

**COMPARING MANAGERIAL WORK PRACTICES
AND VALUES IN NATIONALLY HOMOGENEOUS
VERSUS HETEROGENEOUS GROUPS:
examining German, British and French Work Teams**

A dissertation submitted
for the degree of Ph.D. (Econ)
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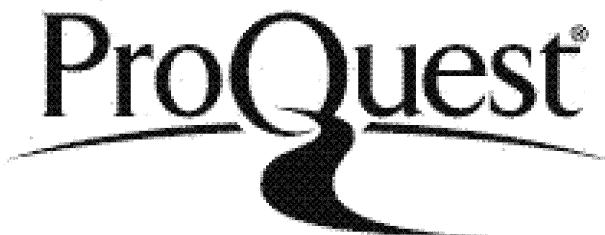


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Abstract

The ever increasing internationalization of company activities and the expanding use of mixed-nationality teams in organizations highlight the need for intercultural management competence.

The task of this project is therefore to examine the impact of the international element within management teams: are teams made up of two or more nationalities different from corresponding nationally homogeneous teams in term of decision-making, co-operation, mutual exchange of information, work satisfaction in the company, skill utilization, conflicts and standardization (of products, tasks, goals, corporate identity and culture) ? The existing cross-national management literature cannot answer this question adequately and there is a need for research examining the face-to-face interaction of different national management styles.

This project conducted an empirical examination of nationally heterogeneous teams made up of French, British and/or German managers and contrasted them with nationally homogeneous French, British and German teams.

Firstly it presents significant differences between the French, British and German management styles and in this respect contributes to previous cross-national management literature.

Secondly, it demonstrates how nationally heterogeneous management teams are different from nationally homogeneous ones, by exploring a route, which we called *Social Cross-National Management*. This approach was achieved by going to the operational interface of management teams and designing a questionnaire which required them to make two distinct judgments about two modes of action. A non-traditional principal component analysis was conducted, which individually scored teams along benchmarks like satisfaction with the work, team effectiveness, views about increased participation and the opportunities to use competence.

The main results are that the mixed nationality element (significantly) decreases skill utilization, exchange of information and team effectiveness, that it significantly increases dysfunctional results, that it negatively affects satisfaction with participation, satisfaction with the work and satisfaction within the team and finally that conflicts do not result significantly more often from the mixed nationality element. Other results are indecisive or non-significant.

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Introduction

International business activities of large and medium sized firms have increased rapidly in the past. Geographical borders do not restrict the interest in foreign markets and many firms now perform an increasingly high proportion of their activities outside their home base. Some multinationals have transferred the base of at least one international product division away from their home base. Companies' unit headquarters have been shifted to where ever the market or technology is most advanced or demanding and to the company's most obvious centre of competence.

At the same time an ever increasing number of tasks require action not within the functional, departmental or hierarchical structures of a company but within more flexible working forms. Often these tasks are performed by project teams that might be limited by time, interdisciplinary and cross-departmental. Such teams offer chances both to the company as well as to the participants. But they also require managers who think internationally, who are educated internationally and who have the ability to function effectively in another culture (intercultural management competence).

Previous cross-national management literature is useful when one just wants to know how management might differ in largely autonomous local units, but the increased need for companies to get teams of managers from different countries to work together effectively poses new problems of managing internationally integrated work forces.

This project has as its central task to investigate the international element of teams or task forces. How does the international element affect decision-making, co-operation, mutual exchange of information, satisfaction in the company, skill utilization, conflicts and standardization (of product specifications, tasks, goals, corporate identity and culture)?

CHAPTER I:

German, British and French variations in management style

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"...the EC can be considered the biggest laboratory in intercultural cooperation in today's world"

Geert Hofstede (1992:145)

"The question concerning possibilities and difficulties of 'European management' is relevant between East and West, between the European Community and the European free-trade zone, between single nations, between enterprises and governments. It reaches far beyond the economic sphere. It is the crucial question for the function and power élite of the continent."

Jacqueline Hénard (9.1.1993)

Aims

The objective of the first chapter is to uncover the differences between French, British and German management styles. This is done by providing the reader with a thorough overview of the relevant academic literature.

Initially, four different approaches of cross-national management literature are examined. Following this, the more quantitative studies describing French, British and German approaches to management are considered (Geert Hofstede, André Laurent, Mason Haire/Edwin Ghiselli/Lyman Porter, Frank Heller/Bernhard Wilpert and Jaques Horovitz). This group of studies often develops a model of dimensions which capture a multitude of cultural differences.

The picture evolving from these studies is completed by the more qualitative examinations undertaken by Michel Crozier, Georges Trepo, Jean-Louis Barsoux/Peter Lawrence, David Granick, Christel Lane, Andreas Budde/John Child/Arthur Francis/Alfred Kieser, Jochen Breuer/Pierre de Bartha, D.Ebster-Grosz/Derek Pugh, Georg Wolff/Gesina Göschel, John Child/Alfred Kieser, Rosabeth Moss Kanter, André Ruedi/Paul Lawrence, Peter Lawrence, Malcolm Warner/Adrian Campbell, Colin Randlesome, Wilhelm Eberwein/Jochen Tholen, Hermann Simon, Bernard Nuss, Nicola Phillips, Jean-Louis Servan-Schreiber, Philip Harris/Robert Moran, Peter Clark, Michael Aiken/Samuel Bacharach, Arnold Tannenbaum/Robert Cooke and John Child/Alfred Kieser.

I.1. Four approaches to cross-national management literature

Cross-national management studies deal with variations in managerial and employee work practices and values across countries (culture being a background factor, an explanatory variable as in Ajiferuke & Bodewyn, 1970 or a broad framework, see Cummings & Schmidt, 1972). Smircich (1983:343) segments the literature "...into that with a macro focus, examining the relationship between culture and organizational structure, and that with a micro focus, investigating the similarities and differences in attitudes of managers of different cultures". We will only deal with the micro aspect and therefore the studies have been divided into the four approaches listed in Table I.1.

The first stream teaches aspects about religion, politics, architecture, history of civilization, taboos/tips and alike of a certain country. The aim is to offer hints as to how to behave abroad. The weakness of this approach is that the information is of a general nature and seldom offers concrete help in doing business abroad and thus doesn't offer any practical guidance when dead-locks or conflicts occur with foreigners.

The second method was introduced by Hofstede. He presents empirical material in a very structured model: his 4-dimension-approach (Power-Index; Individualist-Collectivist Index; Uncertainty-Avoidance; Masculinity-Femininity). Hofstede captures all countries under the same 4 dimensions (later a 5th was added: short-term versus long-term orientation) and thus develops a world-wide validity for the model. It is successful in capturing a multitude of cultural differences and by primarily describing different approaches to management it can focus more upon the actual needs which internationally operating managers have.

Many of the studies referred to in Section I.2.1 are representative of this second stream. All of these study the national management style within its national context, thus providing no information of the face-to-face interaction of different national styles.

The third stream also studies national management styles separately. The pieces of work from this stream often offer much more detailed information than those from the second stream as there is no need to statistically simplify the obtained information into common

benchmarks (principal component/factor/cluster analysis etc) and since there is more emphasis on uncovering the internal logic of national approaches to management.

And while researchers of the second stream mainly obtain the information with the help of questionnaires, many representatives of the third stream directly observe the proceedings within the firm. A shortcoming of this method is that the examination is limited to only one or a few firms which decreases the representativeness.

The fourth and novel strategy of this project has been named *Social Cross-National Management*, because it examines different management styles face-to-face. It evaluates the consequences of a confrontation between different management styles within nationally heterogeneous management teams. This approach is central for understanding nationally heterogeneous teams and for increasing the job performance of such teams. In this study the items under consideration have been reduced to the following work-related potential problems:

- delegation to locals (even if they are foreigners)
- teamwork
- decision-making
- communication
- satisfaction
- skill utilization
- conflicts
- standardization

The areas under consideration are highly relevant for the question of how to manage international operations and how to integrate nationally heterogeneous work teams. The first three streams have looked at nationalities' behaviour or management styles separately (e.g. French managers within a French context, British managers within a British context and German managers within a German context). This isolation conceals many important questions by researchers in the field and practitioners alike and causes inaccuracy. Social cross cultural management examines exactly what happens when two different management styles come together and challenge each other.

APPROACH	INFORMATION ON CULTURES	QUANTITATIVE STUDIES (see Section I.2.1)	QUALITATIVE STUDIES (see Section I.2.2)	SOCIAL CROSS-NATIONAL MANAGEMENT STUDIES
AIM	gives general hints about how to behave in another culture	examines many countries along common benchmarks/ dimensions for optimal comparability	detailed description of national style by way of examining one or a few firms (often within home country)	uncovers the <i>impact/consequences of the face-to-face interchange</i> between different national management styles
FOCAL ELEMENT	history of civilization, religion, politics, taboos + tips	scoring on benchmarks/ dimensions that differentiate managers of different countries	examining in detail the proceedings within a firm	dimensions like decision-making, delegation to locals, interaction, satisfaction, skill utilization, conflicts studied within nationally heterogeneous teams
CONTENT	indefinite	dimensions of management behaviour	dimensions of management behaviour	dimensions of management behaviour
METHOD	observes cultures separately	studies national management style within national context	studies national management style within national context	studies different national management styles when they <i>meet and challenge</i> each other
STRENGTH	easy to learn	many countries (even continents) involved ⇒ wide comparability	detailed description, internal logic of national approaches to management	central for understanding nationally heterogeneous teams and for increasing the performance of such teams; new strand
WEAKNESS	information often too general	many simplifications/ typologies; same questionnaire used for very different countries	representativeness sometimes questionable	empirical studies costly in resources

Table I.1: Four approaches of cross-national literature

I.2. What management styles do French, British and German managers pursue ?

"While it is hard to understand and appreciate someone else's culture without first understanding your own, paradoxically, the best way to understand one's own culture is often to be confronted with someone else's!"

Nicola Phillips (1992:7)

I.2.1. The quantitative studies

In searching for aspects that can be measured relative to other cultures, Geert Hofstede builds on a respective survey of English-language literature, which was conducted by Inkeles & Levinson (1969). This suggests the following aspects for this purpose: the relation to power, the relationship between individuals and society, the individual's concept of masculinity and femininity as well as ways of dealing with conflicts.

Hofstede's enormous study of 116.000 employees of IBM in 72 subsidiaries conducted around the years 1968 and 1972, largely confirms these four areas. The dimensions of his initial 4-d-model includes social inequality (Power Distance Index), the relationship between the individual and the group (Individualist Index), concepts of masculinity and femininity (Masculinity Index) and ways of dealing with uncertainty (Uncertainty Avoidance Index). It is only later when Chinese minds compose a questionnaire that Hofstede adds a fifth dimension: long-term versus short-term orientation (Hofstede, 1992:14-5). It is extremely interesting to study the actual scores of each country, of cultural clusters, of regions and of continents and to compare all of these. Only the scores of the three countries involved in this study will be printed and readers are referred directly to Hofstede's books for more information.

The dimensions differentiate national cultures relative to others. The term culture is defined by Hofstede as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group [people in contact with each other] or category of people [people who, without necessarily having contact, have something in common] from another" (Hofstede, 1992:5). This "mental software" has been acquired in early childhood, when a person is most susceptible to learning and assimilating. The cultural manifestations are:

symbols, heroes, rituals and values.

"The culture of a country...is not a combination of properties of the 'average citizen', nor a 'modal personality'. It is, among other things, a set of likely reactions of citizens with a common mental programming. [Certain]...reactions need not be found within the same persons, but only statistically more often in the same society. Confusing the level of the individual with the level of the society is known in the social sciences as the ecological fallacy. It amounts to a confusion between personality and culture" (Hofstede, 1992:112).

Power Distance Index (PDI)

The name of this index originates from research undertaken by Mauk Mulder (1976) into the distance separating subordinates and their bosses. The index tells us about "...the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede, 1992:28). It is measured from the point of view of the least powerful and gives relative (not absolute) positions of one country versus another.

To obtain a value for the dimensions, Hofstede first uses a factor analysis to group together questionnaire questions seemingly belonging together in this instance into the area of power and (in)equality. A factor analysis is used very often within the social sciences where the task is to extract from a large number of explanatory variables those that are independent from each other.

He calculates the means of all responses within each country and thus every country is represented by only one response per question; this technique is called ecological factor analysis and has the result of every country being weighted in an equally strong way (100 managers from country A are not weighted 10 times as much as 10 managers from country B) but also, that information is lost (variations between the respondents). The bigger this variation, the more problematic the procedure¹. From these clusters he then

¹ And there are suggestions, as Table 2.2. (Hofstede, 1992:30) shows that the answers within a country are quite different. In this table the PDI range is listed for the different occupational groups within an occupational category. However, because

selects only the questions most strongly correlated; this is a deviation from the original idea of factor analysis since it uses only a minority of the questions/answers that were used to build the factor model².

The PDI³ consists of the following three issues (Hofstede, 1992:25):

- How frequently, in your experience, does the following problem occur: employees being afraid to express disagreement with their managers ?
- Subordinates' perception of their boss's actual decision-making style (from autocratic to paternalistic style)
- Subordinates' preference for their boss's decision-making style

Britain, France and Germany have the same 38 different occupations (*) we are restricted from discussing consequences. Also, since every country varies so much in terms of the number of managers involved in the study, it is far more important to equalise this potential distortion by means of an ecological factor analysis.

(* these are: unskilled and semiskilled workers, clerical workers and nonprofessional salespeople, skilled workers and technicians, managers of the previous categories, professional workers, managers of professional workers)

² Normally, all variables within a cluster determine the factor. The statistically developed factors are new explaining variables on a more abstract level: they are named with reference to all the questions that have developed them. The number of factors to use in a model is determined by several statistical criteria of which the most common is the Kaiser criteria (Eigenvalue > 1); alternatively there is the scree criteria.

Hofstede breaks off the factor analysis in the middle: he uses the obtained clusters and when arguing with the newly developed factors, he just picks very few questions, calculates with a formula ("adding or subtracting the three scores after multiplying each with a fixed number, and finally adding another fixed number" (Hofstede, 1992, p.25)) in order to treat each with the same weight and to arrive at a value between 0% and 100% measuring agreement to the respective index. The reader will see in Chapters III and V that the approach of the author of this thesis is different. Firstly all items/variables are used within the factor and secondly the factor loading of each item/variable is taken into account.

³ Drenth & Groenendijk (1984:1211) rather suggest to label this index 'participative climate' or 'social distance'.

The PDI scores are as follows (agreement from 0 to 100 %):

France	68	(rank 15/16 of 53)	Hofstede-sample-Ø: 57
Great Britain	35	(rank 42-44)	Group-Ø: 46
Germany	35	(rank 42-44)	Group-range: 33

In terms of power distance, Great Britain and Germany score alike, but France shows a higher PDI value. The three countries are split into two groups on this dimension and the difference between the two positions is one third of the entire scale, which creates a relatively high difference in French versus German and British (both alike) management styles resulting from this power distance dimension. This impression is particularly emphasized when one looks at the ranks of the countries: France is among the top third of the PDI scale of the entire Hofstede sample and both Great Britain and Germany are among the bottom 20 per cent. At the same time the arithmetic mean of the three countries' positions is 46, the lowest of this group on any of Hofstede's dimensions, and as a group distinctly under the average of Hofstede's sample of 53 countries.

The IDE-study (1981a) corresponds by reporting a medium power distribution inequality for Great Britain, a higher one for West Germany and the highest for France. Maurice (1979) provides evidence of a more rigid stratification in France compared with Germany. Clark (1979) reports a large number of impersonal rules within the French organization. According to him, rules within an English factory cover less situations and are also more open for interpretation. In England the social classes are less stratified or isolated than in France. Also in relation to the parent organization, local management is more autonomous in England.

Table I.2⁴ exhibits the consequences of small versus high power distance in respect to general norms, the organization and the state.

⁴ Selecting from Table 2.3 (Hofstede, 1992:37) and Table 2.4 (Hofstede, 1992:43).

Small power distance like Great Britain and Germany

Inequalities among people should be minimised

There should be, and there is to some extent, interdependence between less and more powerful people

Hierarchy in organizations means an inequality of roles, established for convenience

Decentralization is popular

Narrow salary range between top and bottom of organization

Subordinates expect to be consulted

The ideal boss is a resourceful democrat

Privileges and status symbols are frowned upon

The use of power should be legitimate and is subject to criteria of good and evil

Skills, wealth, power, and status need not go together

The middle class is large

All should have equal rights

Powerful people try to look less powerful than they are

Power is based on formal position, expertise, and ability to give rewards

The way to change a political system is by changing the rules (evolution)

Prevailing religions and philosophical systems stress equality

Prevailing political ideologies stress and practice power sharing

Native management theories focus on role of employees

Large power distance like France

Inequalities among people are both expected and desired

Less powerful people should be dependent on the more powerful; in practice, less powerful people are polarized between dependence and counterdependence

Hierarchy in organizations reflects the existential inequality between higher-ups and lower-downs

Centralization is popular

Wide salary range between top and bottom of organization

Subordinates expect to be told what to do

The ideal boss is a benevolent autocrat or good father

Privileges and status symbols for managers are both expected and popular

Might prevails over right: whoever holds the power is right and good

Skills, wealth, power, and status should go together

The middle class is small

The powerful have privileges

Powerful people try to look as impressive as possible

Power is based on family or friends, charisma, and ability to use force

The way to change a political system is by changing the people at the top (revolution)

Prevailing religions and philosophical systems stress hierarchy and stratification

Prevailing political ideologies stress and practice power struggle

Native management theories focus on role of managers

Table I.2: Differences between small and high power distance countries

A low PDI score as in Great Britain and in Germany will have the following consequences for the organization⁵:

- less centralization
- flatter organization pyramids
- smaller proportion of supervisory personnel
- smaller wage differentials
- high qualification of lower strata
- manual work same status as clerical work

Organizations in countries with a high PDI, like France, will be more influenced by:

- greater centralization
- tall organization pyramid
- large proportion of supervisory personnel
- large wage differentials
- low qualification of lower strata
- white-collar jobs valued more than blue-collar jobs

Individualism Index (IDV)

This index measures the degree of individualism as opposed to collectivism in a given national culture. "Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism as its opposite pertains to societies in which people from birth

⁵ See Hofstede 1984:107. These consequences are developed by Hofstede with reference to other academic studies and readers are referred to his books for more information. It has to be remembered, that we list typologies (usually debatable). With regard to this table, it is for instance questionable, if in Great Britain and Germany manual and clerical work have the same status. Both countries have a strong manual/non-manual divide and only recently has 'single status' spread in UK. In Germany, manual and non-manual groups still have separate social security arrangements.

onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive ingroups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (Hofstede, 1992:51).

The index comes out as one dimension of a cluster of 14 work goals (the second dimension is the Masculinity Index). Six ingredients are responsible for the calculation of the IDV value: to...

- have a job which leaves sufficient time for personal family life
- have considerable freedom to adopt a personal approach to the job
- have challenging work to do - work from which one can achieve a personal sense of accomplishment
- have training opportunities (to improve one's skills or learn new skills).
- have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)
- fully use skills and abilities on the job

The items that lead to the development of this index do not totally cover the concept of individualism and collectivism in a society; however, Hofstede claims that correlations between his IDV and other attributes of societies confirm or validate that the IDV measures individualism (Hofstede, 1992:52).

The statistical evaluation shows that a high degree of agreement on the first 3 questions go together with a low agreement on the latter 3 and vice versa. If great importance is attached to personal time, freedom and challenge, then one emphasises a certain independence from the organization. Additionally if one tends towards the opinion that training, physical conditions and skills are significant (all services of the organization for the employee), then one shows a certain dependence from the workplace (collectivism). In contrast to the calculation of the PDI, the IDV is computed with the factor scores⁶.

⁶ These were multiplied by 25 and a constant number of 50 points was added, which puts the scores on a scale from 0 to 100, see Hofstede (1992:52-3).

The IDV scores are as follows:

France	71	(rank 10/11 of 53)	Hofstede-sample- \bar{O} : 43
Great Britain	89	(rank 3)	Group- \bar{O} : 76
Germany	67	(rank 15)	Group-range: 22

Great Britain scores very high on individualism and occupies place three after USA and Australia. France and Germany follow on lower places, but are both still among the countries more oriented towards individualism. The arithmetic mean of the three countries is 76, which is the biggest arithmetic mean of this group of countries on any of the 4 dimensions and which is distinctively higher than the arithmetic mean of all nationalities under examination. Thus, certainly, the British, but also the French and German management styles seem very individualistic. The range between the biggest and the smallest value is only 22 and thus the smallest of this group of countries on any dimension. If we confine ourselves to view management only in terms of Hofstede's dimensions, it means that British, French and German management are most similar in regard to individualism (the small range reinforces the validity of arguing with the arithmetic mean - as opposed to the median - when examining the relative standing of this group of countries).

Individualism and collectivism in their extreme forms have the following attributes in respect of general norms, the organization and the state (see Table I.3⁷):

⁷ This table consists of a selection of items in Table 3.3 (Hofstede, 1992:67) and Table 3.4 (Hofstede, 1992:73).

