65[b]	71[b]	5.27[b]	43[a]	N/A
Germany	993	35[a]	2.70[a]	65[a]	3.70[a]	67[b]	4.97[b]	66[b]	N/A
Hong Kong	66	68[b]	3.00[b]	29[a]	4.00[a]	25[a]	4.35[a]	57[b]	N/A
India	1,019	77[b]	2.58[a]	40[a]	4.58[b]	48[b]	4.59[b]	56[b]	N/A
Indonesia	300	78[b]	2.38[a]	48[a]	5.04[b]	14[a]	4.96[b]	46[a]	N/A
Italy	993	50[a]	2.51[a]	75[b]	4.52[a]	76[b]	5.20[b]	70[b]	N/A
Japan	994	54[a]	4.01[b]	92[b]	2.76[a]	46[b]	4.40[a]	95[b]	N/A
Korea	457	60[a]	4.74[b]	85[b]	2.39[a]	18[a]	3.84[a]	39[a]	N/A
Mexico	983	81[b]	2.75[b]	82[b]	5.18[b]	30[a]	4.77[b]	69[b]	N/A
Netherlands	961	38[a]	2.61[a]	53[a]	3.34[a]	80[b]	4.76[b]	14[a]	N/A
Qatar	100	80[b]	3.18[b]	68[a]	4.82[b]	38[a]	5.10[b]	52[b]	N/A
Russia	998	93[b]	2.73[a]	95[b]	5.26[b]	39[a]	4.01[a]	36[a]	N/A
Saudi Arabia	187	95[b]	N/A	80[b]	N/A	25[a]	N/A	60[b]	N/A
South Africa	826	49[a]	3.24[b]	49[a]	4.79[b]	65[b]	4.41[a]	63[b]	N/A
Spain	976	57[a]	2.23[a]	86[b]	4.80[b]	51[b]	5.25[b]	42[a]	N/A
Sweden	1,017	31[a]	2.49[a]	29[a]	3.45[a]	71[b]	3.91[a]	5[a]	N/A
Switzerland	1,014	34[a]	2.54[a]	58[a]	3.20[a]	68[b]	4.87[b]	70[b]	N/A
Turkey	941	66[b]	2.52[a]	85[b]	4.61[b]	37[a]	5.18[b]	45[a]	N/A
UAE	181	90[b]	3.47[b]	80[b]	5.17[b]	25[a]	4.30[a]	50[b]	N/A
UK	966	35[a]	2.82[b]	35[a]	4.17[a]	89[b]	4.39[a]	66[b]	N/A
US	9,788	40[a]	2.88[b]	46[a]	3.99[a]	91[b]	4.2[a]	62[b]	N/A
MEDIAN		62	2.73	70	4.52	44	4.52	49	

* GLOBE values denote assessment of collectivism. [a] Denotes a low cultural value. [b] Denotes a high cultural value.

Table 2. Survey Items

Transformational Leadership	Comparable Scale
My manager builds confidence in our team's future success.	**MLQ:** mobilizes a collective sense of mission
My manager unites us in pursuing exciting team goals.	**MLQ:** mobilizes a collective sense of mission

Skill Variety	Comparable Scale
In my job, I do a variety of different tasks every day.	**JDS:** To what extent does the job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents?
I usually find myself in difficult and challenging situations that require a lot of skill.	**JDS:** The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.

Significance	Comparable Scale
My job has a significant impact on the lives people outside the organization.	**JDS:** That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?
I understand how my work contributes to achieving my work team's goals.	**JDS:** Thai job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.

Autonomy	Comparable Scale
I am able to determine how much work I complete in a day.	**JDS:** The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.
I have the authority to decide what tasks I perform day to day.	**Opposite of JDS:** The job denies me any change to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work
I have the freedom to decide how to do my work.	**JDS:** To what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing the work?
I have the power to change work methods and processes if it will improve performance.	**JDS:** The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.