Collectivist countries	Individualist countries
Relationship employer-employee is perceived in moral terms, like a family link	Relationship employer-employee is a contract supposed to be based on mutual advantage
Hiring and promotion decisions take employees' ingroup into account	Hiring and promotion decisions are supposed to be based on skills and rules only
Management is management of groups	Management is management of individuals
Relationship prevails over task	Task prevails over relationship
Collective interests prevail over individual interests	Individual interests prevail over collective interests
Private life is invaded by group(s)	Everyone has a right to privacy
Opinions are predetermined by group membership	Everyone is expected to have a private opinion
Laws and rights differ by group	Laws and rights are supposed to be the same for all
Imported economic theories largely irrelevant because unable to deal with collective and particularist interests	Native economic theories based on pursuit of individual self-interests
Ideologies of equality prevail over ideologies of individual freedom	Ideologies of individual freedom prevail over ideologies of equality
Harmony and consensus in society are ultimate goals	Self-actualization by every individual is an ultimate goal

Table I.3: Differences between collectivist and individualist countries

The following are examples of collectivist versus individualist cultural values.

An individualist workplace (especially like the British) will often involve the following values (Hofstede, 1984: 174-5):

- involvement of individuals with organization will be calculative
- the org. is not expected to look after employees from the cradle to the grave
- the organization has moderate influence on the member's well-being
- the employees are expected to defend their own interests
- policies and practices should allow for individual initiative
- promotion from inside and outside; promotion on market value (cosmopolitanism)
- managers try to be up-to-date and endorse modern management ideas
- policies and practices apply to all (universalism)

Collectivist organizations will however be more influenced by the following values:

- the involvement of individuals with the organization is primarily moral
- employees expect organization to look after them like a family - and they can become very alienated if the organization dissatisfies them
- the organization has great influence on the member's well-being
- the employees expect the organization to defend their interests
- policies and practices are based on loyalty and sense of duty
- promotion from inside; promotion on seniority (localism)
- less concern with fashion in management ideas
- policies and practices vary according to relations (particularism)

The IDV index is influenced by the distance of a country's capital city to the equator, the country's climate and it's population growth. Besides this it is influenced by economic (gross national product per capita and economic growth) and historic aspects (influence of the teachings of Confucius in East Asia).

In respect to individualism in France Michel Crozier⁸ states: "Face-to-face dependence relationships are perceived as difficult to bear in the French cultural setting. Yet the prevailing view of authority is still that of ... absolutism... . The two attitudes are contradictory. However they can be reconciled within a bureaucratic system since impersonal rules and centralization make it possible to reconcile an absolutist conception of authority and the elimination of most direct dependence relationships".

With regard to the same aspect, d'Iribarne⁹ writes: "The principle of organizing is 'the rationale of honor' (la logique de l'honneur). This principle, which he finds already present in the French Kingdom prior to Napoleon, means that everybody has a rank (large power distance), but that the implications of belonging to one's rank are less imposed by the group than determined by tradition. It is 'not so much what one owes to others as what one owes to oneself'. It is a stratified form of individualism".

⁸ Michel Crozier (1964:222) quoted in Hofstede (1992:55-6).

⁹ D'Iribarne (1989:59) quoted in Hofstede (1992:56).

The Masculinity Index (MAS)

The third index developed by Hofstede measures masculinity versus femininity as social, by national culture influenced roles. Eight of the same list of 14 work goals already used for the IDV, created this dimension (the question about challenge was used for both IDV and MAS). In detail, the questions dealt with earnings, recognition, advancement, challenge on the masculine side and good working relationships with the superior, co-operation, living area and employment security on the female side. The labelling of this index originates from the fact that with only these 8 questions male and female respondents answered differently (that this is an adequate reason for such labelling is debatable). Men scored high on such issues as earnings and advancement whereas women did so especially for good working relationships and co-operation. The statistical procedures are exactly as those used for the IDV, and the following scores are calculated:

The MAS scores are as follows:

France	43	(rank 35/36 of 53)	Hofstede-sample-Ø: 49
Great Britain	66	(rank 9/10)	Group-Ø: 58
Germany	66	(rank 9/10)	Group-range: 23

In terms of individual comparisons, there is only one distinction: France holds marginally more feminine values than Great Britain and Germany, who do not differ at all from each other and hold rather masculine values (top 20 %). The range of the three values is relatively small, meaning that the management styles of Great Britain, Germany and France are relatively similar in respect to masculinity. In other words, if there are substantial differences, then they can only be explained marginally with the help of this index. The arithmetic mean of the three countries together is 58, which, when compared to the overall sample mean of 49, puts this group on the masculine side.

The MAS in its extreme poles, has the following attributes (see Table I.4¹⁰) in respect of general norms, the workplace and the state, out of which the reader can form an opinion about the actual standing of France on the feminine and both Great Britain and Germany on the masculine side. As with most typologies, the realistic situation rarely corresponds with the description. Each country will also have certain inter-country variations.

Feminine societies	Masculine societies
Dominant values in society are caring for others and preservation	Dominant values in society are material success and progress
People and warm relationships are important	Money and things are important
Everybody is supposed to be modest	Men are supposed to be assertive, ambitious and tough
Both men and women are allowed to be tender and to be concerned with relationships	Women are supposed to be tender and to take care of relationships
Work in order to live	Live in order to work
Managers use intuition and strive for consensus	Managers expected to be decisive and assertive
Stress on equality, solidarity, and quality of work life	Stress on equity, competition among colleagues, and performance
Resolution of conflicts by compromise and negotiation	Resolution of conflicts by fighting them out
Welfare society ideal	Performance society ideal
The needy should be helped	The strong should be supported
Permissive society	Corrective society
Preservation of the environment should have highest priority	Maintenance of economic growth should have highest priority

Table I.4: Differences between feminine and masculine societies

¹⁰ Excerpt of Table 4.2 (Hofstede, 1992:96) and Table 4.3 (Hofstede, 1992:103).

For the more feminine organization such as in France versus the more masculine organization as in Great Britain and Germany it means the following (Hofstede, 1984:207-8):

Feminine organizations:

- some young men and women want careers, others do not
- the organization should not interfere with people's private lives
- less industrial conflict
- lower job stress
- more women in more qualified and better-paid jobs

Masculine organizations:

- young men expected to make a career; those who don't see themselves as failures
- organizational interests are a legitimate reason for interfering with people's private lives
- more industrial conflict
- higher job stress
- fewer women in more qualified and better-paid jobs

Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)

Also if the concern for what happens tomorrow is an old problem, the expression uncertainty avoidance goes back to the research of James March in 1963, who examined this dimension in American organizations. The notion of nationally varying levels of anxiety can be traced back to Emile Durkheim¹¹ in 1897.

¹¹ Quoted in Hofstede (1992:114).

Hofstede develops this index statistically¹² with the input of three questions relating to job stress, adherence to company rules and the intention to stay in the company for a long period.

Uncertainty avoidance is defined "...as the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations" (Hofstede, 1992:113). It is thus not to be confused with risk avoidance, since risk relates to something specific.

The UAI scores are as follows:

France	86	(rank 10-15 of 53)	Hofstede-sample-Ø: 65
Great Britain	35	(rank 47-48)	Group-Ø: 62
Germany	65	(rank 29)	Group range: 51

France strongly avoids uncertainty, Germany scores medium high and Great Britain has a very weak uncertainty avoidance¹³. This dimension is the one with the widest range among the four indices, which means that the biggest differences between British, French and German management styles result from different levels of uncertainty avoidance (that is of course confining oneself to the 4-d-model). The arithmetic mean of the group is 62, which very narrowly puts this group on the less uncertainty avoidance side if compared with the mean of the entire sample of nationalities. It is however inadvisable to argue

¹² For the statistical procedures see Hofstede (1992:113) or (1980). The same procedure is used to calculate the PDI scores.

¹³ As Drenth and Groenendijk (1984:1215) point out, these UAI results do not go together with the low formalization for France, medium formalization for West Germany and high formalization for Great Britain reported in the IDE study (1984a). Child and Kieser (1979) also report more formalization in English organizations than in West German ones. English managers view their work as more varied and as having less routine character compared to how German managers view their work. Routine work and degrees of formalization do not go together with uncertainty avoidance. Clark (1979) reports less formalization in the French tobacco industry than in the British one and he speaks of more routine work in the French organization. Bureaucratic control is higher in France than in Great Britain, which is in accordance with the UAI findings for France and Britain (but generally not for every other country).

with means when the range is as wide as this; the group-median is 65 compared to a sample-median of 68, which puts the group more on the uncertainty avoidance side. Even if the last argument is qualitatively of higher value, the practical meaning is negligible. Weak versus strong uncertainty avoidance have the following poles (see Table I.5) in respect to general norms, the workplace and the state (Hofstede, 1992:125+134):

Weak uncertainty avoidance as in Great Britain	Strong uncertainty avoidance as in France
Uncertainty is a normal feature of life and each day is accepted as it comes	The uncertainty inherent in life is felt as a continuous threat which must be fought
Low stress; subjective feeling of well-being	High stress; subjective feeling of anxiety
Aggression and emotions should not be shown	Aggression and emotions may at proper times and places be ventilated
Comfortable in ambiguous situations and with unfamiliar risks	Acceptance of familiar risks; fear of ambiguous situations and of unfamiliar risks
There should not be more rules than is strictly necessary	Emotional need for rules, even if these will never work
Time is a framework for orientation	Time is money
Comfortable feeling when lazy; hard-working only when needed	Emotional need to be busy; inner urge to work hard
Precision and punctuality have to be learned	Precision and punctuality come naturally
Tolerance of deviant and innovative ideas and behaviour	Suppression of deviant ideas and behaviour; resistance to innovation
Motivation by achievement and esteem or belongingness	Motivation by security and esteem or belongingness
Few and general laws and rules	Many and precise laws and rules
If rules cannot be respected, they should be changed	If rules cannot be respected, we are sinners and should repent
Citizen competence versus authorities	Citizen incompetence versus authorities
Citizens positive towards institutions	Citizens negative towards institutions
Tolerance, moderation	Conservatism, extremism, law and order
Positive attitudes towards young people	Negative attitudes towards young people
Regionalism, internationalism, attempts at integration of minorities	Nationalism, xenophobia, repression of minorities
Belief in generalists and common sense	Belief in experts and specialization
In philosophy and science, tendency towards relativism and empiricism	In philosophy and science, tendency towards grand theories

Table I.5: Differences between weak and strong uncertainty avoiding countries

For the organization, this translates into the following characteristics (Hofstede, 1984:143).

Weak uncertainty avoidance as found in British workplaces:

- less structuring of activities
- fewer written rules
- more generalists/amateurs
- organization can be pluriform
- managers more involved in strategy
- managers more interpersonal oriented and flexible in their style
- managers more willing to make individual and risky decisions
- high labour turnover
- more ambitious employees
- lower satisfaction scores
- less power through control of uncertainty
- less ritual behaviour

Strong uncertainty avoidance as found in French workplaces:

- more structuring of activities
- more written rules
- larger number of specialists
- organization should be as uniform as possible (standardization)
- managers more involved in details
- managers more task-oriented and consistent in their style
- managers less willing to make individual and risky decisions
- lower labour turnover
- less ambitious employees
- higher satisfaction scores
- more power through control of uncertainty
- more ritual behaviour

The historical origins for the uncertainty avoidance differences between nationalities are explained by Hofstede (1992:135) as a legacy of the Roman Empire (a powerful centralised state with a unique system of codified laws) that fostered stronger uncertainty avoidance among countries with Roman languages. On the other side there was the Chinese empire (again strong and centralised; yet governed not by law but by man), which fostered low uncertainty avoidance in Chinese speaking countries such as Hong Kong and Singapore.

Hofstede tries to develop different optimal types of organizations with the help of the two dimensions of power distance and uncertainty avoidance (the other two dimensions IDV and MAS instead determine how people should interact). Along these lines, the optimal German organization (small PDI, high UAI) is a "well-oiled machine", where the rules are responsible for eliminating potential problems¹⁴. The French organization (high PDI, high UAI) is a "pyramid of people" with many hierarchies and a strong general manager (Hofstede, 1992:141), whose authority is of statutory and personal nature¹⁵. In contrast to the German case, the control by hierarchical authority means, that the personal authority of the top managers prevail over rules¹⁶. The British organization (small PDI, small UAI), finally, is a "... 'village market' in which neither hierarchy nor rules, but the demands of the situation, determine what will happen" (Hofstede, 1992:142). "Experience has shown that differences in power distance are more manageable than differences in uncertainty avoidance. In particular, organizations headquartered in smaller power distance cultures usually succeed in larger power distance countries. Local authorities can adopt more authoritative management attitudes in the subsidiaries even if their bosses behave in a more participative fashion" (Hofstede, 1992:144-5). Hence, the

¹⁴ Real authority comes from the rules only, according to Max Weber (1976)(quoted by Hofstede, 1992).

¹⁵ Statutory authority from the office and personal authority coming from the individual's intelligence, knowledge, experiences, moral values, leadership, service record and so on, see as a classical author of this style: Fayol (1970) (quoted by Hofstede, 1992).

¹⁶ Hofstede quotes three sources: Kieser and Kubicek (1983), Crozier and Friedberg (1977) and Pagès, Bonetti, de Gaulejac and Descendre (1979).

company under examination in this project (headquartered in Germany) should have fewer problems in France or Great Britain. However, the differences in UAI-levels - they are the biggest on any dimension - lead us to be cautious. Rules can be interpreted differently: in Great Britain managers feel uncomfortable with them and in France managers could feel uneasy with what will be from their perspective a lack of a rule-structure.

Long-term orientation (LTO)

Finally, as already mentioned, a fifth dimension was later added to Hofstede's 4-d-model: that of long-term orientation (LTO). About 100 students in 23 countries (20 of them are included in the original country group) were asked about such things as persistence (perseverance), thrift, having a sense of shame and status relationships as well as about personal steadiness and stability, protecting the face, respect for tradition and reciprocation of greetings, favours and gifts. On a scale (of theoretically) one to a hundred, Great Britain (25) scores similarly to Germany (31) however data for France are not obtainable. We will therefore not present this dimension in any further detail.

In an attempt to highlight some relative advantages (moral statements are not envisaged), Hofstede (1992:239ff) arrives at the following sources of competitive advantages:

<i>Characteristic</i>	<i>Advantage</i>
Power distance small:	acceptance of responsibility (D,B)
Power distance large:	discipline (F)
Collectivism:	employee commitment
Individualism:	management mobility (B)
Femininity:	personal service,custom-made products,agriculture,biochemistry(F)
Masculinity:	mass production,efficiency,heavy industry,bulk chemistry (B,D)
Uncertainty avoidance weak:	basic innovations (B)
Uncertainty avoidance strong:	precision (F)

André Laurent conducted his research to test the hypothesis that "...the national origin of European managers significantly affects their views of what proper management should be" (Laurent, 1985:42). He developed a questionnaire with 56 questions which was distributed between 1977 and 1979 among (817) upper-middle-level managers from Denmark, Great Britain (190), Netherlands, Germany (72), Sweden, Switzerland, France (219), Italy and USA who were attending executive development programmes at INSEAD in Fontainebleau, France. An ecological factor analysis¹⁷ develops 4 different (non-exhaustive) dimensions¹⁸, which cluster groups of three or four questions¹⁹. The original results were replicated in various ways: the original French sample was compared with 55 French managers attending ISA, another French business school; furthermore the French, British and German parts of the research were repeated in two multinational firms within the chemical ('MNC-A') and office-equipment industry ('MNC-B'). The results of the latter studies confirmed the initial findings.

Organizations as Political Systems (OPS)

This dimension clusters replies that confirm the importance of managers playing a political role within society, that stress power (as opposed to achievement) as motivator and that disagree with managers being aware of the organizational structure.

¹⁷ 'Ecological' stands for the fact, that means are calculated for each country; the individual responses are thus not used directly since the unit of analysis is the national culture (the collective managerial ideology). This technique is also used by Hofstede.

¹⁸ He stresses the collective nature of these dimensions and relates to the fact that, whereas correlations among country scores are very high across the questions within a dimension, the opposite is true for the correlations among individual scores for a given country within a given dimension. See Laurent (Feb.1980).

¹⁹ The remainder of the questions were not used (56-13=43). The scores on each dimension is an arithmetical mean of the responses on each of the three or four questions involved, they are given the same weight (in spite of the fact that such situations, where each value/response has the same factor loading within the factor matrix is extremely rare and it has not been shown to be the case here).

The individual OPS scores are as follows (agreement from 0 to 100 %):

France	62	(rank 2 of 9)	Laurent-sample-Ø: 44
Great Britain	32	(rank 8)	Group-Ø: 43
Germany	36	(rank 6/7)	Group-range: 30

France scores considerably higher (one third of the entire scale) than both Germany and (slightly lower) Great Britain. French managers have a much stronger notion of the political role of the manager in society and of power as a motivator within the organization. There is a more vague notion of the organizational structure. Germany and Great Britain are pictured as having the reverse of these characteristics.

It is very dangerous²⁰ to relate dimensions of one researcher to another but when two dimensions of different origin affirm each other, it should be mentioned.

Laurent's findings in terms of the Organizations as Political Systems (OPS) can be supported by the differences in Hofstede's Power-Distance-dimension (UK and Germany: 35; F:68). Both researchers characterize French managers as power-inclined. It can be suggested (Laurent, 1985:46) that the unclear structural notions spread uncertainty, which in turn gives freedom for more power games.

Organizations as Authority Systems (OAS)

The second dimension tests agreement to the following: that the hierarchical level enables everyone to know who has authority over whom, and that today there is an authority crisis in organizations and the manager of tomorrow will mainly be a negotiator.

²⁰ This is similar to comparing apples with pears. On top of this, the dimensions are only typologies (possessing accepted hazards) and are non-exhaustive.

The following OAS scores are developed:

France	65	(rank 1 of 10)	Laurent-sample-Ø: 47
Great Britain	48	(rank 5)	Group-Ø: 49
Germany	34	(rank 8)	Group-range: 31

France ranks highest, which means, that French managers have a strong perception of organizations as authority systems. "French...managers report a more personal and social concept of authority that regulates relationships among individuals in organizations...[and]...authority appears to be more a property of the individual" (Laurent, 1985:46). This contrasts with German managers, who rather illustrate the opposite opinion by viewing authority more rationally and instrumentally, as regulating tasks or functions. German managers characterise authority as an attribute of the role or function. British managers score in between (but are closer to the German position). The differences in management style of the three countries under consideration are - from Laurent's point of view - mainly accounted for by the differences in the OAS (range: 31) and the OPS scores (range: 30).

Organizations as Role Formalization Systems (ORFS)

In cases of affirmative responses to this index, the importance of detailed job descriptions and well-defined functions are shown and disagreement is seen with potentially better achievements resulting from less precisely defined roles.

The three countries score as follows on the ORFS:

France	81	(rank 4/5 of 10)	Laurent-sample-Ø: 77
Great Britain	80	(rank 6/7)	Group-Ø: 82
Germany	85	(rank 1/2)	Group-range: 5

German managers voice the highest agreement and hence show the importance of well specified and defined roles and functions and the resulting efficiency increases. Great Britain and France contrast with the findings for Germany only slightly by insisting less strongly on these organizational devices, but the agreement to this index is generally very similar (range only 5) and the scores high (all three countries are above the mean for the 10 countries studied by Laurent). The ORFS index is thus the dimension which contributes least in describing the differences in the management styles of France, Germany and Great Britain.

With this index France reinforces her power inclination and the expressed intention to still spread uncertainty as discussed in the first index.

Hofstede's IDV characterizes German managers as the least individual and hence most collective (the organization looks after members like a family and it has great influence upon members' well being; promotion from inside and on seniority). It can be argued, that this is favoured by tight and secure roles and hierarchical relationships (reflected by high levels on the index for role-formalisation).

Organizations as Hierarchical Relationship Systems (OQRS)

The statements grouped under this dimension test agreement to such things as: that the elimination of conflict results in organizations being better off, that it is important to have precise answers to all possible questions from subordinates, that the structure of having two direct bosses should be avoided and finally (disagreement with the fact that) efficient work relationships often necessitate bypassing the hierarchical line.

The scoring on the OQRS is as follows:

France	50	(rank 2/3 of 10)	Laurent-sample-Ø: 42
Great Britain	36	(rank 7)	Group-Ø: 44
Germany	47	(rank 4)	Group-range: 14

French managers - more than German and indeed British counterparts - see the

organization as a strict hierarchical relationship system, where the line of command is to be followed and there should be answers at hand to all questions posed by subordinates (mind: rank is 2 or 3). To French managers, bypassing the hierarchical line is as inappropriate as having to report to two bosses²¹. Organizational forms such as the matrix structure (Laurent, 1981) or also the transformation of factories by slashing lead times as pioneered by Asea Brown Boveri²² work less well in the French environment. The British managers are more accessible to such undertakings.

This borders on Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance dimension. The French managers are said to be the most uncertainty avoiding (ambiguous situations disliked, emotional need for rules, motivation by security) and the British the least so. Also Hofstede's high French score for power distance portrays the desired and expected inequalities among people, the popularity of centralisation and the stress on hierarchy.

By explaining and uncovering the roots of the differences, Laurent escapes the dangers of reducing cultural differences to its artifacts or "...the superficiality of its visible manifestations" (Amado et al., 1990:43). He identifies three mutually reinforcing factors that help to understand the cultural differences:

- "the contrast between the German sense of community and the clan rivalry of the Latins;
- the difference between the common law, the customs practised by the Germans and Roman Law with which the Latin countries have been imbued;
- the Nordic emancipation of the Anglo-Saxons leading them to free themselves from the tutelage of the Roman and Catholic Churches, institutions which still continue to dominate Latin countries" (Amado et al., 1990:37).

²¹ Georges Trepo (1973:78) disagrees with the inappropriateness of reporting to two bosses and his reasoning is quoted later in Section I.2.2. 'The qualitative studies'.

²² ABB wants to halve all lead times in the company's activities by the end of 1993. This "T50" strategy (on trial since June 1990 and reported in Robert Taylor, 10.2.93) is trying to blend Japanese practices of lean management in the auto industry into the Swedish culture. The essence is that of decentralising work responsibilities and widening individual worker skills within teams and this is condemned to being less successful in an environment of stratified management hierarchies.

Latins, it is argued, picture themselves in family or clan structures with a higher authority controlling power within and in respect to rival groups. Cooperative collaboration was less predominant.

In searching for factors that could potentially lead to the convergence of management styles, organizational cultures were looked at (for a more thorough discussion of this see Section II.2). But it was concluded, that these are not able to reduce the observed national differences: "...deep-seated managerial assumptions...appear quite insensitive to the more transient culture of organizations" (Laurent, 1986:95). Nationality, in fact, has three times as powerful an influence on the management styles than any of the respondents' other characteristics (like age, education, function and type of company) (Laurent, 1986:93).

Two earlier projects throw a slightly different light on this issue (they examine different selections of countries). These are the studies by Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966) and England (1975). Here, about one third²³ of the total variance is explained by the culture and two thirds explained by individual and/or other characteristics (such as age, hierarchy, size of the company).

"We are accustomed to some large differences in prevailing myths about these countries: the icy-eyed Prussian, the fiery, aloof Don, the egalitarianism of the shopkeeper of France and England, Sweden's Middle Way, and the like. At least in their expressed convictions, however, these cleavages do not appear sharply. Managers' views on how to manage people are somewhat similar" (Haire, Ghiselli & Porter, 1969:328). The difficulty of extracting the nationality as the main factor explaining the variance is one of the many criticisms²⁴ made against such studies.

Hofstede's response to such criticisms is that "...I was given the opportunity of studying

²³ See for instance Haire, Ghiselli & Porter (1966:10ff).

²⁴ See for instance Warner (1985:217ff), Sorge & Warner (1986:37ff), Osgood (1967:29), Beres and Portwood (1981:303ff), Peiró (1989:286ff), Marz (1991:3ff), Heidenreich & Schmidt (1991), Roberts (1970:335ff) or Drenth & Groenendijk (1984:1201ff).

a large body of survey data about the values of people in over 50 countries around the world. These people worked in the local subsidiaries of one large multinational corporation - IBM. At first sight it may seem surprising that employees of a multinational - a very special kind of people - could serve for identifying differences in *national* value systems. However, from one country to another they represent almost perfectly matched samples: they are similar in all respects except nationality, which makes the effect of nationality differences in their answers stand out unusually clearly" (Hofstede, 1992:13). Special emphasis was put on comparing functionally equivalent samples: "Employees of multinational companies in general and of IBM in particular form attractive sources of information for comparing national traits, because they are so similar in respects other than nationality: their employer (with its common corporate culture), their kind of work, and - for matched occupations - their level of education. The only thing that can account for systematic and consistent differences between national groups *within* such a homogeneous multinational population is nationality itself - the national environment in which people were brought up *before* they joined this employer. Comparing IBM subsidiaries therefore shows national culture differences with unusual clarity" (Hofstede, 1992:251-2).

Hofstede's and Laurent's dimensions each add to the mosaic describing national management styles and they mostly complement each other. In spite of this and the earlier mentioned hazards inherent in a comparison, the following links between their dimensions can be suggested:

Hofstede	Laurent	Link
PDI	↔	OPS
		positive link (increasing PDI → increasing OPS) regarding France versus UK and Germany)
		OHRS
		positive link regarding France versus Germany and UK)
UAI	↔	OHRS
		positive link regarding France, Germany and UK)
IDV	↔	ORFS
		negative link regarding Germany, France and UK)
MAS	↔	no links

Let us review some more comparisons. Haire, Ghiselli & Porter (1966) collected about 3500 responses from 14 countries, including Britain, France and Germany. The three aspects that were looked at include leadership, the cognitive patterns in the role of the manager and motivation and satisfaction. Reference will be made to the first only.

Democratic (Theory Y of McGregor, 1960) versus autocratic (Theory X) leadership styles were assessed by confronting the respondents with eight statements (that had to be answered on a 5-point-Likert scale). These eight questions were grouped into four dimensions:

- CIL → belief in the individual's innate capacity for initiative and leadership
- SIO → belief in sharing information and objectives
- PM → belief in participative management and
- IC → belief in internal control (essentially self-control) rather than external control (punishment, reward, promotion).

The three countries score as follows²⁵ ("1" = authoritarian; "5" = democratic):

	CIL	SIO	PM	IC
France	2.4	4.0	3.8	3.8
Great Britain	2.7	3.8	3.5	3.6
Germany	2.4	3.2	3.5	3.9

These three countries (like most others) score very similarly on the Haire, Ghiselli & Porter dimensions: only with regard to the belief in sharing information and objectives (SIO), does France, and to a slightly lesser extent Great Britain, seem to be more democratic than Germany. Since nationality is a far less important factor than other individual characteristics when responding, the study has to be treated with caution for our

²⁵ The values are arrived at by simply calculating the arithmetic mean of the two answers forming each dimension.

purposes (which is to describe national variations in management²⁶).

It is, however, interesting that all three nationalities have a relatively low regard for leadership and initiative (CIL) and at the same time high regard for democratic and participative management styles (PM). A prerequisite for participative methods is a certain level of competence and initiative. Thus one would assume that managers with participative styles have a high regard for the capabilities of their subordinates. And this does not seem to be the case with the above stated scores. The authors of the study give some explanations for this contradiction (Haire, Ghiselli & Porter, 1966:24). In the 1950s and '60s the advantages of participative management styles were advocated in the management literature and in executive courses and this could have made many managers acquire such behaviours superficially while - on a deeper level - sticking to more authoritarian practices. Also, managers could have acknowledged the advantages of participative management less in terms of full utilization of subordinates' capabilities but rather as enforcing their own targets with less psychological resistance. Another explanation offered by Heller is, that "...although managers have few doubts about their own abilities, they have serious reservations concerning the abilities of those below them"²⁷.

In a very substantial and detailed study of 8 countries²⁸ and 129 companies with 1600 managers, Heller and Wilpert (1981) examine different influences²⁹ on decision making.

²⁶ In order to best illustrate the differences and similarities between national management styles it is necessary to exclude those studies that have not controlled (by screening out) such factors as industrial sector, size and type of the company, technology, occupational and organizational culture.

²⁷ Heller (1992:73) quotes Miles (1964:78).

²⁸ These are: The United States, United Kingdom, Netherlands, Germany, France, Sweden, Israel and Spain.

²⁹ These are such things as nationality, industry, environmental turbulence, organizational levels, responsibilities, job environment, decision tasks, personal characteristics, skill requirements, skill utilization, job satisfaction and the successfulness of the manager.

The research is built up on the boss-subordinate dyad³⁰, an unusual feature, that has rarely been achieved in previous research.

These are the levels under consideration:

- L1 refers to the highest hierarchical level immediately below the chief executive, or the board of management (superiors) and
- L2 consists of the most senior immediate subordinate of L1, i.e. their formal deputies or closest co-workers (subordinate managers).

One relevant conclusion of this project is, that "...there are significant differences in the decision-making behaviour of managers in the different countries. This may be considered as a potential corroboration of the alleged 'culture-bound' thesis (Child and Kieser, 1975) holding that organizational structures and processes differ as a consequence of cultural conditions and antecedents. However, we prefer to use the term 'nation' or 'national sample' rather than culture since the majority of studies, including our own, do not define cultural variables separately from considerations of nations as units of analysis. Our findings also answer the corollary question...as to how much of the differences found are due to overall country effects (10-15 per cent)." ³¹

The attitudes to participation are exactly the same in Great Britain and Germany (Heller & Wilpert, 1981:83ff). These two countries state what the consequences of participation

³⁰ "The boss-subordinate dyad...enables us to obtain independent corroboration of behavioural as well as attitudinal measures. The senior level's description of the amount of influence shared between it and the next level down the hierarchy can be checked against the subordinate's description of the same behaviour. Similarly, we can compare and contrast the skill judgements of both levels when they relate to the same set of data, namely the job requirements at level 1 and level 2. The dyadic unit of boss and immediate subordinate can also be used to obtain independent cross-level judgements that avoid the well-known social desirability distortions" (Heller & Wilpert, 1981:68).

³¹ Heller & Wilpert (1981:101-2). Heller & Wilpert also say, that the managers do change their decision-making style much more often because of the nature of the task than because they belong to different countries (p.102). The findings do, however, not support the country-clusters 'Nordic', 'Anglo-Saxon' and 'Latin-European' advocated by Haire, Ghiselli & Porter (1966).

are for them: 1. improved technical quality of decisions, 2. improved communication, 3. increased satisfaction. And the last mentioned consequence is to train subordinates and to facilitate change. Both levels (L1 and L2) of management were in agreement about this. France has slightly different priorities. The first mentioned consequence is: improved communication, following this is the training of subordinates (rank 3 for L2), the improvement of the technical quality of decisions (rank 2 for L2), increased satisfaction and of least importance is the facilitation of change.

The decision methods are examined by letting the respondents classify 5 different styles (from least to most participative) (Heller & Wilpert, 1981:95):

- D1 personal decision without detailed explanation
- D2 personal decision with detailed explanation
- D3 prior consultation
- D4 joint decision-making with subordinate
- D5 delegation of decision-making to subordinate

Hierarchical decision-making is used (in percentage):

		D1	D2	D3	D4	D5
France	L1	3	17	36	27	17
	L2	5	17	36	27	15
Great Britain	L1	13	17	36	21	14
	L2	8	27	30	24	11
Germany	L1	11	18	32	23	17
	L2	9	23	28	30	11

Lateral decision-making is used:

France	L1	35	19	29	14	3
	L2	26	20	35	18	2
Great Britain	L1	32	17	30	20	1
	L2	24	21	37	17	2
Germany	L1	30	25	26	16	3
	L2	25	23	24	22	2

With regard to hierarchical decision-making, the method used most often by the three countries at both levels is that of prior consultation (D3) (one exception: L2 of Germany). France uses the least participative method (D1) very rarely compared to Germany and Britain. German and French L1 managers also delegate slightly more.

The picture changes dramatically when lateral decision-making is considered. French, British and German L1 managers usually decide without detailed explanation, followed

closely by the prior consultation method. This trend is reversed by French and British L2 managers. "Lateral decision processes use substantially more communication and less influence-sharing than boss-subordinate processes. This finding is not unexpected and should not be interpreted critically. At the level at which this research was carried out, colleagues are nearly always specialists in different functional fields or deal with different aspects of the business. One would not expect delegation to make sense and joint decision-making has much less relevance than in boss-subordinate situations. The only surprise is the extensive use of L.1 decision-making 'without detailed explanation' [D1]...compared with 'detailed explanation'[D2]... . This finding probably justifies the complaints one often hears about poor communication between departments" (Heller & Wilpert, 1981:97-8).

When influence and power-sharing are examined as core variables, Heller & Wilpert (1981:99-101) arrive at the conclusion that French, British and German subordinate managers use more centralised methods than their respective French, British and German superiors. Taking both levels together, British managers use more centralised methods than the Germans who do not exhibit as decentralised a style as the French. Heller and Wilpert (1981:102-3) explain this last finding, which stands in contrast to other ones as follows: "Various earlier studies seem to suggest that French managers tend to be patriarchal and autocratic in their behaviour towards subordinates (Crozier, 1970; Gaulon, 1970; Gélinier, 1966; Priouret, 1968), a picture which is not confirmed by our data. One possible explanation for these divergent results may be found in the combined effects of our sampling technique and the characteristics of French managerial recruitment. Other authors have drawn attention to the comparatively high level of differentiation in French organizations (Brossard and Maurice, 1974; Daubigney and Silvestre, 1972). It is possible that among the highest managerial levels which form our sample, we find mutual trust and collaboration. Distrust and defensiveness become marked only at lower levels. This interpretation is congruent with the supposition that French society shows very notable class distinctions between its elite and lower social groups (Crozier, 1970). Top managers in French industry, however, share a very similar educational career and this may incline them to share influence with each other."

Skill utilization is measured both as a self-evaluation of L1 and L2 and as an L1 judgement of L2 underutilization and an L2 judgement of underutilization of L3. Unfortunately, there are no results available for Great Britain. Germany showed a considerably higher level of underutilization (between 59 to 66 %) than France (in the region 32 to 40 %) (Heller & Wilpert, 1981:118). The reader is referred to Chapter V for more details of this study.

With regard to job satisfaction, French managers were the most satisfied (relative to all 8 countries) and the British were the least satisfied (Heller & Wilpert, 1981:88 and 125).

Jaques Horovitz offers detailed suggestions, how British, German and French management could combine some of their practices. In his research about the control systems within 52 medium-sized local companies of these three countries he found the following differences (Horovitz, 1980:53ff and 147ff):

Major structural dimensions	Great Britain	Germany	France
Division of labour	By product-market	By function/division	By function
Degree of decentralization	High	Low	Low
Coordination by committee	High	Medium	Low
Top mgt.meeting frequency	Month	Week	Week
Amount of central staff	Low	High	High
Size of operational units	Small	Large	Large
Degree of specialization of top management	Low	High	High

1. The British structure is somewhat flexible, oriented towards autonomous product-market units in a holding company framework with a limited central staff and a high level of decentralisation in decision-making. Bottom-up strategic planning is emphasised as well as annual budgets.

British top control is less frequent and detailed. It is oriented towards financial matters and quite effective in that area. Production control is less emphasised and less successful. Marketing control works better. Control is used much more as a guiding instrument than a recording device. It relies heavily on line management self control and is done by hand, rather than relying on centralised computerised data.

2. The German structure, either functional or divisional, is pyramidal, somewhat rigid, and relies on a large central staff. Many decisions are centralised. Planning is oriented towards operational efficiency through project programming and medium-range operations planning.

German control is more frequent and detailed. It is oriented towards operational efficiency and production and is effective here. It relies on short term programming and necessitates heavy central machinery. Self control is not the rule. Control is often still viewed as a surveillance rather than a guiding instrument. Systematic and automated, it is not so successful in marketing and people seem to resent such surveillance. However new tendencies appear in the move from 'Kontrolle' to 'Controlling'.

3. The French structure is mainly functional; although tending towards the German characteristics, it is less formalised. Long-range planning is mistrusted and not used much. French control is in between, leaning towards the German system with less systematicness and much less effectiveness. Except among a modern minority, it is viewed as a recording instrument often not preceded by adequate planning.

The key characteristics of top management control that differentiate the three countries are as follows (Horovitz, 1978:17):

	Great Britain	Germany	France
Uses of Control			
- to stick to the plan	medium	high	high
- to police operations	low	high	high
- to reward and/or sanction	low	low	low
Primary Functional Emphasis	Finance	Production	Production
Control Substantially Decentralised	yes	no	no
Degree of Detail	overall	very detailed	detailed
Time Orientation	future	past	past
Degree of Quantification	some qualitative	quantitative	quantitative
Frequency	month	week	week
Involvement of Central staff	low	high	high
Degree of Systematization and Standardization	high	high	low

With regard to what each country can learn from the other Horovitz suggests³²:

- The British could learn about control of production from the Germans;
- Germans could learn about greater flexibility (namely in the field of marketing) and about placing more attention on strategic moves from the British;
- French managers could pick up production planning and control practices from their German colleagues and look at British practices for the financial and marketing planning and control issues.

³² For more details readers are referred to Horovitz (1980:185-190) or (1978:16-22).

I.2.2. The qualitative studies

"Heaven on earth is a hotel, where Germans are in charge of the organization, the French run the kitchen and the service is provided by the British. Hell on earth is where the French organize, the British cook and the service is provided by the Germans."

Andreas Bittner³³

Researchers from the quantitative stream cannot offer detailed knowledge about every country under examination in their studies. This is different within the qualitative type of studies which mostly cover one or very few countries. Here, usually, the researcher has many years of relevant knowledge about the national environment within which the organization under examination is based. While the examination of one or more other countries (within the quantitative research) sharpens national sensitivity, the profound experiences of the researcher's home nation usually included into the qualitative studies are a very valuable addition because the results are interpreted and explained on a deeper level. Instead of describing and measuring artifacts and manifest differences, the main purpose of qualitative studies is to explain and understand.

Whether the described phenomena are in effect national characteristics is another question. Just as within the quantitative cross-national management studies is culture or nationality very readily offered as an explaining factor. When describing differences in management values, styles and behaviour, many researchers within the quantitative stream make much effort to screen out other explaining factors such as cross-country differences in the organization, organizational culture, professional status of the respondents, and alike. If one describes the managerial style within one organization, such considerations are sometimes³⁴ left out. When Trepo (1973) explains the underlying attitudes towards authority in France, he is not only confining himself to France. One can, at least in part,

³³ Andreas Bittner, 1993:41 (translated).

³⁴ Not so in the case of Crozier (1964) who after comparing the French organization with organizations in the US and Soviet Union came to the conclusion that the observed dysfunctions within the French bureaucracy are mainly ascribed to French culture.

explain German attitudes towards authority accordingly. While still remaining an extremely interesting piece of research, one must critically reflect on the national exclusivity proposed by the authors.

The findings from qualitative cross-national research are often difficult to generalize because of the limited representativeness of the organization or group of managers under examination. Even if a certain representativeness is assured, then there is the additional potential problem that a comparable organization within another country has not been under investigation³⁵. The fragmented nature thus makes the comparison of different national managerial styles difficult when confining oneself to qualitative studies only. In an effort to obtain a fuller or more organic picture one may be forced to consult rather dated studies (e.g. Granick, 1962).

We propose to use both quantitative and qualitative research in a complementary way for the description and understanding of national management styles.

1.2.2.1. The French management style

Michael Crozier studied French bureaucracies and one of his aims was to show, that the organizational structures and behaviours are strongly influenced by the cultural norms of a society, in his case the French culture.

Firstly, the importance of strict rules and consequently impersonality is stressed: The "...work behaviour...is minutely prescribed. All operations to be performed, the way to proceed, and even their sequential succession, are specified. ... As a consequence...nothing seems to be left to the arbitrary whim and individual initiative of an organization member. The daily behaviour of everyone, as well as his chances of having to perform a different routine later, can be predicted exactly. In such a system...hierarchical dependence relationships tend to disappear or at least to decline

³⁵ Not so for instance in the case of the English tobacco industry (3 firms) which was compared to Crozier's research of the (nationalised) French tobacco industry by Clark (1979). The organization of both countries have a comparable market position (equivalent to monopoly) and are of comparable size and use the same technology.

considerably. Superior's roles will be limited to controlling the application of rules. As a counterpart, subordinates also have at their disposal no possibility of pressure, no bargaining power over supervisors, inasmuch as their own behaviour is entirely set by rules. Every member of the organization, therefore, is protected both from his superiors and from his subordinates. He is, on the one hand, totally deprived of initiative and completely controlled by rules imposed on him from the outside. On the other hand, he is completely free from personal interference by any other individual. . . . [R]apports have lost their affective significance for the supervisor as well as for the subordinates, and...they exist only on a conventional basis, with little emotional commitment from either side" (Crozier, 1964:188-9). This minimises intervention into one's field of work and is an answer to the high uncertainty avoidance of the French. A second aspect is the concentration of decision-making at the top of the organization. This again intensifies impersonality (separation of people affected and people deciding) and "...is the second means of eliminating discretionary personal power within an organization. The price...is still greater rigidity. People who make decisions cannot have direct firsthand knowledge of the problems they are called upon to resolve. On the other hand, the field officers who know these problems can never have the power necessary to adjust, to experiment, and to innovate" (Crozier, 1964:190). The high power distance and the strong view of an organization as a hierarchical relationship system supports such organizational practices. The consequence of these two characteristics is that the distance between different hierarchies is considerable and the isolation between them is immense. Thus the third feature is one of high conformity within hierarchies. "Deviant impulses will be severely sanctioned, and the discipline imposed by the peer group will be one of the main forces, apart from the rules, which regulate behaviour. The importance of the peer group was marked...by the remarkable concordance of answers among members of the same group for all relevant matters, and also by the discrepancy between private opinion, which could be deviant, and publicly expressed opinion, which had to follow the official line. This pressure of the peer group is one of the most relevant factors for understanding the bureaucrats' esprit de corps and ritualism. The displacement of goals that is basic to them could not take place if it were not enforced by the peer group as a way of protecting itself against other groups and against the organization" (Crozier, 1964:191). The fourth

element is, that parallel power emerges and strata of experts are often privileged from this point of view. "Individuals or groups who control a source of uncertainty, in a system of action, where nearly everything is predictable, have at their disposal a significant amount of power over those whose situations are affected by this uncertainty. Paradoxically, in a bureaucratic system of organization, parallel power increases in direct ratio to its rarity" (Crozier, 1964:192).