Interdependence	Comparable Scale
Our team relies heavily on other teams *within* our organization to get our work done.	**JDS:** The job requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.
Our team relies heavily on others *outside* our organization to get our work done.	**JDS:** The job requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.
Team members rely heavily on each other to do their respective jobs.	**JDS:** To what extent does your job require you to work closely with others?
We rely heavily on our team leader to get our work done.	**JDS:** The job requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.

Development	Comparable Scale
My organization provides me with the opportunity for growth and development.	**JDS:** Opportunities for personal growth and development in my job.
I am given a real opportunity to improve my skills in my organization.	**JDS:** Opportunities for personal growth and development in my job.
Job Satisfaction	**Comparable Scale**
I get excited about my work.	**JSS:** I like doing the things I do at work, My job is enjoyable.
I like the kind of work I do.	**JSS:** I like doing the things I do at work, My job is enjoyable.

Table 3. Cultural Dimension Definitions.

Cultural Dimension	Hofstede Definition	Globe Definition
Power distance	The degree to which the less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally.	The extent to which a community accepts and endorses authority, power differences, and status privileges.
Uncertainty avoidance	The degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity.	The extent to which a society, organization, or group relies on social norms, rules, and procedures to alleviate the unpredictability of future events.
Individualism	The societal preference for a loosely-knit social framework in which individuals are only expected to take care of themselves and their immediate families.	The degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.
Masculinity	The societal preference for achievement, heroism, assertiveness and material reward for success.	

Table 4. Baseline Analyses

Model	χ^2	df	n	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Confirmatory Analysis of All Study Variables	7,153.27	114	31,689	.04	.98	.98
Baseline Hypothesized Model with All Study Variables	10,261.78	125	31,689	.06	.97	.97
Baseline Hypothesized Model with All Study Variables (Combined into One Job Characteristics)	12,001.85	95	31,689	.08	.90	.90

Table 5. Correlations and Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables.

Scale	mean (sd)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.TRF	3.35 (1.07)	(.91)						
2. Autonomy	3.61 (.95)	.35*	(.86)					
3. Development	3.33 (.79)	.59*	.38*	(.87)				
4. Interdependence	3.81 (.79)	.34*	.20*	.32*	(.69)			
5. Significance	3.81 (.79)	.34*	.28*	.37*	.33*	(.46)		
6. Variety	3.81 (.83)	.18*	.27*	.24*	.24*	.42*	(.58)	
7. Satisfaction	3.56 (1.03)	.47*	.41*	.52*	.26*	.42*	.33*	(.92)

*Indicates a significant correlation (p<.05). Reliability coefficients are presented in the diagonal. N = 31,689.

Table 6. Job Characteristics as a Mediator of the Transformational Leadership – Satisfaction Relationship.

Model	χ^2	df	n	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Test for the Mediating Effect of Job Characteristics	6,508.27	94	31,689	.08	.93	.94

Table 7. Sample Sizes of Low and High Culture Groupings

Hofstede Cultural Dimensions	Low	High
Power Distance	23,958	7,731
Uncertainty Avoidance	19,908	11,781
Individualism	7,182	24,507
Masculinity	9,689	22,000
GLOBE Cultural Dimensions	Low	High
Power Distance	13,253	18,249
Uncertainty Avoidance	21,248	10,254
Individualism	19,292	12,210

Table 8. Analysis of measurement invariance for the Measurement Model.

Hofstede Cultural Dimensions

Power Distance	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Configural	3217.69*	166	.0488	.974	.982
Metric	3250.48*	188	.0457	.977	.982
Configural vs. Metric	$\Delta \chi^2 = 32.79$	Δ df=22			
Scalar	3272.29*	198	.0448	.978	.982
Metric vs. Scalar	$\Delta \chi^2 = 21.81$	Δ df=10			
Uncertainty Avoidance	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Configural	4305.15*	166	.0460	0.977	0.984
Metric	4306.27*	188	.0429	0.980	0.984
Configural vs. Metric	$\Delta \chi^2 = 1.12$	Δ df=22			
Scalar	4307.51*	198	.420	0.981	0.984
Metric vs. Scalar	$\Delta \chi^2 = 1.24$	Δ df=10			
Individualism	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Configural	2959.79*	166	.0484	.974	.982
Metric	2989.11*	188	.0453	.977	.982
Configural vs. Metric	$\Delta \chi^2 = 29.32$	Δ df=22			
Scalar	3003.48*	198	.0444	.978	.982
Metric vs. Scalar	$\Delta \chi^2 = 14.37$	Δ df=10			
Masculinity	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Configural	3905.44	166	.0482	.974	.982
Metric	3944.28	188	.0452	.977	.982
Configural vs. Metric	$\Delta \chi^2 = 38.84$	Δ df=22			
Scalar	3957.73	198	.0443	.978	.982
Metric vs. Scalar	$\Delta \chi^2 = 13.45$	Δ df=10			

GLOBE Cultural Dimensions

Power Distance	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Configural	5086.53*	166	.0473	.975	.983
Metric	5052.20*	188	.0442	.978	.983
Configural vs. Metric	$\Delta \chi^2 = 29.94$	Δ df=23			
Scalar	5052.20*	198	.0330	.990	.993
Metric vs. Scalar	$\Delta \chi^2 = 0$	Δ df=7			
Uncertainty Avoidance	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Configural	4039.88*	166	.0477	.975	.982
Metric	4065.79*	188	.0449	.978	.982
Configural vs. Metric	$\Delta \chi^2 = 25.91$	Δ df=22			
Scalar	4133.67*	198	.0440	.978	.982
Metric vs. Scalar	$\Delta \chi^2 = 6.39$	Δ df=7			
Individualism	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Configural	2959.79*	166	.0484	.974	.982
Metric	2989.11*	188	.0453	.977	.982
Configural vs. Metric	$\Delta \chi^2 = 29.32$	Δ df=22			
Scalar	3003.48*	198	.0444	.978	.982
Metric vs. Scalar	$\Delta \chi^2 = 14.37$	Δ df=10			

* Indicates a significant difference between the constrained and unconstrained model.

Table 9. Culture as a Moderator of the Transformational Leadership – Satisfaction Relationship.

Hofstede Cultural Dimensions					
Power Distance	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained Model	1.348	2	.0000	1.000	1.000
Constrained Model	5.338*	3	.0076	1.000	1.000
Difference	$\Delta \chi^2 = 3.99^*$	Δ df=1			
Uncertainty Avoidance	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained Model	.589	2	.0000	1.000	1.000
Constrained Model	.916	3	.0000	1.000	1.000
Difference	$\Delta \chi^2 = .33$	Δ df=1			
Individualism	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained Model	0.162	2	.0000	1.000	1.000
Constrained Model	0.212	3	.0000	1.000	1.000
Difference	$\Delta \chi^2 = 0.50$	Δ df=1			
Masculinity	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained Model	5.232	2	.0129	1.000	1.000
Constrained Model	37.014*	3	.0342	.999	1.000
Difference	$\Delta \chi^2 = 31.78^*$	Δ df=1			
GLOBE Cultural Dimensions					
Power Distance	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained Model	7.050*	2	.0138	.999	1.000
Constrained Model	11.635	3	.0147	1.000	1.000
Difference	$\Delta \chi^2 = 4.59^*$	Δ df=1			
Uncertainty Avoidance	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained Model	0.857	2	.0000	1.000	1.000
Constrained Model	8.756*	3	.0137	1.000	1.000
Difference	$\Delta \chi^2 = 7.90^*$	Δ df=1			
Individualism	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained Model	7.454*	2	.0149	.999	1.000
Constrained Model	27.383*	3	.0258	.999	.999
Difference	$\Delta \chi^2 = 19.93^*$	Δ df=1			

*Note: For all constrained models, the paths from transformational leadership to follower satisfaction were constrained to be equal across high values and low values of country culture. * Indicates a significant difference between the constrained and unconstrained model.