Other researchers support some of these findings in a selection of comparisons between the Latin and the Anglo-Saxon types of organizations³⁶ and they describe the French organization³⁷ as one of centralization, with a rather rigid stratification, bureaucratic control (impersonal rules), conflicts (around zones of uncertainty) and lack of adaptability. These four elements of Crozier reinforce each other in a vicious circle. Impersonality, tight rules, centralization and little participation obstruct initiative and collective discussion at the bottom of the organization. Resulting conflicts are avoided by passing on decisions to the top, which increases centralization. The emergence of parallel power threatens other organizational members and increases centralization further.

Crozier explains his elements with three underlying factors in the French culture. There is a lack of constructive collectivism. This becomes apparent in the sparse interaction between different social classes, in the considerable social distances and in the marked mistrust and permanent power struggles between social classes. The roots of this behaviour is seen in the centralism and absolutism of France in the Middle Ages when any kind of emergence of groups outside of the power centre was prevented. Also the tax system was developed in a way which raised the fear of being reported to the authorities by a neighbour. So the kind of solidarity that could emerge is "...a negative kind of solidarity, directed against superiors and against other groups³⁸. It is extremely successful in preventing any attempt at leadership within the group. For Frenchmen, the delinquent

³⁶ See Lammers and Hickson (1979:422-3).

³⁷ The analysis is made by Clark (1979). The findings are also supported by Kuty (1979) and by Maurice (1979). All these studies are in: Lammers & Hickson (1979).

³⁸ It is probably this point that Hofstede has captured with the low scores on the masculinity index, indicating that good working relationships and cooperation are important.

community is the model of all collective activities in which they participate. In a recent paper, Pitts summarizes its importance as follows: The school peer group is the prototype of the solidarity groups which exist in France beyond the nuclear family and the extended family. They are characterized by jealous egalitarianism among the members...conspiracy of silence against superior authority, incapacity to take any initiative outside of the interpretations and accommodation with the directives of superior authority, in an effort to create for each member a zone of autonomy, of caprice, of creativity³⁹. De Tocqueville writes⁴⁰: "But the barriers between the French nobility and the other classes, though quite easily traversed, were always fixed and plain to see; so conspicuous, indeed, as to exasperate those against whom they were erected" and Goblot⁴¹ summarises that bourgeois society in France is ruled by two great principles: the barrier and levelling. The second of Crozier's three cultural phenomena is the fear of face-to-face contacts and of dependence relationships. Protection against intervention from outside (whether from superiors⁴² or from the state) is considerable and even within the group every kind of emergence of leadership is opposed. "Groups...are extremely anxious to prevent any one of their members from raising himself above the others. If a group member shows initiative, he risks being deserted by his fellows and being deeply humiliated. Apathy, the refusal to participate...is a rational response if people want, above all, to evade conflict situations and to escape dependence relationships" (Crozier, 1964:220). Conflicts are only resolved openly with higher echelons with which there is no direct contact⁴³.

³⁹ Crozier (1964:219) quotes Pitts (1963).

⁴⁰ De Tocqueville (1955:152) quoted in Crozier (1964:219).

⁴¹ Goblot (1925:126-7) quoted in Crozier (1964:218).

⁴² That organizations should not interfere with people's private lives is typical for feminine countries such as France (in Hofstede's definition) and has been illustrated above.

⁴³ On the other hand, Harris & Moran (1989:452) write: "...the French, partly because they live in a more closed society with relatively little social mobility, are used to conflict. They are aware that some positions are irreconcilable and that people must live with these irreconcilable opinions. They, therefore, tend not to mind conflict, and sometimes enjoy it. They even respect others who carry it off with style and get results. The French are also less concerned about negative reactions from those with

Within face-to-face relationships a certain tolerance prevails.

The tendency towards centralised power and the weak position of the people possessing power is the third cultural factor. "People on top theoretically have a great deal of power and often much more power than they would have in other, more authoritarian societies. But these powers are not very useful, since people on top can act only in an impersonal way and can in no way interfere with the subordinate strata. They cannot, therefore, provide real leadership on a daily basis. If they want to introduce change, they must go through the long and difficult ordeal of a crisis. Thus, although they are all-powerful because they are at the apex of the whole centralized system, they are made so weak by the pattern of resistance of the different isolated strata that they can use their power only in truly exceptional circumstances" (Crozier, 1964:225). There is a need for clear demarcation of authority and for centralising power at the top, but the protection of personal privileges and the avoidance of personal conflicts makes it necessary to construct a complicated system of formal communication and of tight rules, which in turn obstructs the kind of power necessary for innovations. Frenchmen "...cannot bear the omnipotent authority which they feel is indispensable if any kind of co-operative activity is to succeed. It can even be argued that this dilemma has been perpetuated by the long tradition of the French bureaucratic patterns, whose strengths comes from their meeting two contradictory and equally potent aims, preserving the independence of the individual and insuring the rationality of collective action" (Crozier, 1964:222).

"At the helm of French companies is the président-directeur-général (PDG), who decides, executes, and controls company policy. The PDG is what British and U.S. companies would regard as chairman of the board and chief executive rolled into one, or the German *vorstandsvorsitzender* (chairman of the executive committee) plus operating executive. The PDG is not answerable to anyone. Votes are rare; if a proposal is put to vote, it is tantamount to a vote of no confidence in the PDG"⁴⁴.

Jean-Louis Servan-Schreiber states that the German Vorstand (board of directors) appear

whom they are in conflict".

⁴⁴ Barsoux and Lawrence (1991:62). See also Lane (1989:104-5).

strange to the Frenchmen. "We [the French] prefer one mediocre general to two brilliant generals. We value the lonely and sovereign decision very much. In contrast, Germans almost feel they have to apologize for being the head. Here [in France] the principle of monarchy has remained very alive"⁴⁵.

Consequently, the outlook of French work teams is, according to Nicola Phillips (1992:14-5) that they "...tend to be a collection of specialists operating under a clearly-defined leader. Group members will have clearly defined roles, and the leader will be the one who takes decisions. Team spirit can often be very strong, but is not usually based on a need to care for other members of the team. Rather, team spirit reflects the need to be successful, complete the task, and show what each of the individual team members can do".

Georges Trepo explains the pitfalls for participative management by looking at the underlying attitudes towards authority in France. Children are brought up by adults in a very strict manner. While little effort is made to actually control the child completely, an apparent conformity is expected. This can lead to the child retreating to a world within himself (Trepo, 1973:77). "The frequency of double standards ('Do as I say, not as I do') and the inconsistency in reward and punishment (according to the mood of the parents) lead children to believe that rules are generally violated - that in the end only force and power really matter"⁴⁶. Abused power exercised by the parents make the children bitter and cynical about rules. "We may feel that when we are deceived, we relapse into a period of our life when we had not yet learned to defend ourselves against trickery; we become a child again"⁴⁷. Identification with adults or other people embodying authority is conflict ridden and insecure and hence form the target of aggression. At the same time, however, the child needs approval or disapproval from

⁴⁵ Altwegg (1992:29); this interview with Jean-Louis Servan-Schreiber is translated from German.

⁴⁶ Wylie (1963) quoted by Trepo (1973:77).

⁴⁷ Leites (1962:532) quoted by Trepo (1973:77).

authority figures which diminishes its own authority. Later as an adult, therefore the stance is "...how to keep rebelling while in fact conforming..." (Trepo, 1973:77). The French civil service as described by Crozier protects against the anxieties of dependency through depersonalization.

Seen against this background, the characteristics of the French management style are easily explainable. Leadership of subordinates can thus be ambivalent. Bypassing a hierarchical level is a beneficial tool for controlling the subordinate (no anxieties about control and the subordinate is relieved of responsibility) and the manager two or more levels below is well informed. "Intermediate echelons are thus used as information relays (up and down). They are buffers, tension reducers between the chief and the lower echelons which he has decided to hold responsible. The lower echelons may be in awe of the president but still prefer to discuss problems with him rather than with their immediate bosses for the same reason.... For an executive resentful of authority, being just such a figure himself is disquieting. He does not feel happy exercising authority, he has guilt feelings, he has reservations about reaching unpopular decisions. He identifies ambivalently with domineering figures from the past. He may not want to be like them, but he has no model which teaches him to be a saviour rather than an executioner. As a result he oscillates between abdication and personalized attacks. His leadership style becomes inconsistent. This is of course easier when dealing with lower echelons because of the difference in age and status, not to mention the geographical distance and the fact that they are not supposed to be in day-to-day contact" (Trepo, 1973:78).

Being the person at the top is to be 'smarter'⁴⁸ (intellectualization of leadership) rather

⁴⁸ "Top French managers are known for brain-power tuned in one of France's highly competitive grandes écoles. For years, you were nobody unless you had been trained at the Ecole Nationale d'Administration or the Ecole Polytechnique, a technology and engineering school. Graduates of the Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales or even of business courses from the better universities are slowly being admitted into this 'nomenklatura' - a Paris-based elite that dominates French finance and industry" ("European Management - Discordant national anthems", 1988:107).

"And because of...[this] distinctiveness, the French managerial model may have problems in the new global environment. For example, L'Air Liquide's Pascal Eyt-Dessus speculated that grandes écoles graduates have resisted moving outside of France because their credentials abroad would not elicit automatic admiration, and they would have to consort with those they considered intellectual inferiors" (Barsoux

than to be leading by exercising consistent and constructive authority. This again fosters depersonalization and is encouraged by the French culture. The dependency of the boss is denied by an omnipotent attitude and a superior style.

Barsoux and Lawrence (1991:62) demonstrate the clear connection between the intellectual manager and organizational centralization: "Senior executives in France believe they owe their high position to their intelligence and cunning. It therefore follows that they should make all the critical decisions and that they should be told everything so they can check other people's decisions".

I.2.2.2. The British management style

The above mentioned comparison between Latin and Anglo-Saxon types of organization describe the British firm⁴⁹ as much more decentralised and less rigidly stratified. Bureaucratic rules are applied in a more flexible way, there is not so much conflict and the capacity for change seems to be greater.

Explicit rules are less important in the British society because "British organizations maintain their effectiveness by relying on the old pattern of deference that binds inferiors and superiors within the limits of the necessary cohesion...their respect for traditional deference patterns makes it possible to maintain simpler organizational patterns. There are fewer impersonal rules; the leaders' authority, since it is well accepted, makes up for this" (Crozier, 1964:233). In Britain there is an understanding "...that those who hold high positions be given generalized deference and that those born to high places should retain it" (Lipset, 1963 quoted in Crozier, 1964:234). In Britain the "...definition of a role is primarily a matter of tradition and practice [and not of documentation, as in US]. Tacit understanding, accumulated experience, and precedent add up to a well-defined role for the British manager..." (Inkson et al., 1970:362).

David Granick (1962) places British management close to its traditional approach to administration. People should remain talented amateurs with a rather broad view, leaving the details to others. Recruitment - as also management - is on the basis of personal qualities (character and common sense). University qualifications are rare⁵⁰ among British managers and they also make seldom use (Granick, 1962:244ff) of the wide variety of professional qualifications that are available in the UK (for instance in accounting, law, engineering, company secretaryship). Post experience management courses often take place in the universities, polytechnics or colleges and mainly consist of first degree programmes (Bachelor). Also, more than 50 % of all UK companies do not offer any in-

⁴⁹ This description goes back to Clark (1979), Aiken & Bacharach (1979), Tannenbaum & Cooke (1979) and to Child & Kieser (1979), all in Lammers & Hickson (1979).

⁵⁰ Eales (1987:40): 12,000 of estimated 90,000 annual intake (<15 %) possess a university degree and in 1985 only 3.5 % possessed a degree in Business.

house management training⁵¹. "One study (BIM/CBI) found that in companies employing more than 1,000 people, only 10 per cent of senior managers had training. On average, a British manager gets only one day's training a year" (Eales, 1987:40). Language abilities are low (less than "...1 in 5 boardroom directors of leading British companies speaks a foreign language and two thirds have no experience of working abroad"⁵²).

According to Kellaway (23.6.1993) one strategy of many British boards is, however, to invite foreign directors. The headhunting firm Whitehead Mann forecasts, that within the foreseeable future, 84 per cent of the top 100 British companies will have at least one foreign national on their board (at the moment 40 % already have a foreign non-executive). More than half (60 %) of the 44 % that are trying to fill the next slot are looking at Europe for this (as opposed to US nationals, who have been more plentiful in the past).

Regarding British management style Christel Lane (1989:107) states that there "...is wide agreement that control in British business organizations is relatively dispersed and that subordinates are allowed to participate in decision-making at all levels. Top management displays a willingness to delegate to lower management which is supposedly based on trust that the latter will execute tasks to the expected standard".

Lane explains the democratic managerial style of the British in the following way: the "...higher degree of delegation on the part of British, as compared with German, top management, must partly be a result of the peculiar patterns of growth, experienced by British companies in recent decades. These have led to a very distinctive organizational structure. Whereas German companies have grown organically through expanding activities by direct investment in capital equipment, British companies have grown through mergers. This pattern has created large firms, consisting of a number of small subsidiaries, which have not undertaken a thorough rationalization of production activity.

⁵¹ Eales (1987:40) quotes the following two studies: Handy et al.(1987) as well as Constable & McCormick (1987).

⁵² Taylor (9.7.1992) quoting from Korn & Ferry International (1992).

Such a structure would necessitate a more decentralised mode of decision-making, regardless what sentiments top management have on this matter" (Lane, 1989:108). And Lane also explains, why paternalist management style is rare in Britain. "Unlike France and, to a lesser degree, Germany, Britain has experienced a pattern of economic development during the postwar period which favoured the creation of large firms and militated against the reproduction of small firms. This has led to a situation where Britain has the most underdeveloped 'small firm' sector of the three societies, both in terms of employees and of share of production. As paternalism thrives particularly in the smaller, family-owned firm the British pattern of economic development has not provided a fertile soil for its perpetuation" (Lane, 1989:109).

Planning and control are exercised on very moderate levels: "...top executives take an intuitive approach to management and this treatment drips down through the entire organization. There is no effort to handle what...[one well-regarded English manager]...considers to be the real management tasks: those of determining specifications for executive jobs lower in the organization, establishing measurement devices for how well these jobs are being done, and exercising systematic control over performance" (Granick, 1962:251⁵³). Granick also mentions both a strong belief in decentralization and the conservatism of British management. The British managers have been pictured as low uncertainty avoiding and when presenting Hofstede's dimensions it was mentioned, that uncertainty avoidance is not to be confused with risk avoidance. Granick undertakes to describe the reserve towards risk by dividing British managers up into five categories. The Oxford- and Cambridge trained arts students⁵⁴ are influenced by the tradition of teamwork and noblesse oblige (Granick, 1962:135) therewith limiting bold ventures. Since business has not been the most prestigious field of endeavour for the brightest young

⁵³ Others, of course, have a different opinion and praise British managers for their strategic thinking (see Kennedy, 04.1988:46).

⁵⁴ Alternatively: the "...British stress social and political skill, with a little bit of accounting and economics thrown in, perhaps as in-house training" ("European Management - Discordant national anthems" in: *The Economist*, Oct. 15, 1988, p.108).

students⁵⁵ "...of good family, 'public' school, and Oxford or Cambridge..." (Granick, 1962:97) it has attracted only the second best, who in turn are less bold in risk taking⁵⁶. The second type of managers are those who came up the production route and are "...likely to be quite at sea when departing too far from the traditional" (Granick, 1962:136). Within this second cluster is also the type of university engineer, who "...in a society which applauds the amateur...begins with a feeling of inferiority. He is the sort who, while operating a provincial manufacturing concern, lives in daily fear of the misstep which will allow the mysterious forces of the City to arrange a takeover. This psychological base is scarcely a solid foundation for a bold business policy" (Granick, 1962:137). The third cluster is made up of chartered accountants. "Their bias...is reputed to be that of saying no. As Lord Keynes wrote in The General Theory, 'If human nature felt no temptation to take a chance, no satisfaction (profit apart) in constructing a factory...there might not be much investment merely as a result of cold calculation'. While expecting some shining exceptions, one in general would not look for active risk-taking from men with this training" (Granick, 1962:138). The forth group is made up of heirs with substantial or controlling ownership who are most entrepreneurial and risk-taking. And the declining fifth group is made up of those without university or professional education but with experience only. This last group is also inclined to take risks. The environment in which these five groups operate is described by Granick as one

⁵⁵ These are the civil or foreign service, independent professions like medicine, journalism, politics or law and the university (Granick, 1962:97).

⁵⁶ This has changed today. "An important feature of modern British society is the acknowledgement that business achievement can be a goal worth pursuing. For the first time, business leaders rival the aristocracy in prestige" (Johnson & Moran, 1992:67).

Servan-Schreiber expands this to other countries and says: "We live in societies that enjoy peace. The influence of the military, once dominant, is decreasing. The great religious leaders have disappeared within Europe. The political class appears in the media but - to put it mildly - at least as much in negative as in positive terms. Even the intellectuals hardly play a role any more: the stultification of society by television has banished the debates from society. What is over ? The artists and the industrialists. In the area of culture we live through a renaissance of creative work. The artists, actors and musicians, fill the imagination of the masses. What remains are the industrialists, who...are at the top of the units of production. They develop initiatives, create jobs and wealth" (Altwegg, 1992:29; translated).

of social responsibility rather than one with aggressiveness towards competitors or employees of their own firm. This is because of the influence of the British civil service. Marketing is looked upon with ambivalence in "...the traditional house of the shopkeeper" (Granick, 1962:139). Hofstede and Granick use the term individualism differently. While the British score high on this dimension of Hofstede, Granick emphasizes the collective values of British managers⁵⁷: the "...committee is a perfectly respectable British institution. Managers dine together at noon, in contrast to France...where they religiously return home to the family setting" (Granick, 1962:326). Laurent portrays the British managers as having a low notion of their political role in society and Granick also finds signs "...between neutrality and strong hostility to the concept of managerial engagement in community activities" (Granick, 1962:331).

Nicola Phillips (1992:15) writes that the "...British and their love of committees are the butt of many jokes. Britons seem to function best in a secure group with an established order. Despite strong individual needs for autonomy, they are often reluctant to take responsibility or to be held accountable for the decisions that are made. They seem to prefer to let the group take the strain, or to be told exactly what to do".

Jean-Louis Barsoux and Peter Lawrence describe the British management style as generalist (as opposed to specialist). Management is taken seriously from a certain hierarchy onwards, from where technical orientation of the job vanishes quickly (in Germany many managers are engineers and are thus much more technically oriented). Informality plays a big role (in contrast to the situation in France and Germany) and Barsoux and Lawrence differ from Laurent on the political awareness of the British managers: "They take pride in showing off their ability to shape, influence and decide..." (Barsoux & Lawrence, 1990:110). They manage in a humanitarian way, which goes back to the aristocratic tradition: "Management in Britain is not just about getting your way,

⁵⁷ The different results from the quantitative (statistical) studies and the more qualitative studies may be caused by the different methods of data gathering: one tests attitudes/values as expressed in questionnaires and the other observes procedures or conducts interviews in a firm.

but about getting your way without upsetting anybody in the process" (Barsoux & Lawrence, 1990:110). Persuading others is as central as is humour, which offers many possibilities to distance oneself from professional life, to dampen tension, to disarm accusations, to deliver unpalatable news. Take "...the production director who reacts to the suggestion that the firm manufacture rather than buy-in a simple component, with: 'Let's stick to what we're good at...losing vast sums of money'" (Barsoux & Lawrence, 1990:111). British managers also view conflict negatively: open conflict is seen as ungentlemanly (in contrast to Germany, where managers are more critical and desire conflict). This goes together with the high tolerance for ambiguity, which was already mentioned by Hofstede. Strategies develop intuitively and have "...more to do with great men impression-mongering over lunch, than with little people preparing data-ridden reports" (Barsoux & Lawrence, 1990:115). The management style is person-driven and not systems driven and British managers are selected more for their character and experience than their education. Barsoux and Lawrence (1990:120-1) also attest to having witnessed a change in British management towards greater professionalism: "In the 1980s a new breed of manager seemed to emerge: one more committed to work, more prepared to sacrifice personal life, and more mobile. The pace hotted up. Money-making, naked ambition and job-hopping became respectable. Increased professionalisation and salaries have been accompanied by a change of status. This has produced a virtuous circle of increased self-esteem, better recruits, greater managerial consciousness...".

Budde, Child, Francis and Kieser (1982:14-6) state, that "British managers tended to attach greater importance than West German managers to the following reasons for pursuing high profitability: as a basis for attracting good managers to the company; to provide a larger cake for everybody; to maintain high morale among the workforce; and because it is a yardstick of efficiency". And the British also stress more strongly the benefits for personal development when asked about motives for pursuing corporate growth. More evidence for a personal style can be taken from the finding, that "British managers are more convinced that those with the best ideas should be given influence regardless of their formal position. This difference appears to be consistent with their stronger concern for attracting and developing talented younger managers and with careers

in general" (Budde et al., 1982:19). British decision-making is less centralized. While acknowledging the influence of national cultures Budde, Child, Francis and Kieser offer alternative (nonculturalist) explanations: "For example, insofar as West German firms have been remarkably more successful than most of their British equivalents, then perhaps their senior managers do not need to occupy their minds with the problem of satisfying their subordinates' expectations. If less attention is paid to subordinate well-being by West German managers, this could also in part be a reflection of the greater concern which ultimately must be attached to shareholder welfare because of the more dominant position occupied by financial institutions. Our finding that in the strategic investment decision-making area the West German companies had rather longer-established departments to handle such decisions may account to some extent for their greater use of formal procedures, since over time the departments concerned may have evolved more procedures to handle such decisions..." (Budde et al., 1982:28⁵⁸).