Table 10. Path Values and Sample Sizes from the Transformational Leadership – Satisfaction Relationship.

	Transformational Leadership – Satisfaction				Significant Difference?
Hofstede Cultural Dimensions					
Power Distance	Low		High		
Unconstrained Model	.38	23,958	.33	7,731	Yes
Constrained Model		. 37			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Low		High		
Unconstrained Model	.36	19,908	.35	11,781	No
Constrained Model		.36			
Individualism Model	Low		High		
Unconstrained Model	.36	7,182	.36	24,507	No
Constrained Model		.36			
Masculinity Model	Low		High		
Unconstrained Model	.41	9,689	.33	22,000	Yes
Constrained Model		.37			
Globe Cultural Dimensions					
Power Distance	Low		High		
Unconstrained Model	. 38	13,253	. 34	18,249	Yes
Constrained Model		. 36			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Low		High		
Unconstrained Model	.39	21,248	.35	10,254	Yes
Constrained Model		.37			
Individualism	Low		High		
Unconstrained Model	.34	19,292	.39	12,210	Yes
Constrained Model		.36			

Table 11. Culture in the Explanatory Model.

Hofstede Cultural Dimensions					
Power Distance	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained Model	1423.19	20	.095	.955	.970
Constrained Model	1428.60	22	.091	.996	.970
Difference	$\Delta \chi^2 = 5.41*$	Δ df=2			
Uncertainty Avoidance	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained Model	2928.00	40	.078	.954	.967
Constrained Model	2930.06	44	.075	.958	.967
Difference	$\Delta \chi^2 = 2.06$	Δ df=4			
Individualism	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained Model	2072.58	70	.061	.972	.978
Constrained Model	2074.66	74	.059	.974	.978
Difference	$\Delta \chi^2 = 2.08$	Δ df=4			
Masculinity	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained Model	3808.35	70	.074	.944	.957
Constrained Model	3870.34	74	.073	.947	.956
Difference	$\Delta \chi^2 = 61.99*$	Δ df=4			
GLOBE Cultural Dimensions					
Power Distance	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained Model	2423.80	20	.952	.955	.970
Constrained Model	2435.30	22	.091	.959	.970
Difference	$\Delta \chi^2 = 11.50*$	Δ df=2			
Uncertainty Avoidance	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained Model	2540.22	40	.078	.956	.968
Constrained Model	2557.86	44	.075	.959	.968
Difference	$\Delta \chi^2 = 17.64*$	Δ df=4			
Individualism	χ^2	df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained Model	3049.15	70	.059	.974	.979
Constrained Model	3060.65	74	.058	.975	.979
Difference	$\Delta \chi^2 = 11.50*$	Δ df=4			

Note: For all constrained models, the paths from transformational leadership to job characteristics and then job characteristics to follower satisfaction were constrained to be equal across high values and low values of country culture. * Indicates a significant difference between the constrained and unconstrained model.

Table 12. Path Values from Models with Differences between Constrained and Unconstrained Models

|	TRF - Variety	TRF - Significance	TRF - Interdepend	TRF - Autonomy	TRF - Development	Variety - Sat	Significance - Sat	Interdepend - Sat	Autonomy - Sat	Development - Sat
Hofstede Cultural Dimensions										
Power Distance										
Unconstrained Model				.34 (H) .35 (L)					.50 (H)* .55 (L)*	
Constrained Model				.35					.53	
Uncertainty Avoidance										
Unconstrained Model	.18 (H) .20 (L)			.32 (H) .35 (L)		.59 (H) .58 (L)			.40 (H) .38 (L)	
Constrained Model	.18			.34		.59			.40	
Individualism										
Unconstrained Model			.28 (H) .27 (L)		.61 (H) .61 (L)			.18 (H) .19 (L)		.44 (H) .43 (L)
Constrained Model			.28		.61			.18		.43
Masculinity										
Unconstrained Model		.25 (H) .28 (L)	.26 (H)* .32 (L)*				1.00 (H) 1.00 (L)	.06 (H)* .12 (L)*		
Constrained Model		.26	.29				1.00	.09		
GLOBE Cultural Dimensions										
Power Distance										
Unconstrained Model				.32 (H) .36 (L)					.51 (H) .52 (L)	
Constrained Model				.34					.52	
Uncertainty Avoidance										
Unconstrained Model	.20 (H) .18 (L)			.32 (H) .35 (L)		.59 (H)* .67 (L)*			.38 (H) .40 (L)	
Constrained Model	.19			.34		.64			.39	
Individualism										
Unconstrained Model			.27 (H) .29 (L)		.61 (H) .61 (L)			.14 (H)* .19 (L)*		.43 (H) .42 (L)
Constrained Model			.28		.61			.17		.43

Figure 1. Proposed Model
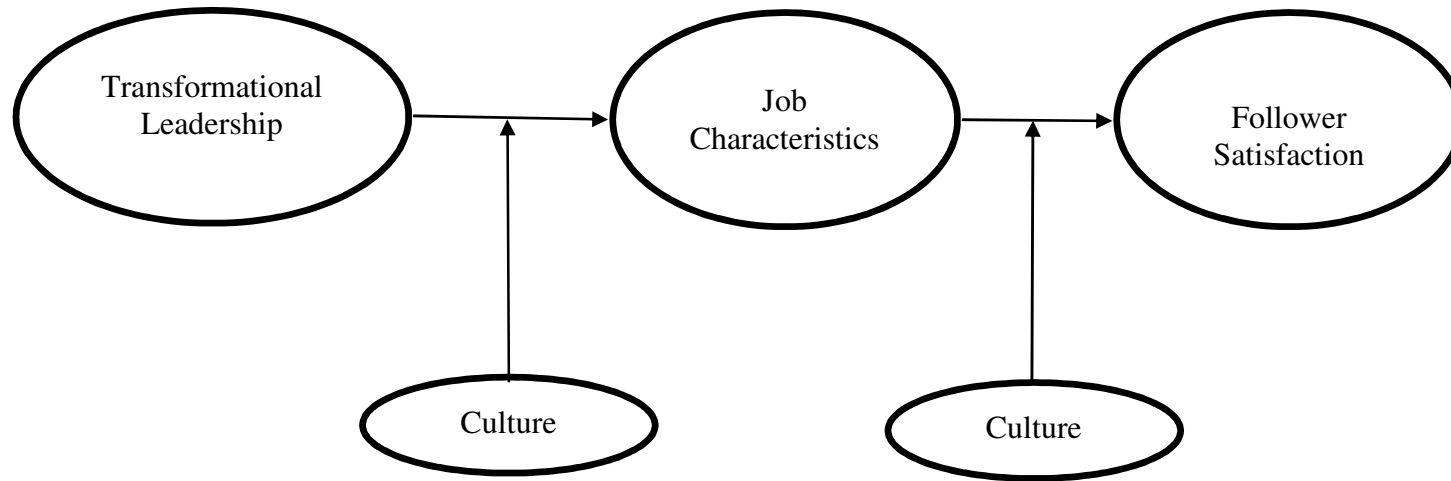
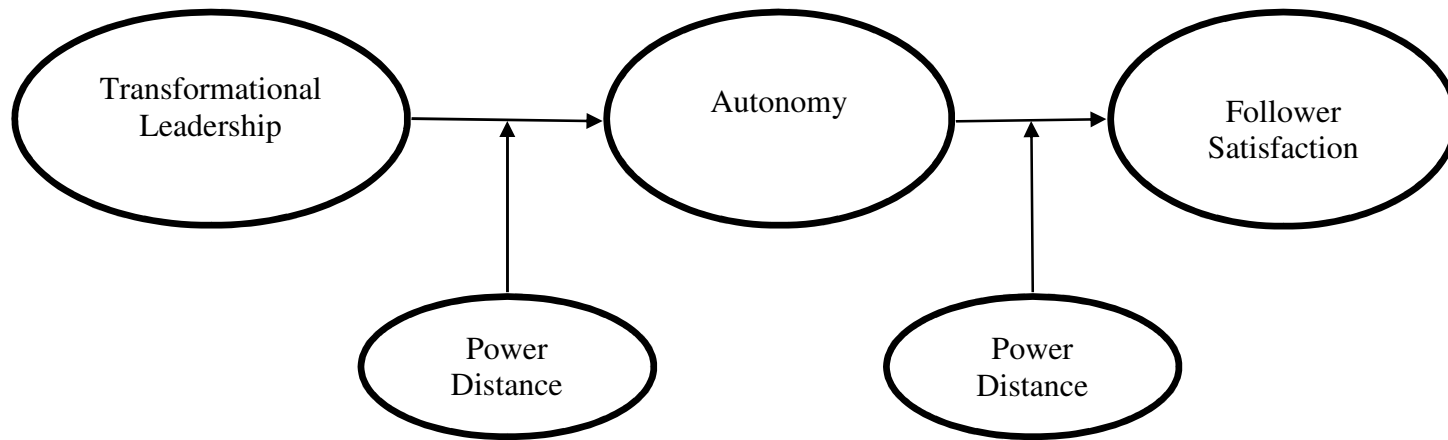**Figure 2.** Proposed Model with Power Distance as Moderator