Rosabeth Moss Kanter's world leadership survey with 12,000 managers from 25 countries (France:446; Germany:134 and Great Britain:560) cluster managers into 3 different groups (with some cultural islands that stand for themselves). According to this (Kanter, 1991:153), Germany and France are in the same group, which have as common traits the most cosmopolitan views (being the most multilingual and having the most international experience). Great Britain, on the other hand, is characterized by a preference for family over work and with the least cosmopolitan views. On an agenda suggesting further topics for conversation they mention as the first topic: "Look for Germany for role models of companies 'fit' for global competition. German cosmopolitanism is associated with less reliance on government and more cooperation with suppliers and customers. Working effectively across boundaries could come more easily to German companies, giving them an edge in the global economy. In contrast, companies in English-speaking countries, including the United States, are still comparatively inward-focused" (Kanter, 1991:164). In this study, the editor of the British Journal 'Business' is quoted saying: "The British, however, still have difficulties to overcome. Their insularity, their neglect of education

⁵⁸ For the correlation between age and standardization/formalization they quote Starbuck (1965) as well as Inkson, Pugh and Hickson (1970).

at both the personal and state level, and their paucity of language skills are all major failings. Mistrust of foreigners is still a powerful factor operating against the country's longer term interests⁵⁹.

They also argue, that cultural affinity is the major determinant of managers' views, and not geographical proximity. The survey indicates, "...that the emergence of a global culture of management is more dream than reality" (Kanter, 1991:153).

⁵⁹ Christopher Parkes (Editor of *Business*) quoted in: Kanter (1991:152).

I.2.2.3. The German management style

John Breuer & Pierre de Bartha⁶⁰ (1993a, 1990) refer parts of their description of German and French management back to the brain research of Rolf Schirm (1991) (see Table I.6).

	French management		German management
	Brain-stem-Control (sociable, intuitive, ability to empathize)	Diencephalon-Control (dynamic, willing to take risks, decisive)	Cerebrum-Control (behaving logic-rational)
interpersonal relationships	contact seeks and finds contact, has a feel for people, is popular	dominance seeks superiority, possesses natural authority, likes to compare him-/herself with others	distance needs distance, gains only by knowing somebody over a longer time, lets nobody look in on him/her
predominant dimension of time	past builds on the well-known, decides on grounds of experiences, avoids radical change	present grasps the moment, decides spontaneously, is of thrilling dynamism	future must think through all the consequences, does nothing without plan, tightly divides up time
predominant mental ability	sense has intuition and feeling, grasps signals from the unconscious, can rely on first impressions	understand thinks in a concrete and practical way, recognises the feasible, tends to try out, is good at improvising	organize thinks systematically, has a large capacity for abstraction, commands the language as a tool
Success through	sympathy	enthusiasm	convincing

Table I.6: Brain research by Rolf Schirm (1991)

⁶⁰ Both are directors of the Management Consultancy JPB - La Synergie Franco-Allemande (Paris) and they specialise in German-French Synergy management.

They notice that the German style is methodic and systematic (repeatability) whereas the French managers are proud of their ability to react to unforeseen situations. The French manage in a rather emotional way while the Germans are more pragmatic, precisely evaluating reason and utility. Trust is gained in France by building up personal relationships (sympathy, originality, fantasy, flexibility or extensive cultural knowledge makes a lasting impression). Trust in German business life is instead built on quality of work and predictability of action (all rational factors). The German style is logical and rational whereas the French one is characterized by the first two columns of Table I.6 above, namely a sociable, intuition-led dynamic manner. Efficiency is thus distributed differently: Germans are happy if the entire agenda is coped with according to the plan whereas French attribute efficiency if more than expected of the only vaguely mapped out agenda has been achieved.

Breuer & de Bartha (1993a:12) therefore predict conflict in respect of the following features (see Table I.7) of the:

GERMANS	FRENCH
competence related leadership style	person-related leadership style
delegation of tasks	delegation of targets
decisions taken by consensus	decision by directive
exact notion of time	global notion of time
long planning phase	short planning phase
short and strict execution	long and flexible carrying out
linear and inductive thinking	associative and deductive thinking
well thought through concepts	global and intuitive estimations
realism = efficiency	nothing is impossible ("on verra bien!" ⁶¹)

Table I.7: Predicted areas of conflict between French and German managers

⁶¹ Breuer & de Bartha (1993b:50).

An ongoing project by Derek Pugh and Christian Scholz sets out to examine the problems generated at the interface between the British and German work systems and cultures. The structure of their project is shown in Table I.8 below and is based on the comparisons by Warner and Campbell (1993), Lane (1991), Lawrence (1987) and Randlesome (1990). These areas of polarization were presented to Chief Executives or managers of similar level within German subsidiaries in Britain with the aim of determining which of the issues stressed by the literature are actually raised by the managers as important differences. The interim results (only ones available to date) show that aspects within the area of organizational behaviour (differences in attitudes of staff and interpersonal behaviour), qualifications of human resources and management practices are most commonly referred to (Ebster-Grosz and Pugh, 1992:6).

	GERMAN	BRITISH
The Business Environment		
Financial systems and takeovers:	long term strong manufacturing base bank equity and credit finance organic growth high corporate taxation	short term weak manufacturing base stock market equity legitimacy of takeovers low corporate taxation
Political and Social Systems		
Market system:	social market economy	free enterprise
Political environment:	industrial self-regulation state de-centralized environment stable trade associations and Chambers of Commerce are statutory and have high status and high involvement	political polarization state-centralized environment unstable trade associations and Chambers of Commerce are voluntary with low status and low involvement

Table I.8: The German and British business systems polarization of characteristics, adapted from Ebster-Grosz and Pugh, 1992 (table to be continued on next page).

	GERMAN	BRITISH
Human Resources		
Qualifications of personnel:	vocational training apprenticeships education is vocational in overall character work roles more fluid	individual training decline of traditional apprenticeship experience accepted as qualification education for education's sake
Biggest difference at supervisory level:	'Meister'	strong task differentiation
Biggest difference at management level:	larger proportion of graduates larger proportion of PHD specialists technical research high status and industry linked	largely poorly educated foreman lower proportion of graduates generalists without University education research lower status and less industry linked
Organizational Behaviour		
Attitudes of staff:	industrial democracy: 'Mitbestimmung' collective bargaining continuity of employment	union traditions versus exclusion of unions (1980s) adversarial style closer to shop floor career progress more likely through change of employer
Interpersonal relationships:	focus on work relationships as priority	focus on interpersonal relationships as priority
Management		
Company ownership:	large presence of medium size owner managed firms tendency to high vertical integration	impersonal ownership through finance prevails tendency to lower vertical integration
Management style:	more concern with operations emphasis on sales and sales volume	more concern with strategy emphasis on profit and marketing

Table I.8: The German and British business systems polarization of characteristics, adapted from Ebster-Grosz and Pugh, 1992 (table continued from previous page).

Ebster-Grosz and Pugh (1992) see the considerable business commitment to long term stable goals within Germany as the most distinct differentiating aspect between both work

cultures. This is reinforced by the strong company-bank relationship, the pattern of organic growth, the system of works councils and the formal structure⁶² (companies of 500 or more employees have a Supervisory Board consisting of representatives of all the stakeholders like banks, suppliers, customers and employees; it oversees every decision of the Executive Board) (Ebster-Grosz and Pugh, 1992:1-2).

Ebster-Grosz and Pugh see potential synergies in Anglo-German business collaboration foremost in the combination of a technical specialist (German side) and a business generalist (British side) approach: "...the German relative strength in supplying reliable and quality basic manufactured ingredients in combination with British relative strength in innovative design and marketing may be the basis for long term future successful collaboration"(1992:17).

Order and the approval of authoritarian⁶³ principles coupled with discipline and a strongly developed sense of duty lead to a smooth enactment of commands within the companies and these characteristics have helped to furnish the success of the German industry, argues Nuss (1993:130-1). He explains the German compulsion to order and tidiness by referring to the turbulence of their character, the contradictions that constantly torment them and the inner agonies that shake their soul. This makes them one of the most undisciplined peoples (Nuss, 1993:131). Since they are by nature unable to control their inclinations and are aware of this, he goes on to argue, the Germans had firstly to discipline themselves, secondly to erect a system of strict regulations and thirdly to create

⁶² Lorenz (19.2.1993) comments on the differences in formal structure between British and French companies as follows: "Whereas the UK partner is frequently a public company, with a price at which its shareholders will ultimately sell almost any part of their business, the French side tends to be a holding company controlled by a family - and its supporting banks - for whom the enterprise is not an Anglo-Saxon dividend machine, but a method for leveraging industrial power". Apart from this difference and the success rate of around 40 % for all types of takeovers between France and Britain, he arrives at the solution, that these "...two cultures are better at having affairs than at staying married".

⁶³ In this study we will follow the practice of other studies which (as Lane, 1989:103) use the terms authoritarian and autocratic synonymously.

a myth about order, which converts these compulsions into virtues. By this the Germans that are by nature inclined to infringe rules have developed a people that strongly respects them.

Von Keller (1982:414ff) describes the German authority relationship by referring to Ruedi & Lawrence (1970). The plastic producing company of this study shows that communication channels between different departments are very rare and risky and it is generally important to observe formal official channels⁶⁴. One characteristic was the permanent mutual power control and the will to increase one's own power⁶⁵. Another characteristic of German companies generally (von Keller, 1982:420) is the father-son authority relationship. Some of these efficiency-impeding aspects are then explained by reference to German cultural traits. It is claimed that (in contrast to Americans) Germans (von Keller, 1982:421-2):

- have a higher tendency to idealize reality
- have a stronger need for stable and clearly fixed social relations, structures and behaviours
- have a tendency towards lower achievement
- have a considerably stronger tendency towards avoiding group activities⁶⁶
- are more afraid of failure and of displeasing a superior

⁶⁴ Ruedi & Lawrence (1970:62+78) quoted in von Keller (1982:417). See also Ruedi (1970).

⁶⁵ Von Keller (1982:419) quoting Ruedi & Lawrence (1970:77).

⁶⁶ Von Keller (1982:422) quotes McClelland et al (1958): "In the U.S., a high spontaneous interest in achievement is counter-balanced by much experience in group activities in which the individual (implicitly) learns to channel his achievement according to the opinions of others. In Germany the reverse is true. The pattern starts with an explicit recognition of one's obligations to work hard and to live up to an idealistic code of decency governing interpersonal behaviour. The matrix of mutual obligations is clear and is consciously taught and learned. If there is a problem for Germans it is in the area of maintaining individuality in the light of such strong social obligations. They solve it by insisting on the importance of power over oneself...not by achieving in uniformity with group expectations as in the U.S. but by proudly controlling selfish interests to fulfil explicit duties to the whole society. The sense of self comes not from achievement but from self-direction and control".

Peter Lawrence describes the approach of German management as "technical-production-entrepreneurial-pragmatic" (Lawrence, 1980:preface). In contrast to French organizations, the German ones are less bureaucratic (less compartmentalization and fewer hierarchies). Less importance is given to seniority and out of the affluence of the German worker follows that salary hierarchies are rather small. The German manager is specialised in his job and at the same time teamwork and team spirit are practised⁶⁷. In spite of the "...cultural emphasis on work and achievement..." they "...are less overtly concerned with ambition and status" (Lawrence, 1980:122). They emphasize the practical, are less given to stereotyping than the British, are more punctual⁶⁸, less insistent on group harmony and have an uncomplicated view of what constitutes a problem for management. They are not markedly authoritarian, though the individual German manager is inclined to think that he is an exception to the national rule in this matter" (Lawrence, 1980:122).

According to Wolff & Göschel (1990:66) the quota of German managers who want to be led in an authoritative manner has decreased over the years (1986: 33 %; 1989: 25 %) and better qualification and increased self-confidence promote the wish for participation. At the same time, according to Wolff & Göschel (1990:67), the share of managers leading in a participative manner has decreased (1986: 85 %; 1989: 78 %).

Christel Lane⁶⁹ opposes those writers who describe the German management style as authoritarian. For her, an "...authoritarian management style...is not only characterized

⁶⁷ Eberwein & Tholen (1990:195) also provide evidence for very positive stances towards teamwork but state that there is generally the danger that teamwork is only practised when there is enough time for it (which is seldom) or when the company climate is accordingly.

⁶⁸ Punctuality as a sign of reliability, good character and discipline combined with pride in the products and the high level of technology is mentioned as one important determinant for the German competitiveness on an international level (Eberwein & Tholen, 1990:69).

⁶⁹ Lane (1989:110) quotes Child & Kieser (1979), Horovitz (1980) and Budde et al. (1982) as doing this.

On the other hand many studies do not attribute authoritarianism as a main element of German management, among them: Maurice et al (1980), Wilpert & Rayley (1983), Grünwald & Lilge (1981) and Kotthoff (1981).

by tight centralized control but also by strong direction of subordinates, and both are based on the belief that the latter are indolent and/or uncooperative" (Lane, 1989:110). Those proponents have "...not been able to show a link with the managerial beliefs outlined above nor have they provided strong evidence to sustain their claims that human relations are being regarded as irrelevant" (Lane, 1989:110). Moreover, while control in German companies is more centralized, this is "...not per se a negative feature but only becomes one if it leads to managerial overload, poor communication and employee disaffection. There is no evidence in the literature that any of these are more common in German enterprises. On the contrary, relations are generally said to be informal and are evaluated relatively positively by subordinates" (Lane, 1989:111).

Lawrence finds that "...the relative absence of stereotyping described...[in his study]...is advantageous in two ways. First it enables a better utilization of talent. People's plus points are not cancelled out by a ritualistic ascription of corresponding weaknesses... . Secondly, the kind of straight thinking for which we are praising the German managers here means that there is more scope for more relevant criteria for recruitment and advancement" (Lawrence, 1980:182).

"The role of engineers in German management, and it would scarcely be an exaggeration to speak of their dominance of German management, is again decisive for the corporate modus operandi in West Germany. This dominance of engineers, that is to say, is a standing, prestigious, articulate lobby for design, development, production and quality; for those things, in short, for which German industry is internationally rated... It has a homogenising influence on the technical side of the firm as a whole, tending to reduce functional rivalries and inter-departmental friction" (Lawrence, 1980:187).

The dangers of this tradition are activated when technology totally dominates and the engineers are beginning to become remote from the customers of the company (this has often been said about some industries such as the auto industry). Hermann Simon stresses that in medium sized companies, a very important part of the German industry, "...[d]irect contact between nonmarketing people and customers happens more than twice as often ... than in large companies" (Simon, 1992:120). The leadership style of one such midsize firm is described as enlightened patriarchy. "Patriarchy refers to the fatherly

concern most Mittelstand managers feel for their employees' families. One CEO, for instance, regularly writes personal letters to the spouses of all employees who have to travel a lot and thus are away from home much of the time. Another sends a gift to families when an employee has contributed to the company in an extraordinary way. [The term enlightened]...indicates that executives of the Mittelstand curb the authoritarianism and intrusiveness that often characterize patriarchs. In fact, many business leaders apply modern management styles that demonstrate trust in employees and give workers a lot of leeway" (Simon, 1992:122).

Eberwein & Tholen's research provide evidence for a move away from the opinion that technical-economic criteria govern the management of a company. Rather, German managers see the company in its social environment where leadership mainly has to do with motivation, integration, communication and aligning resources to one target along with the task of taking decisions (Eberwein & Tholen, 1990:95)⁷⁰.

Lawrence argues, that German companies are stronger for the fact that they emphasize the sapiential (knowledge and experience based) dimension of authority..." (Lawrence, 1980:189).

Lawrence further states that it "...is generally agreed that the status of industry in Britain is not high. This is not...any kind of absolute determinant of performance, but its implications for recruitment and morale can only be negative. The status of industry in West Germany, on the other hand, is substantially higher..." (Lawrence, 1980:188).

"...West Germans all tend to agree on one thing: they are allergic to business schools. Most German businessmen simply do not accept that there is something separate and teachable called 'management'. Hardly any top German managers have MBA's.

⁷⁰ However, this is refuted for times of recession as the Denninger Consulting Firm found out in their survey about leadership style during times of recession, in which 700 managers within Germany participated. They state that the leadership manner is reminiscent of that of the classic industrialist as defined by Max Weber: an industrialist who fulfills his duty, minds the turnover and who does not make a lot of fuss about himself. Cost-awareness and an authoritative style is important whereas visionary thinking, long term strategies or ethical employee leadership styles are less important (he, 2.4.1993). Jeske (23.3.93) and Parkes (1.4.93) do not confirm these trends within German management (the latter quotes VW as example where foreign managers were hired to dish out the bitter pill of radical change).

Germans with business degrees tend to run management consultancies. As in Japan, so in Germany, managers look down on business schools on the principle that 'those who can, do; those who can't, teach'. A few companies are asking if they should hire more MBA's, but without much conviction"⁷¹.

To describe the national characters of France, Britain and Germany requires much generalization. It is important that the reader keeps in mind the pitfalls and limits of such descriptions. And while this is certainly true for the French and the British it seems even more so for Germans. One French observer says that this is because Germans seem to have the least straight cut character. He (Nuss, 1993:209) describes this character as follows: the German lives on three levels at the same time: a higher, idealistic one; a mid-level of practical sobriety and a lower one where the ideals degenerate. They overlap and collide. Hence, opposing peculiarities coexist in him or her. "He can at the same time be conservative and progressive, old fashioned and avant-garde, active and hesitant, conscientious and deceitful. He can at the same time show arrogance and suffer from inferiority complexes. He can on the one hand be hard-hearted, authoritative and unjust and on the other hand be overly sentimental and naive. These different and opposing elements form a psychological mixture, which always has appeal but is sometimes also explosive: boldness, carefulness, liveliness, reserve, determination, stamina, fighting spirit, obsequiousness, a sense of lyric poetry, materialism, narrow-mindedness, magnanimity. Often he is first a sinner and then becomes a saint. Moreover, he needs the sin in order to arrive at holiness"⁷².

⁷¹ "European Management - discordant national anthems" in: *The Economist*, Oct.15, 1988, p.108.

⁷² Nuss (1993:209-10), translated from German.

Summary

This chapter serves the purpose of describing French, British and German management styles, values and behaviour within their respective national context. Within the first strand of quantitative studies this has been done along the following benchmarks: power distance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance, political and authority notions, role formalization, hierarchy relationships, leadership, decision-making and participation, skill utilization and finally control systems. Within the second strand of qualitative literature such aspects as rules, impersonality, decision-making, authority, centralization, communication, distance between hierarchies, stratification, isolation, control, conflicts, risk taking, strategy development, attitudes of staff, interpersonal behaviour and other aspects of management style were looked at. It is clear, that the three countries under consideration show differences in regard to the lists of aspects quoted above.

What the literature in the field of cross-national management, however, is unable to answer is the core question of what the consequences of these differences are when different nationalities work together one team. The innovative approach of this research study named *Social Cross-National Management* will address this question.

CHAPTER II:

Visualising some of the differences between German, British and French management styles with the help of pilot research and listing the hypotheses

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"In their private lives, global managers are no doubt one of 'us': no less patriotic, no less concerned about their countries' futures, no less involved in civic causes or social issues. But it is in business that global managers become 'them'. Their outlook is cosmopolitan - corporate citizens of the world, wherever they conduct their business".

Robert Reich (1991:78)

"Global managers have exceptionally open minds. They respect how different countries do things, and they have the imagination to appreciate why they do them that way. But they are also incisive, they push the limits of the culture. Global managers don't passively accept it when someone says, 'You can't do that in Italy or Spain because of the unions,' or 'You can't do that in Japan because of the Ministry of Finance.' They sort through the debris of cultural excuses and find opportunities to innovate. Global managers are also generous and patient. They can handle the frustrations of language barriers".

Percy Barnevik (in Taylor, 1991:94)

Aims

The aim of this chapter is to firstly visualise some of the differences between the British and German approaches to management (Siemens pilot study).

This will help us to narrow down the broad spectre of aspects that have been shown within Chapter I to differ between each countries' management style.

The second aim of Chapter II is to develop the hypotheses of this research project.

The first objective is met by pinpointing the key differences that practitioners perceive between the British and German way of conducting business.

In the second part of this chapter, the relevance of the key areas that have been established by practitioners to be of importance is checked against research by authors in the field of European management. The working hypotheses are then developed within these fields and with reference to the literature of Chapter I.

II.1. Pilot research: how do British managers see themselves and their German counterparts ?

The pilot study used as starting-point of this chapter visualizes some perceived differences between British and German management. These differences are specified in accordance with a long list of aspects influencing daily business and client relationships. The idea is to establish, what practitioners within the multinational company perceive as important and relevant when differentiating between the two approaches. Staff from the personnel department within Siemens AG in Munich have compiled this list and left sufficient empty space on the questionnaire for proposals from internationally operating managers.