Figure 3. Proposed Model with Uncertainty Avoidance as Moderator

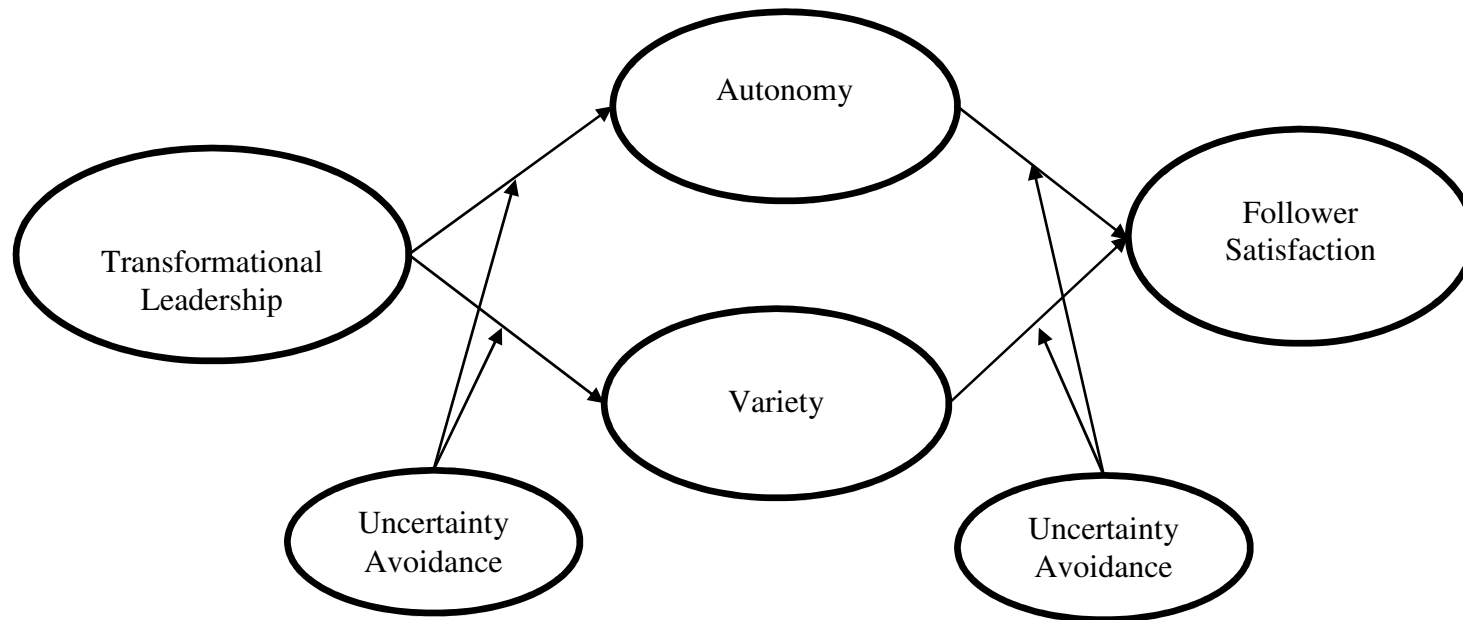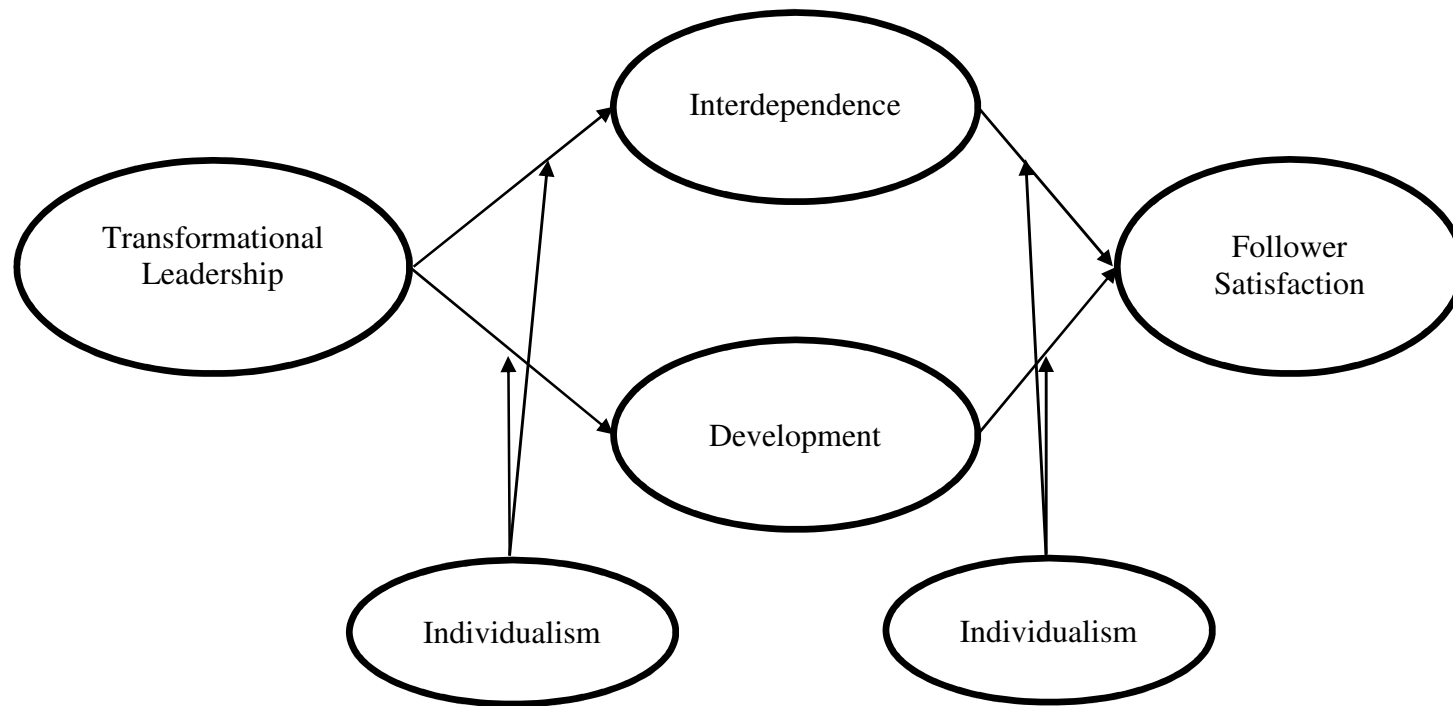**Figure 4.** Proposed Model with Individualism as Moderator

Figure 5. Proposed Model with Masculinity as Moderator