The list (which follows hereafter) was distributed to twenty-one British and one German manager, who all participated in answering it. The raw data was used for internal purposes within Siemens (to develop a video film that sharpens the sensitivity towards other nationalities) and it was also made available for analysis to the author of this project. When academics develop a research design for a study that seeks to shed light on problems perceived by practitioners (in this case internationally operating managers), it is pivotal to use grassroot knowledge. This is the reason why the raw data of this internal Siemens study was analyzed and included in this project.

The methodology of the pilot study is such that the respondents were first asked to describe the main differences in regard to fifteen aspects of business and social relationships. Thereafter they were requested to express the two main differences between the two nationalities in regard to twenty-eight aspects of corporate intercultural relations. There are clearly also limitations to this pilot study. The selection of managers is not able to provide a representative description of what German managers perceive as main differences between the two national management styles. It rather reflects the British point of view. However, this limitation has to be seen against the background that both German and British staff within the Personnel Department compiled the aspects on the list (which was then responded to mainly by British managers).

Another shortcoming of a pilot study is that it may potentially bias the study or limit it too much. This project utilizes the internal Siemens survey but it does not limit itself to the issues covered there (the investigation of e.g. skill utilization is added). It merely leads us to important problem areas, which are then further checked in their relevance with

academic and journalistic contributions in the field of European management.

We will start by listing the main differences between the British and the German approach in regard to business relationships and social relationships.

Business Relationships

Establishing Relationships:

When establishing relationships, British managers find their German counterparts formal as well as rank, title and status conscious. Surnames are used and one manager spoke of the constant comparisons being carried out. The relationships are also said to be quite strained. The British see themselves as more person-oriented when it comes to establishing relationships. They are less formal, easier, use first names and are more personality based. While relationships are established more quickly, they are also more transient. Two managers found no difference when it came to establishing relationships.

Entertaining Guests:

When it comes to entertaining guests, the formality of the Germans is again mentioned many (7) times. On the other hand, they are said to be more accommodating, prepared to use their own home, attentive and also excellent hosts. They maintain their inter-company distance and the entertainment is dependent upon their position in the company. It can become rather rigid although polite. The British see themselves as more relaxed and casual, more entertaining, involving their spouses and including more outside activities. They find themselves more informal and more lavish.

Being Polite:

Several times it was mentioned that the Germans are more polite, one respondent said that they are polite but distant and several described them as "formally polite". It was also mentioned that they are over-polite and that their directness can border on rudeness and brusqueness and that they are too abrupt. The British see themselves as "friendly polite", as less arrogant and feel that familiarity is established earlier. One respondent said that politeness is in decline among British managers.

Trusting Others:

A quarter of the respondents think that there is no difference between German and British managers in respect to trusting others. Some have noted, that German managers don't easily trust others but if they do this takes time. Others say that there is more trust. One responded by saying that trust is earned among German managers and that it is expected among British managers. The British managers trust more easily, they agree by handshake and by gentleman's agreement. They also rather trust the individual than the company.

Keeping Promises:

About one third of this group of British managers saw no difference between the practice of German and British managers in keeping promises. One said that managers of both nationalities were once good at keeping them but that this is not the case any more. Another said that German managers warn early when promises are broken and that promises are sometimes overruled by the superior. And finally it was remarked that the contact distance between both parties made it easy for either to break promises.

Honour/Integrity:

The Germans are said to be conscious of both honour and integrity although preferring integrity to honour. A quarter of the respondents could see no difference between both nationalities in respect of this. One spoke from his experience, stating that company integrity comes first in Germany and that personal integrity comes first in Britain. Others say that integrity is taken more seriously by British managers.

Giving Refusals:

The responses of the British managers were inclined to describe the German manager as being quick to and indeed far more ready to give refusals while the British manager is considered to be more reluctant here. The German managers make an effort to sweeten the pill but are less diplomatic and imaginative while the British managers find themselves more compromising.

Social Relations

Making Friends:

The Germans are slow, more difficult and reserved and formal (conscious of social scale, business oriented, rarely mixing business with pleasure) in making friends while the British see themselves as making friends quicker. The latter regard themselves as simple, relaxed, transient, more open, casual in this respect and say that much of UK business is based on pleasure. One describes the German practice as friendship and the British one as friendliness.

Behaving Informally:

German managers find it difficult to be informal and they expect even the informal to be organized. They formalize the informality. The British see themselves as naturally informal, it's their way of life.

Criticising Openly:

Germans criticise openly more easily, they can be hard hitting and tactless with words. The pecking order plays a role, however. The British managers are more cautious, they prefer not to criticise openly, it's easier within a friendship and when it's done, then they feel less inhibited by the company hierarchy.

Using Leisure Time:

German managers use their leisure time to full and plan it better. They are very keen on leisure time while British managers make limited use of it. It is less organized, more spontaneous and more lazy.

Discussing Politics:

Opinions regarding the propensity of German managers to discuss politics were divided but there was however a clear view that they generally have less international and more narrow minded views about politics. The British managers usually do not discuss politics.

Showing Emotions:

The German managers show emotions slightly more often (anger being shown frequently) than their British counterparts.

Showing Respect:

German managers show more formal respect (hierarchy, authority, position, qualification). Respect is said to be a German trait, but usually only directed upwards. British managers respect people rather than the position and they belittle authority. Respect among British managers must be earned.

Keeping Traditions:

A difference in this respect can not be identified between the two nationalities.

Corporate Intercultural Relations

The managers involved in Siemens' pilot study were asked to express two differences between their own (mainly British) business culture approach and the German business approach in regard to the following list of aspects, which is much more focused down to the actual day-to-day practice of managers.

Leadership:

The German leadership style is described as authoritarian (even dominant and dictatorial), formal (position conscious, from top only, by superiors) and aloof (detached, expect people to obey, by directive). One manager stated that German managers accept whilst British ones question.

Teamwork:

Teamwork is conducted differently according to the group of one German and 21 British

managers who were invited to comment within the internal Siemens pilot study. Among German managers a leader is appointed, in the British setting a leader emerges. In the first setting there are less personal relations within the team, the members stick to the rigid hierarchy, teamwork is structured and disciplined and the meetings are important. Within British teamwork, clear objectives are not set out, the teamwork is more un-coordinated and more individualistic, team members question their position, the lack of formality enables interplay and the team (rather than the meeting) is important.

Decision Making:

German decision making is less creative and uses a simple logic, takes place at high level and is lengthy (analyze deeply and rigorously, better decision making base, slow/structured, don't take chances). British managers decide faster, they are less bureaucratic, less constrained by hierarchy. The Germans decide and do not discuss while the British discuss and then decide.

Delegating Responsibility:

The widespread view was that German managers are likely to and often delegate responsibility. Sometimes, though, they do not think about the infrastructure (they delegate responsibility but no authority). Generally it was said, that British managers do not delegate responsibility easily. When they delegate, function is more important than position.

Problem Solving:

German problem solving was said to be slow, less creative (don't consider "blue skies" solution), more logic (look at their "rule book"), more objective but also more constrained (tunnel vision) and a bit inflexible and unindividualistic. "Picky" decisions are seldom made and problems are approached in a direct manner and sometimes solved by decisions prior to which little or no collective discussion took place. The British like to create and solve, their problem solving is more pragmatic, quicker, sometimes too undisciplined and problems are also solved with a lateral approach.

Motivation:

German managers are encouraged formally (by company position, power of the head office) while British managers are motivated in a more ad hoc manner, by the job, the product or by personal success. German managers can be motivated by reason, British by personal circumstances; German managers by definition, British ones by encouragement, as two managers stated.

Conflict at Meetings:

Conflict at meetings among German managers is usual, more vociferous, openly debated (emotions are unlikely to be controlled). Among British managers, conflict at meetings is unusual (compromises are found, more "fair play"). German managers are said to have an opinionated approach, they don't back down easily, are dogmatic and conflict is controlled by authority.

Incentives:

It is not clear, whether German or British managers receive more incentives. It was said, however, that they are given only to British high-flyers, whereas they are available for a broader spectrum among the German managers. British managers receive status or title incentives and personal recognition, while German managers are given more materialistic incentives.

Leading Meetings:

The respondents (mainly British managers) describe their meetings as follows: objectives are not set, time is badly kept, more input is allowed, there is too much discussion, they are not direct, they are too enthusiastic and the threads can often be lost. The German meeting has a detailed agenda, formal structure, is strictly chaired, well organised and sometimes a minority dominates and decides before issues are discussed.

Personnel Talks:

The difference between German and British personnel talks was described by one manager with: the former talk at you, the latter talk with you. In Britain personnel talks are informal, unstructured and somewhat like casual chats. In Germany they are less frequent

and if they take place, formal and structured (set piece talks).

Risk Taking:

There is widespread agreement that risk taking is kept to a minimum among German managers. They evaluate carefully and follow a structured approach. British managers are likely to take risks, they do it quickly and frequently and like to gamble. Risks are, however, often calculated.

Negotiating with Customers:

When German managers negotiate with customers, they know their subject matter, they stick to subject facts, they are formal and less flexible and not entrepreneurs. British managers are more "wheelers and dealers", they negotiate casually and in a more flexible manner.

Presentations:

The difference between German and British presentations, while both are excellent, is that German ones are detailed whereas British ones are general. British managers improvise and are more imaginative, creative, extroverted, spontaneous and less structured at presentations. German managers use scripts, are detailed, factual, organised, logical and to the point.

Dealing with Failure:

A quarter of the respondents remarked, that German managers will not admit to failure whereas the British managers will accept personal errors or mistakes. German managers are slow, poor, dogmatic and inflexible at dealing with failure. British managers are said to find a way around more easily and not to take mistakes too seriously.

Doing Business with Integrity:

Half of the respondents noted no difference between the German and British ability to do business with integrity. The others responded that Germans promote company integrity and that they are less likely to manipulate. The German practice changed with business policy and the German approach was not sufficiently devious, while British managers have

political considerations in their minds when doing business with integrity.

Advertising Products:

British managers are said to advertise products in an imaginative, interesting, exciting and creative fashion, while German managers' advertisements lack inspiration, lack flair and are stolid and more factual than glossy. They are, however, considered to be good or better but a criticism is that the company name is sometimes thought of as being a sufficiently strong argument.

Training & Seminars:

Training is said to be less developed in Britain and it was stated, that good training often leads to staff leaving. German training and seminars are thorough, intensive, well organised, informative, structured, formalised, vital, good but sometimes over the top. It was also suggested that they are not suitable for UK staff.

Hierarchy:

German managers have ingrained respect for hierarchies while British managers readily question them. They are more important for German managers but organizations have a flat structure while there is a pyramid structure in Britain. Hierarchy involves a class element in Britain. There is a certain remoteness in between the levels in Germany.

Exercising Authority:

German managers exercise authority frequently (British: infrequently), strongly and in an authoritarian/autocratic manner (British more pragmatic).

Work Ethic:

British managers do not identify so strongly with the work ethic (work to live) while German managers were pictured here as living to work, thus the work ethic is more pronounced. It was also said, that there is more company loyalty among German managers.

Corporate Values:

British managers give little credence to corporate values, they are not so concerned about corporate values and these are also harder to identify. German managers attach great importance to and emphasis on corporate values. Corporate values are strongly respected and the managers easily adopt the corporate image which makes them part of the company family.

Customer Service:

British managers consider it high on the agenda of their business approach to offer customer service. The customer is given great consideration and treated in a flexible manner. Customer service is excellent and important for German managers. It is better organised and people are better trained for it.

Working Meals:

The lunch break is said to be vital for German managers and is generally a very common occurrence. From this data one can conclude that lunch breaks have less importance among British managers.

Status Symbols:

British managers are very conscious of status symbols (cars, house, business card). One stated that "the status is low so the symbol is important" and another said that status symbols are essential in view of the low salaries. Also for German managers they are said to be important and take the form of position, offices/secretary, desk size and titles.

Official Channel (e.g. letter):

Official channels are less formal in the British setting (going round the house). German managers use more formal methods (more rigid protocols, disciplined use of written communication).

Unofficial Channels of Communication:

Unofficial channels are used frequently by British managers (rely on grapevine, jungle telegraph, gossip and use gentleman's agreement). Among German managers they are

also used often, but more for information gathering rather than decision making and they are sometimes confirmed in writing later (result: they are more official).

Attitude to Achievement:

Among German managers achievement is recognized, celebrated and promoted more and it gives better accolade. The situation among British managers is more ambivalent, on one side it was said that achievement is not so valued and on the other side it was stated that it is rewarded and appreciated.

Approaches to Change:

The predominant view was that German managers are reluctant and suspicious to change (exception: technological change). The thorough evaluation that is initially conducted results in changes occurring slowly. The opinion about the British managers is divided in this respect.

When reflecting on the above problems and ways to deal with them, it was mentioned frequently, that either side needs exposure to the business culture of the other side and that mere knowledge about market statistics do not suffice. Cultural differences cause dysfunctions. It was stated, that it is hardly possible to break through the official/business level of the Germans, which makes deeper relationships harder to achieve. Many problems resolve around the German attitude of following their structured path and the lack of an entrepreneurial approach. Delegation of responsibility to the local branch in a country other than the country where headquarters are based creates a lot of problems. The delegation of responsibility is crucial for an effective and mutually beneficial relationship between the different locations of the same company in different countries. One of the prerequisites for intercultural activity and communication is trust. If trust and commitment is missing, as one respondent argued, there will be no success. A piecemeal approach with clear-cut and short-term goals regarding co-operation yields good results. Many projects were pursued together and the results were motivating and satisfying. In these cases, technical or marketing knowledge or even financial resources were pooled and synergistic effects could be achieved.

Language remains one of the biggest problems. This leads to for instance confusion in

objectives during meetings, misinterpretations in meeting reports and lack of precision of the urgency in specific instances. It was also said that due to the directness of the German language, meanings and thoughts are misinterpreted when translated and this leads to mistrust and misunderstanding.

The statements by the group of British and German managers being involved in international and intercultural management on a daily basis indicate the existence of the following problem areas.

II.2. Establishment of problem areas and hypotheses to be tested

From the previous part of Chapter II and from Chapter I it is clear that there is a link between nationality and management style. The national culture of a country influences its citizens from early childhood and contributes to shape their management style. Hofstede states that different management styles across different countries are pre-programmed, and (while it is not necessary to specify an age range for the strongest influence) one might ask, whether different national managerial values converge when exposed to the influence of a common organizational culture. Can the influence of organizational culture compensate the pre-programmed problems which stem from national heterogeneity ?

Perlmutter (1969) has examined the development of managerial values within multinational companies and describes this evolution in the following three phases: the ethnocentric, polycentric and geocentric one. In the first stage, the firm operates abroad for the benefit of the home organization and the practices and values of the home organization are imposed overseas. The firm reaches its next stage, the polycentric one, when operations abroad are left more and more to local management, which is strongly influenced by its host culture. In this phase both local management and expatriates begin to disregard national interests and take a supranational approach to business. In the last phase, labelled

the geocentric one, management bases objectives and operations upon the interests of the corporation itself. National interests do not have any prior status any more. "A corporation culture emerges and managers do not carry any constraints, including national cultural constraints, from one country to another"⁷³. The pressure of worldwide technology and structure will converge organizational behaviour.

The opposite argument is put forward by researchers from the divergence school of thought. Hofstede (1980:Ch.8) and Laurent (1985:54-5; 1986:95) have found that national differences in management values are not reduced in long established multinational companies. They emphasize the culture specific nature of the management process and argue that cultural differences in thinking and values will always interpret the same technological and system changes differently in different cultures.

Is the organizational culture stronger than the national culture of the employees ? The convergence argument assumes this to be so, but Hofstede (1993:1-2) argues that "...this question cannot be answered; apart from the fact that they may overlap, they also affect different programmes in our minds. For example, ways of dealing with authority carry primarily a national component which the organization can modify but not entirely change; ways of dealing with innovation carry primarily an organizational component...".

On this issue Derr & Laurent refer to the cultural model of Schein (1985:Ch.1; 1990:111-2). The model defines culture of a particular group in terms of three fundamental levels. Artifacts include "...everything from the physical layout, the dress code, the manner in which people address each other, the smell and feel of the place, its emotional intensity..." (Schein, 1990:111). The second level is the one of values (espoused or manifest behavioral norms, ideologies and guiding beliefs) and the third and deepest one is that of basic assumptions. These are the fundamental, invisible, preconscious or unconscious, non-debatable cognitive structures that determine how people perceive, think and feel. The basic assumptions confer meaning to values and artifacts. Derr & Laurent (1988:8) show the limited scope of influence of organizational culture by writing that "...organizational cultures may exert a substantial impact on the upper layers of the cultural edifice, that is on behavioural norms and artifacts". The fact that organizational culture does not affect all layers of national culture has led Laurent (1986:95) to the

⁷³ Pugh, 1990:25; ITT and IBM are named by Weinshall & Raveh (1983) as having reached the geocentric stage.

conclusion, that "...deep-seated managerial assumptions [that] are strongly shaped by national cultures ... appear quite insensitive to the more transient culture of organizations" and that "...cultural differences in management assumptions were not reduced as a result of working for the same multinational firm".

Apart from stating this ongoing debate, it is not the aim of this project to directly contribute to it⁷⁴. This would require to study over a number of years the same internationally operating sample (longitudinal research). In the event of us finding no differences at all between bi-/international and national teamwork, we would however be able to conclude, that national differences are not an important issue when managing culturally heterogeneous groups and therefore require no extra consideration.

We have so far provided evidence that the management styles of the three nationalities under consideration vary on a large number of aspects. Furthermore we have debated and presented research that has confirmed the difference in management styles in multinational companies over time.

The next task is to focus down the scope of this study. The first element that points this investigation of differences between the work in nationally heterogeneous teams versus the work in nationally homogeneous teams into its present form is the pilot study. With this and the input of research in the field of European management we obtain areas within which problems are expected as a consequence of the differences in nationalities. The first five hypotheses therefore specifically address participation, decision-making style, reasons for bi-/international team formation, dysfunctions and mutual exchange of information.

While the pilot study and other research further point to emphasizing people, we have selected three items that we think are especially important to test: satisfaction, conflict and skill utilization. Skill under-utilization is a field that is seldomly explored, especially within the context of interchange between managers of different nationalities. This justifies its consideration even more. Each item is covered in a hypothesis.

⁷⁴ Within Section III.5 we have however asked all the respondents of the participating company if "the strong corporate identity compensates for centrifugal forces caused by different cultural attitudes". The answers range between "yes, I tend to agree" and "I am undecided", see Table III.5.

The last problem area of standardization has not led to the development of a hypothesis. In selecting participation in decision making, co-operation, mutual exchange of information, satisfaction in the company, skill utilization, conflicts and standardization for this study we do not want to create the impression of addressing all problems within nationally heterogeneous teams. Rather it is intended as a selection of (personally) very fascinating elements.

We will again make reference to the national differences (reviewed within Chapter I and II), since these differences are reflected in the hypotheses (deductive method: derive the particular from the general).

Participation in decision-making and delegation of responsibility

This is the element stressed most often among the respondents. They want to see that the local unit has real influence on the policy making for the future, influencing product specifications, technology, the manufacturing process and marketing. It is essential that business can be done in the local manner, in close contact with the needs and opportunities of the local merchants. Marketing must reflect the cultural and local conditions and management should decentralise to the lowest level possible in order to utilize the grass root knowledge and activity. Also true international management opportunities are necessary as incentives as well as for preparing cultural sensitivity for the international arena.

Delegation to local units means putting up with the danger of doing the same work more than once. Therefore projects have to be co-ordinated, not only between two countries but on an international scale to ensure the "wheel is not invented twice". Overlapping of activities has to be minimized as much as possible by a corporate head office, which at the same time relieves local task groups of the enormous task of reporting their progress. Researchers⁷⁵ in the field of European management have distinguished the delegation of

⁷⁵ Thurley & Wirdenius, 1989 (participation; involving all employees in improving standards; managerial decision-making style in as open a manner as possible), Dyas & Thanheiser, 1976 (decision-making, allocation of resources between different businesses), Adler, 1991 (decision-making; leadership), Van Dijck, 1990 (decentralization), Albrecht, 1986 (decentralization, common identity), Bournois &

responsibility as a problematic area when it comes to minimising the potentially negative consequences of national heterogeneity.

In Chapter I it was shown that the attitudes towards decision-making and delegation of responsibility is different among the three countries in as much as it is influenced by power distance and individualism (Hofstede, 1984), different attitudes to participation (Heller & Wilpert, 1981), different degrees of decentralization (Horovitz, 1980; Crozier, 1964; several writers in Lammers & Hickson, 1979; Granick, 1962) and control (Horovitz, 1980; Lane, 1989). Decision-making itself has been shown to be different within the three countries (Crozier, 1964; Lane, 1989; Budde et al., 1982; Ebster-Grosz and Pugh, 1992).

Scholz et al. (1991) for instance states evidence from an ongoing research project by him and Pugh that British firms are pursuing a high degree of delegation of responsibility to local units within Germany.

Therefore the following hypotheses will be investigated:

Hypothesis 1 (participation in decision-making):

Within bi-/international management teams (a) satisfaction with participation is significantly lower and (b) the positive effects of participation are generally significantly less clear.

Hypothesis 2 (participation in decision-making):

There is a significant difference between the most preferred decision-making style of bi-/international versus national management teams.

Chauchat, 1990 (level of decentralization), Hunsicker, 1985 (leadership, vision), Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989 (integration; flexible co-ordination processes), Olie, 1990 (common management programmes, tasks and goals; sense of parity between merging companies) and Urban & Vendermini, 1987 (common goals; co-operation). Many of these researchers are referred to again in Chapter V.

Hypothesis 3 (co-operation):

The reason for the formation of bi-/international teams is significantly more often due to company policy than personal choice.

Hypothesis 4 (co-operation):

Dysfunctional results will occur significantly more frequently in bi-/international teams than in nationally homogeneous teams.

Mutual exchange of information

Along with the delegation of responsibility to local managers and employees and as a requirement for this comes the need for improved communication. Language is perceived as the biggest problem (by the pilot group) causing misunderstanding, inefficiency and inaccuracy. But the need for improved communication does not only focus on the language. Effective communication also means the diminution of bureaucracy and the concentration on effective conversion of time and effort into productive results and not political or paper solutions. The employees should pursue an entrepreneurial spirit with fast and flexible responses.

Several writers in the field of European management have stressed this area as important, among them Albrecht (1986) and van Dijck (1990: improved communication) and more generally Adler (1991: cross-cultural communication) and Harris & Moran (1989: cross-cultural communication and negotiation). Crozier (1964) offers information about the distance between hierarchies and the immense isolation within French companies, Ruedi & Lawrence (1970) state evidence of few communication channels and the importance of observing official channels within German companies. The British habit of forming committees (Phillips, 1993) has also been described (see Chapter I). It is therefore likely, that with the diversity of communication channels the problems of conveying information between them and the possible confusion makes (initially) interaction between managers

of different national origins more difficult.

Hypothesis 5 (mutual exchange of information):

There is significantly less exchange of information between management groups composed of two or more nationalities.

Emphasizing people: examining their satisfaction, their skill utilization and conflicts

Both the pilot study and researchers in the field of European management⁷⁶ and cross-national management underline the emphasis that should be on people: they remain the prime resource of a company. In this respect it is very important to nurture and train them with the actual demands of bi- and international work in mind.

"Team members often inappropriately stereotype foreign colleagues rather than accurately seeing and assessing skills and potential contributions for accomplishing the present task" (Ferrari, 1972:31). True international thinking does not mean making one nation of the world. Adler (1991:104-9) has described this behaviour as the 'melting pot myth', the organization applying such a strategy is a parochial one. The very approach to diversity and not the diversity itself determines the actual positive or negative outcomes when managing cultural diversity. The parochial point of view ignores cultural diversity. One has to recognize the differences and use each others strengths. It is important to train the employees to recognize cultural differences and to use those differences (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989: multiple perspective and broad minded cultural attitude; and Urban & Vendermini, 1987) to create advantages for the firm.

⁷⁶ Thurley & Wirdenius, 1989 (excellent human relations; reward system based on individual autonomy and individual needs; work situation in which identity is both individual and collective; opportunities for continuous self-development for all levels), Albrecht, 1986 (mobility of human resources), Urban & Vendermini, 1987 (mutual confidence), Adler, 1991 (motivation) and Bournois & Chauchat, 1990 (management talent ↔ worker's motivation); Ivancevich, 1969 (need satisfaction of domestic versus overseas managers).

In Chapter I, Hofstede (1984) predicts higher satisfaction scores within high uncertainty avoiding countries and lower ones in low uncertainty avoiding countries.

Nationally varying degrees of skill utilization have been stated by Heller & Wilpert (1981).

Different conflict resolution strategies between the three countries have also been shown in Chapter I by Hofstede (1984: high MAS: fighting conflicts out; low MAS: compromise and negotiation). Others (Clark, 1979; Aiken & Bacharach, 1979; Tannenbaum & Cooke, 1979; Child & Kieser, 1979) have stressed low levels of conflict within the British setting or that conflict is seen as ungentlemanly within the British firm (Barsoux & Lawrence, 1990).

In this respect, we want to examine the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 6 (satisfaction within the company):

The degree of satisfaction is significantly lower when interaction between colleagues of two or more nationalities takes place.

Hypothesis 7 (skill utilization):

Skills are significantly less well utilised when people of two or more nationalities interact.

Hypothesis 8 (conflicts):

Conflicts occur significantly more often in bi-/international settings and conflicts also have different origins.

Standardisation

Another basic element is to adopt a company wide standard⁷⁷. This will apply both to the products and the service as well as to human resources policies. The products should have a common standard concerning quality and specifications and the meeting of international technical requirements. At the same time there must be scope for local designs and extraordinary requirements. The approach of just wanting to export what is being produced in the head office country is inadequate.

Standardisation should also apply to the working practices as far as this is practical.

II.3. Attempt to link the objects of investigation with the tricomponential cognitive-affective-conative analysis of attitudes

In an attempt to further conceptionalize the field of cross-national management and also to provide a basis for a more structured interpretation of the empirical results we will seek to capitalize on the tricomponential model of attitude analysis from the field of social psychology.

On a general level, attitudes are constructs that express values. They are reactions stemming from general, consciously and unconsciously held preference systems. They are values put in concrete terms.

Attitudes are "predispositions to respond to some class of stimuli with certain classes of response" (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960:3). These classes are specified by the classical cognitive-affective-conative model (Hellriegel et al., 1992:87; McGuire, 1985:242 and

⁷⁷ This has been emphasized by: Thurley & Wirdenius, 1989 (objectives of the organization), Laurent, 1986 (working conditions; human resource policy), Olie, 1990 (common management tasks and goals), Trompenaars, 1993 (decentralization versus centralization: HQ less like policeman and more like consultant), Henzler, 1992 ("What truly matters [for European managers] is the set of broad and encompassing principles that keep independent managers aligned with one another and with the company's overall goals", p.66) and van Dijck, 1990 (mainly soft s's of 7s model: share same corporate commitment, identity, human resource policy, mission and strategy); see also Johnston (1991:126-7) and Brooke (1986:184ff).

Stahlberg & Frey, 1988:143):

- the cognitive element, which describes distinguishing beliefs, opinions, knowledge, or information held by the individual
- the affective component, that constitutes of feelings of liking and disliking, sentiments, moods, and emotions about some person, idea, event, or object
- and the conative/behavioural aspect, which is the intention and predisposition to act.

These three elements are addressed by the mind with the "functions of thinking, feeling, and willing, properly studied by science, aesthetics, and ethics, and successively discussed by Kant in his three Critiques, of pure reason, of judgment, and of practical reason" (McGuire, 1985:242).

The three components mutually interact. An attitude is a function of the person's thinking, feeling, and willing regarding another person, an idea, an event, and so on. The relationship between attitudes and cognitions is positive and has been shown to be statistically significant, but these two systems are also determined by other variables. Equally, the relationship between attitudes and actions is not simple but very complex⁷⁸. It has been shown that "general attitudes best predict general behaviors, specific attitudes best predict specific behaviors [and] the less the time that elapses between attitude measurement and behavior, the more consistent will be the relationship between attitude and behavior" (Hellriegel et al, 1992:88). Alternatively there is the behavioural intention model which maintains that in predicting behaviour, one has to look at specific intentions rather than at attitudes. Attitudes and norms form intentions, which in turn with perceived situational or internal constraints influences behaviour. "If both attitudes and norms are positive with regard to behaviour, the intention to behave in a certain way will be high" (Hellriegel et al., 1992:88).

Cognitive elements of attitudes are measured by letting the respondent mark what descriptions on a list are best attributed to a person, an idea, an event and so on. The affective dimension can be measured on evaluation scales of Likert, Thurstone or Osgood types. The fact, that they are easily measured have led to the consequence that much

⁷⁸ See for instance Chaiken, S., and Stangor, C. (1987:575-630).

research reduces attitudes to their affective component (Stahlberg & Frey, 1988:160). The conative component is assessed by verbal reports, observations or situational tests (McGuire, 1985:242).

Let us examine the items/questions within the questionnaire (see Appendix A.III.1 to 3) and link them with the above quoted model.

The cognitive elements express opinions, knowledge, information and beliefs about certain situations. When respondents express the 'effects of participation' then they state their beliefs and opinions about what effects participation has. The respondent has gathered information about these effects and formed an opinion. We could also replace the items in that section with "I think that participation leads to..." or "I believe that the effects of participation are...".

Affective elements express feelings of disliking/liking, emotions, moods and sentiments. When the respondent is asked about his/her satisfaction as is the case in the sections 'satisfaction with participation', satisfaction with 'decision-making' and 'satisfaction in the company', he or she is asked to express the affective element of his/her attitude. The questions in these sections to which one answers more or less positively usually start with "I am satisfied with...". They can be substituted with "I like when..." or "I feel bad about...".

And finally, conative components describe intentions to act, behaviours and practices. The respondents are asked to express conative components within the sections 'teamwork' (practice of forming teams), 'team assessment'⁷⁹ (actions and course of events within teams), 'mutual exchange of information'⁸⁰ (description of how exchange of information is practised), 'skill utilization' (the opportunities to use/practice skills), 'conflicts' (where do they come from, how are managers dealing with them) and 'standardization'. Here the items could also start with "The practice is that..." or "I practice...".

The section 'true international convictions' expresses both cognitive as also conative components.

⁷⁹ However, item 4 "The team would be more effective in total absence of diversity" rather expresses an opinion (cognition).

⁸⁰ Item 2 "I am satisfied with..." rather addresses the affective and item 8 "English as the main company language would improve overall communication" rather addresses cognitive (=opinion) components.

Area of investigation (division within Questionnaire, see Appendix)	Component of Attitude		
	cognitive	affective	conative
Satisfaction with participation (1A)		affective	
Effects of participation (1B)	cognitive		
Decision-making (1C)		affective	
Teamwork (2A)			conative
Teamwork assessment (2B)			conative
Mutual exchange of information (3)			conative
Satisfaction in the company (4)		affective	
Skill utilization (5)			conative
Conflicts (6)			conative
True international convictions (7)	cognitive		conative
Standardization (8)			conative

After obtaining the results of Chapter V we will come back to this table in the Concluding Remarks (Chapter VI) in order to determine, what elements of attitudes are most strongly affected by national heterogeneity.

Summary

The chapter starts by visualising some differences between the British and the German approach to conduct business. This pilot study and the review of perceived problems of internationally operating managers from the viewpoint of academic and journalistic contributions point the reader towards the direction of the main study. Seven areas of investigation are developed: participation in decision-making (satisfaction with participation, effects of participation and decision-making), co-operation (teamwork and teamwork assessment), mutual exchange of information, satisfaction in the company, skill utilization, conflicts and standardization. The chapter then goes on to list all working hypotheses regarding the work in bi-/international teams. Finally, these categories of management styles are conceptualized with the classic tricomponential model of attitude analysis.

CHAPTER III:

Research methodology, strategy and setting and the contribution of this project

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Aims

The objectives of Chapter III are to describe the research methodology and strategy and to explain the contribution that this project hopes to provide.

The national samples and the exact method of evaluation will be described.

This Chapter will also picture the company where the fieldwork took place.

III.1. The contribution of this project

The contribution of this project is to detail the consequences of face-to-face interaction of different management styles within nationally heterogeneous teams. The information is intended for practitioners and academics alike. The contribution for the academic world, however, is that this project herewith paves the way for a new direction within the field of cross-national management literature.

The questionnaire has been designed to assess the differences between - on the one hand - the situation, when a manager works with colleagues of his own nationality and - on the other hand - the situation when he or she is working together with people of one or more other nationalities. The respondents are asked the same question twice, once for the national and once for the international setting. Previous research addressing the differences in management styles and perceptions of management asked different nationalities in isolation and they could not offer an assessment of the consequences arising when different management styles clashed and challenged each other.

Some nationalities tend to answer more positively on the Likert-scale. By letting the same respondent evaluate both national and international teamwork, we can obtain reliable results on the differences between the national and the international setting. This technique of asking each respondent twice thus splits off many subjective elements within the evaluation of national versus international teamwork. In addition we also obtain data about each national sample (see Chapter IV).

The research method of questionnaire surveys gives rise to several other potential problems: respondents give answers they are expected to give (the firms policy or to please interviewer) or they simulate values they do not actually hold or follow in their daily business activities. All these dangers cannot be eliminated from this as from similar questionnaire surveys. This project, however, compares the work in bi-/international and national teams. We do expect, that both responses possess equally wrong or subjective ingredients, so that the difference remains relatively error free or objective. It is therefore, that this questionnaire design optimally serves its purpose and that it seems to be especially well equipped to eliminate the usual problems of questionnaire surveys⁸¹. Apart from showing a new direction within cross-national management research, this project offers a questionnaire design suited for assessing the differences between nationally homogeneous and nationally heterogeneous teams and it provides a technique (non-standard principal component analysis) with which to analyze the results.

III.2. Empirical data

A questionnaire has been administered within Siemens, Europe's biggest employer and Europe's leading electrical and electronics group. The managers responding to the questionnaire in Siemens' British, French and German operations are all comparable in job level (Manager - Senior Manager - General Manager/Divisional Director - Managing Director/Chief Executive) and have all worked with nationalities other than their own for years, either at home or abroad (predominantly). The fieldwork took place in Toulouse, Paris/St. Denis in France, Sunbury-on-Thames and other sites across the UK and mainly in Munich within Germany.

The items covered in the questionnaire are commonly stated problems of internationally operating managers (see Chapters I and II). The results of an internal Siemens survey (raw data of this was made available to the author of this project) was used as a pilot

⁸¹ For a presentation of alternative survey methods see Schein, 1990.

study to find out, what practitioners perceive as relevant issues. Academic literature (within the area of European management, see Chapter II.2) was then consulted to obtain confirmation of the relevance of the issues/areas.

Subsequently the questionnaire was developed. From the original version in English it was translated into German and French. The reader is referred to the appendix (Section A.III) for copies of the English, French and German questionnaire.

About 100 questionnaires in each of the three countries were handed out to a selected audience of managers who were chosen on the grounds of their international exposure. 71 questionnaires were received back from France, 69 from the United Kingdom and 79 from Germany.

The evaluation of the empirical data was carried out with the powerful statistical and information analysis system SPSS, running both in its PC+™4.0 version as also on the mainframe. All questionnaires were manually put into the Data Entry II™ module of SPSS/PC+ by the author. After this, they were individually double checked in order to avoid entry errors.

III.3. Description of the national samples

French sample:

This sample includes only managers of French nationality. Other nationalities within the responses coming from Toulouse and St.Denis/Paris were taken out in order to ensure that only French managers responded. That brought the sample size down to 57.

Another two replies were taken out of the original sample because it was obvious that the respondents had no serious intentions when answering⁸².

38 French managers have answered for both national and international teamwork and a further 4 have only answered for the international setting (right side of the questionnaire).

⁸² One of them was very incomplete and full of corrections and in the other the respondent answered nearly every question with 5 = 'no, I definitely disagree'.

Therefore the international setting has been described by 42 respondents. Since the elimination of either minority that answered only in regard to one setting would naturally result in the other setting being answered by fewer managers also (worse representativeness), they were not taken out of the sample.

When referring to international teamwork, all questionnaires of French managers which were included refer to teamwork with Germans and/or British. Those referring to teamwork with other countries were eliminated (2 questionnaires). That leads to a final sample size of 53 questionnaires.

Likert-scale answers like "x = not applicable" and missing answers of French, British and German management contingents are treated like system missing variables within the SPSS package, which means, that they do not influence the answers of the others at all.

The number of years that the French managers spent in Germany/outside France is shown in Figure III.7/Figure III.1. The same is the case for the number of years experience that French managers had with German managers anywhere in the world (see Figure III.4). All managers are divided into the categories manager/senior manager/general managers/chief executive and exhibits will show the concentration of either group (see Figure III.10).

British sample:

All non-British nationals were eliminated from this sample (\Rightarrow 58 are left). Three further questionnaires were taken out of the sample because their answers were senseless⁸³.

Of the remaining 55 questionnaires, three respondents (one of them is eliminated later which puts it down to two) have only answered in regard to the national setting, which leaves us with 52 comparisons of teams in national versus international settings. The managers in this group refer to teamwork with managers of German nationality. One questionnaire referring to teamwork between British and American managers was taken

⁸³ One respondent frequently misunderstood what the left and right side of the questionnaire refers to; another predominantly either answered with x = 'not applicable' or did not answer at all; the third respondent did not write accurately and corrected him/herself too often.

out of the sample. Therefore the final sample size is 54.

The number of years that this sample of British managers spent abroad, the length of their experience with Germans and their ranks will be pictured below see Figures III.2+5+8+11).

German sample:

Managers of German nationality (and very few Austrians) are included in this contingent. About 53 % of the questionnaires answer both the national and the international setting; 34 per cent refer to the national setting only and 10 % refer to the international setting only. Two questionnaires seemed pointless to include⁸⁴. It was also clear, that three respondents answering questions referring to the national setting were confused by the design of the questionnaire, which divides up national and international answers on the left and right side. On one or two pages each of these three respondents actually answered on the right side of the questionnaire even though they had previously referred to the national (=left) side only and had specified that they had little or no experience with other nationalities. Hence, these three questionnaires had to be manually altered in order to be correctly entered into the SPSS system files.

The responses for bi-/international teams refer to work with British and/or French colleagues only and five questionnaires not meeting this condition were taken out of the sample. The final number of questionnaires included in this sample is 70. The foreign exposure of the German managers is pictured below (see Figures III.3+6+9+12).

⁸⁴ One of these two questionnaires provides no information about which nationality/-ies the respondent refers to and the other questionnaire either does not answer the international side at all or answers this side exactly as the national side.

Amount of time spent abroad

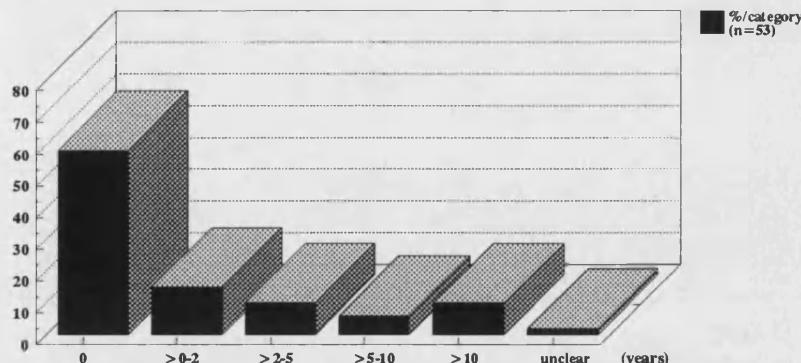


Figure III.1: Time spent abroad by managers from the French sample

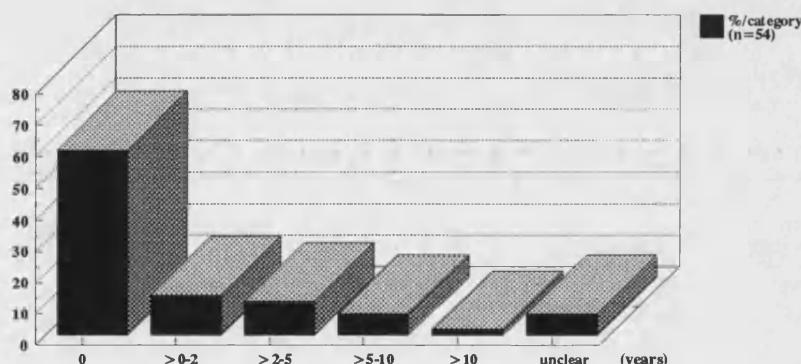


Figure III.2: Time spent abroad by managers from the British sample

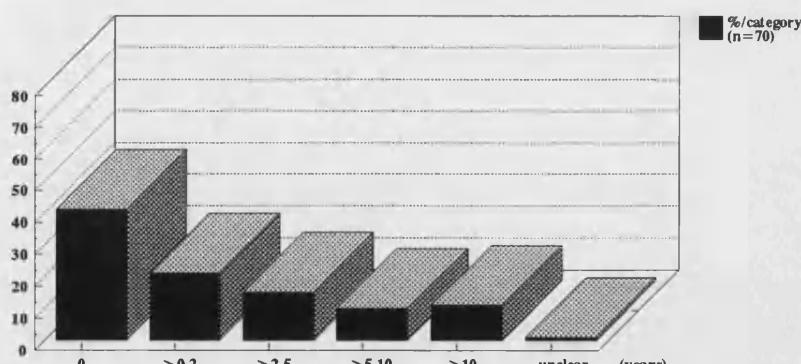


Figure III.3: Time spent abroad by managers from the German sample

Extent of experience with managers of another nationality

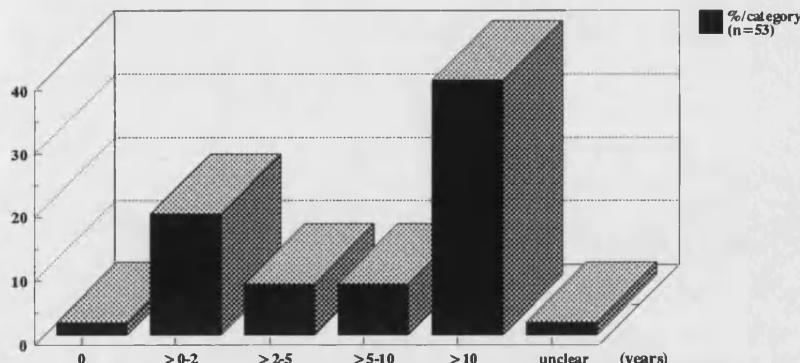


Figure III.4: Extent of French managers' experience with German managers

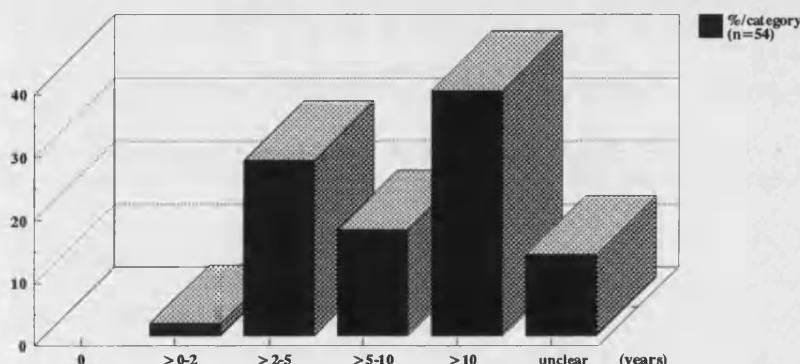


Figure III.5: Extent of British managers' experience with German managers

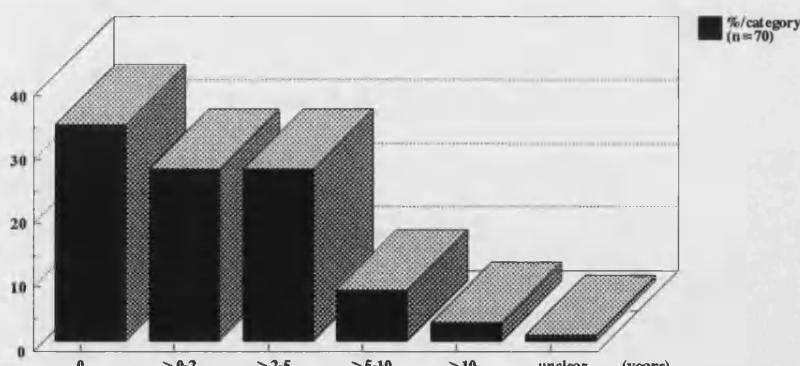


Figure III.6: Extent of German managers' experience with either British or French managers

Amount of time spent in target countries

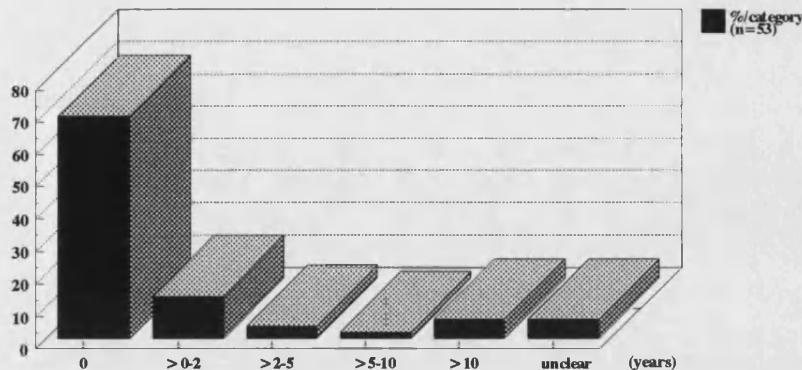


Figure III.7: Time French managers have spent in Germany

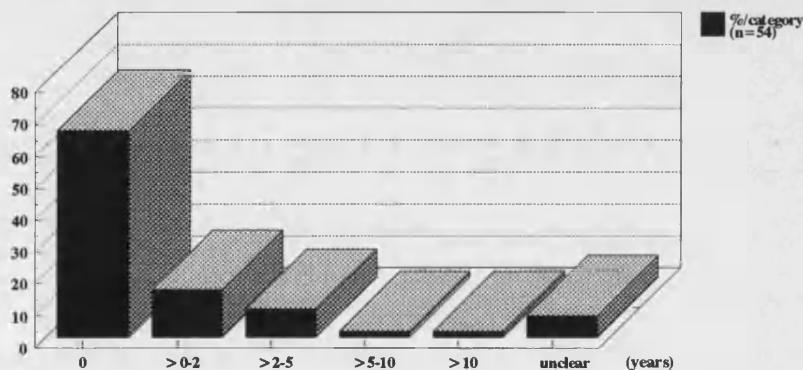


Figure III.8: Time British managers have spent in Germany

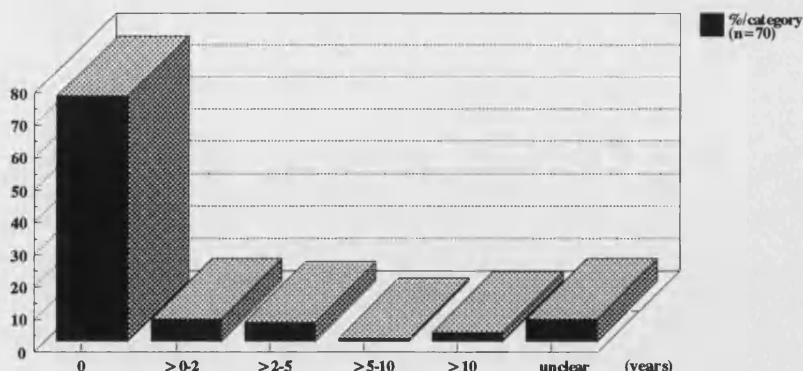


Figure III.9: Time German managers have spent in either Britain or France

Distribution of management levels among the three samples

(Table III.1 shows that MG and MH=manager/specialist; S=senior manager; G=general manager/div.dir.; CE=managing dir./chief executive)

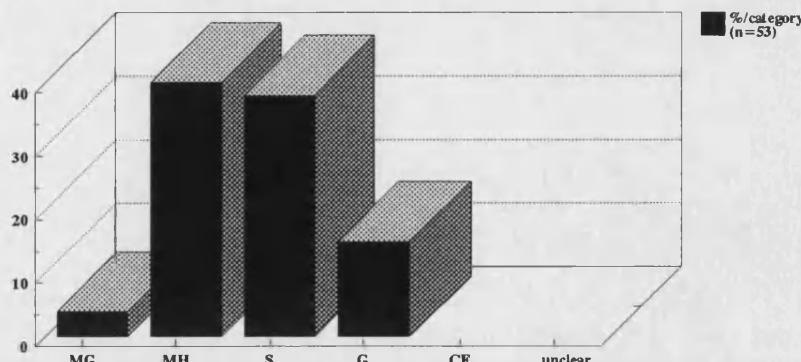


Figure III.10: Percentage distribution of management levels within French sample

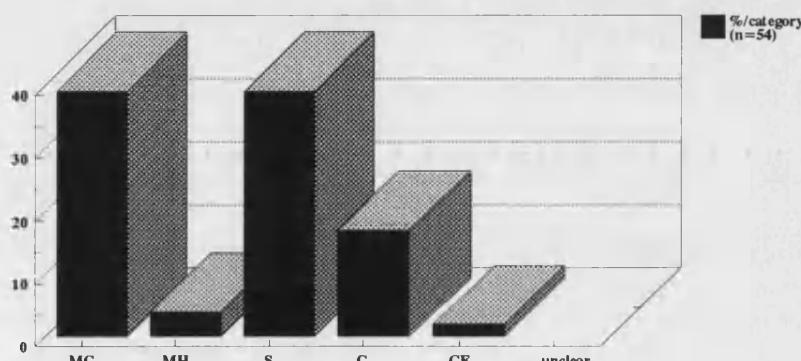


Figure III.11: Percentage distribution of management levels within British sample

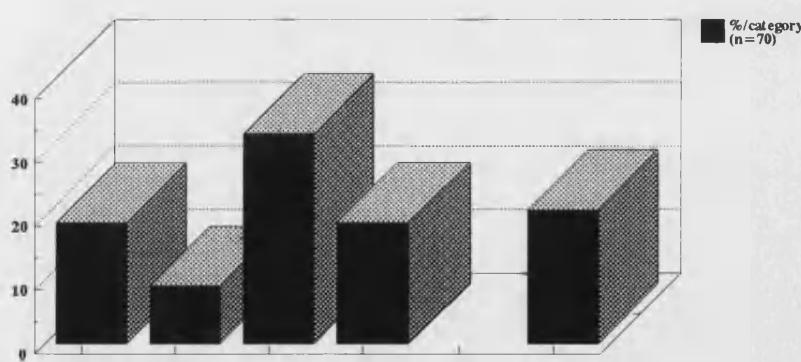


Figure III.12: Percentage distribution of management levels within German sample

A comparison of the three national samples shows the following

in regard to the amount of time spent abroad (Figures III.1 to 3):

- The French and British samples are comparable in terms of the number of years they spent abroad but the German sample is more international⁸⁵. About 60 per cent of them have lived abroad.

in regard to the extent of experience with managers of another nationality (Figures III.4 to 6):

- The relative majority of both French and British managers have more than 10 years experience with German colleagues. More than half of the German managers have more than 0 and less than 5 years experience with British and/or French colleagues⁸⁶.

in regard to the amount of time the managers spent in the target countries (Fig.III.7 to 9):

- The managers of the three samples compare well in terms of the number of years they have spent in a country other than their home country within the triad

⁸⁵ When examining only those respondents that have answered the questions for both the national and the international setting (as the t-test in Chapter V does), this pattern is largely confirmed (compare Figure III.1 to 3 with Figures A.III.1 to 3 in the Appendix).

⁸⁶ The t-test in Chapter V uses only those questionnaires, that provide information on both national and bi-/international teams. Does this smaller sample vary in respect to the extent of experience with managers of another nationality ? Figures A.III. 4 to 5 in the Appendix (when being compared with Figures III.4 to 5) confirm the trend stated for the French and British samples. Figure A.III.6 however shows, that the relative majority of German managers have more than 2 to five years experience with British and/or French colleagues. Overall, therefore, it can be said that within the smaller sample, the difference between the three national samples has decreased.

Germany-France-Britain. About two out of three within each sample has not lived in a triad country other than his/her own one⁸⁷.

in regard to the distribution of management levels of the three samples (Figures III.10 to 12):

→ There are differences in regard to the job hierarchies of the national samples.

These are the national definitions of the job levels (see Table III.1):

	Britain	Germany	France
MG	Manager/Specialist	Gruppenleiter	Chef de Groupe
MH	Manager/Specialist	Hauptgruppenleiter	Chef de Service
S	Senior Manager	Abteilungsleiter	Chef de Département
G	General Manager/ Divisional Director	Hauptabteilungs- leiter	Directeur de Division
CE	Managing Director/ Chief Executive	Bereichsvorstand/ LG Leitung	Directeur Général

Table III.1: National samples' management levels and titles

MG and MH are not separated in Britain (both 43 %) and if these categories are put together for France, then they make up 47 %, followed by 38 % of Senior

⁸⁷ This trend is confirmed by the smaller sample of questionnaires that provide information of both national and bi-/international teams (used in Chapter V), see Figures A.III.7 to 9 in Appendix and compare them with Figures III.7 to 9.

Managers (in contrast to 39 % for Britain). The respective figures for Germany are 28 % (clearly smaller proportion) and 33 % of Senior Managers. General Managers make up a share between 15 % and 19 % within all three national samples.

The examination of 'left-' and 'right-side' answers reverses some of these findings and provides France with a MG + MH share of 37 % and Britain one of 44 %. Germany follows at 30 %. France has the highest share of Senior Managers (45 %; Britain: 38 %; Germany: 27 %)⁸⁸.

At this point two results will be discussed. These are the following:

- German managers have less experience with British and French colleagues than, on the one hand, French managers have with Germans or, on the other hand, British managers have with German colleagues (24 have no experience in comparison with one respective zero for the French respective the British).
- More German managers have never been in Britain when compared with the time French or British managers have spent in Germany (54 have spent zero years in Britain compared with 36 respective 35). It has to be said though, that a high proportion of these managers have not offered answers for the international setting in the questionnaires. This keeps distortions to a minimum.

These differences may explain the fact that (as we shall see later) there are less statistically significant differences between the responses referring to national versus international teams within the German sample compared to both the French and British samples (see Chapter V). And there are also more significant differences between both German versus French/British responses on international teams as also between German versus French/British responses on national teams (see Chapter IV).

⁸⁸ Again, the smaller sample of questionnaires with information on both national and bi-/international teams, confirm above results (see Figures A.III.10 to 12 in Appendix).

As an experiment, all questionnaires that are on the border of distorting the overall file of German managers (so called 'questionable' ones) were taken out and t-tests contrasting national versus international teamwork were carried out again. The t-test results obtained from this smaller, and theoretically "cleaner" file, were hardly different from the ones obtained initially, accordingly the sample could be kept in its original size (initially, 8 significant differences were reported and the smaller file displayed 7 differences). As another experiment, this small group of questionnaires was contrasted with a file containing all the 'questionable' questionnaires and t-tests were carried out to test any significant differences between all (= national + international) variables (questions) of either file. In 5 % (11 out of 216 variables) there were significant differences. In other words, the finding (see later), that German managers observe very few differences between national and international teamwork (much less than French or British managers; see Chapter V) can not be alleviated by "cleaning up" the file. The technical procedure of "cleaning up" the German sample of managers has virtually no influence on the number of differences that the German respondents report between working within the national as opposed to the international setting.

III.4. Method of evaluation

The most straightforward method of evaluation is to calculate the medians or means of all Likert-scale answers of the respondents of each national sample and compare them in terms of differences between either national versus international teamwork or in terms of differences between French, British and German approaches to and perceptions of management.

This way of measuring does however not indicate whether these observed differences are statistically significant.

The fieldwork can realistically only deal with samples of populations, and even within these samples a number of errors could occur (such as subjective judgments, questionable

representativeness of sample, no commonly perceived distance between the answers on the Likert-scale). Whilst every effort was made to minimise these problems (see Chapter III.1), further methods need to be used in order to test whether the reported differences are significant: one needs to add an inductive element. This means that we want to draw conclusions from this sample to managers working within bi- or multicultural teams in general. The statistical significance-test allows us to judge, whether the results of this sample also occur in a wide group of internationally operating managers.

The null hypothesis H_0 suggests that there are no differences between the variables under consideration and the alternative hypothesis H_A results in rejecting the null hypothesis.

H_0 : There are no significant differences between working in a national as opposed to an international team.

H_A : There are significant differences when working together with colleagues other than of the same nationality.

Using a significance level of 5 per cent, the alternative hypothesis H_A thus, if affirmed, indicates, that with $\geq 95\%$ chance a certain result (e.g. rating on skill utilization) is affected by the international dimension.

The applied t-test is a parametric test. In its so-called dependent version it will try to assess the differences between working within either a national or an international team. The term 'dependent' refers to the method of testing different variables of only one sample (here French, British or German managers in their isolated samples). The independent t-test provides results on the same variables of two different (independent) samples and can thus be used to show variations between different nationalities' management styles. Parametric tests assume normal distribution within the sample and homogeneous variances. These two qualities cannot generally be assumed from such small samples as the one involved in this project. Therefore the results are double-checked with non-parametric tests where possible.

For instance, when comparing French, British and German management teams, the Mann-Whitney test is used. The Mann-Whitney test is an appropriate test if the attribute of normal distribution is either violated or questionable. The null hypothesis proceeds on the assumption that both samples stem from the same population.

When comparing national versus international management teams, it is not possible to conduct the non-parametric Chi-Square test because of the sample size involved. The t-test is generally very robust against violations of the two qualities of normal distribution and homogeneity (as the cross-check shows).

Tests comparing national versus international teamwork (same sample):

- Parametric: Dependent t-test
- Non-parametric: Chi-Square and Moses test

Tests for comparing French versus British versus German management styles (independent samples):

- Parametric: Independent t-test
- Non-Parametric: Mann-Whitney, Median (small samples), Kruskal-Wallis (more than 2 independent samples necessary)

The significance test is likely to reveal a large number of differences that are statistically significant. By offering an alternative statistical procedure, which can group together those variables/items that best describe the differences between the two forms of teams under consideration here, we want to avoid the dangers of overlapping inherent in the t-test. This second procedure will also offer an alternative statistical technique to the attribute of significance. While the t-test compares the average value on an item describing national teams with the respective average value describing bi-/international teams, the second technique extracts underlying factors that explain a maximum proportion of the variances between values for national and values for bi-/international teams.

Conducting a principal component or factor analysis has proven to be a non-trivial problem because of the special questionnaire design used in this research (two values/responses for each questionnaire item/variable).

The factor analysis "...has found ever more advocates in ever-wide fields of application. When some concepts are not directly measurable (as often in the social sciences) and

hence latent variables underlying a number of manifest variables have to be used, then the use of FA [factor analysis] can be justified...However, as one moves further from the Social Sciences toward Natural Sciences, it becomes more difficult to justify the use of these techniques; in the latter disciplines most entities are precisely measurable, and the existence of sensible latent variables becomes less defensible. At the extremes of, say, Physics or Chemistry, the models become totally unbelievable" (Krzanowski, 1988: 476-7).

Firstly, a large scale factor analysis was conducted. It used every response as an independent variable of its own. It extracted only 2 factors. Naming these is impossible in view of the number of variables that each one represents. But the interesting result is, that factor 1 only consists of national while factor 2 only consists of international variables (responses).

Secondly, the variables were divided mentally (on theoretical grounds) into 5 different areas as follows:

- Satisfaction (23 variables, 46 values)
- Interaction (44 variables, 88 values)
- Skill Utilization (17 variables, 34 values)
- Conflicts (12 variables, 24 values)
- Standardization of work processes, products, corporate tasks+goals+identity (7 variables, 14 values)

Subsequently, principal component analyses were carried out for Satisfaction, Interaction, Skill Utilization and Conflicts (grouping between 12 to 44 variables).

Within these areas, we want to examine whether there are some underlying factors, that are able to "represent" groups of variables. National and international teamwork can then be scored on various one- or more-dimensional diagrams, where each dimension is made up of one factor or principal component.

The identification of such underlying factors simplifies the description and will give us an understanding for relationships among the answers of the respondents.

One further concern is whether any of the chosen areas (Satisfaction, Interaction, Skill

Utilization and Conflicts) should undergo further subdivision with the result of conducting separate principal component analyses of these subdivisions (for instance the area Interaction could be divided into: 1.effects of participation, 2.teamwork occurrence and assessment and 3.mutual exchange of information). This problem is subject to the review of the KMO values⁸⁹, the percentage of variance that is explained by the relevant principal components, the construction and resulting ease of naming the factors and to the absence of one factor solutions within the subdivisions (since these cannot be rotated and this decreases the comparability to statistical grade values of multiple factor solutions). On the basis of these criteria we have chosen not to subdivide further.

Within each area, two parallel factor analyses were undertaken, one for the national and another for the international setting. Each principal component analysis developed a number of usable factors for the 4 areas.

The questionnaire design for this research project with two responses (values) for the same question (variable/item), however, causes extraordinary problems, since there are more than one basis upon which the factors can be developed.

Separately conducted factor analyses of either national or international values have shown that the KMO values for the factor model developed from national variables are different from the corresponding ones of international variables. The number of factors representing each group of variables is different, too. Also their composition (what variables develop each factor; and in which order they develop it; what algebraic sign variables have) is different.

This is factually a welcome result since the aim of this research project is to show, that the work within a national context is different from that within an international setting. But mathematically it poses problems.

At times it seems preferable to take national variables as a basis, because they enable a

⁸⁹ "The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy is an index for comparing the magnitudes of the observed correlation coefficients to the magnitudes of the partial correlation coefficients. ... Small values for the KMO measure indicate that a factor analysis of the variables may not be a good idea, since correlations between pairs of variables cannot be explained by the other variables" (Norušis, 1990:B-128-9).

more differentiated representation of the variables.

Apart from this, taking national responses as the basis upon which the factor model is built can be justified by the following reasoning: in this project we want to contrast international with national teamwork. The basis or starting point is the work of managers with colleagues of their own nationality. Taking this as a reference (as the normal, usual situation) we then want to obtain descriptions of how (and to what extent) international teamwork is different.

However, scoring international values on a national factor model yields unsatisfactory results because these values neutralise each other partly (they do not have similar deflection). The findings would be mitigated and thus falsified.

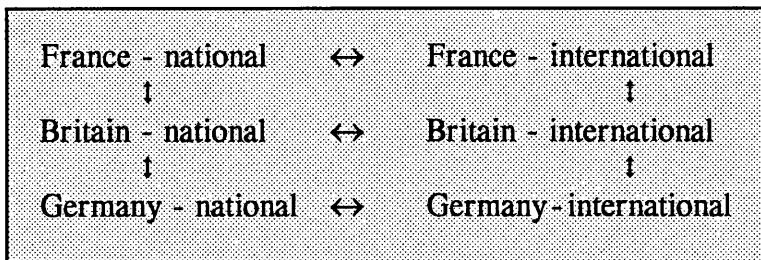
To sum up: Can we score the international setting on a factor model developed out of material of the national setting ? Yes, but this may not be optimal. Can we score each setting on their own models? No, because the comparability between both settings is not given.

Therefore a new statistical procedure had to be developed.

A novel strategy must develop a principal component or factor model on which we can score and compare all three nationalities and both settings (6 different situations: British managers working in national versus British managers working in international settings versus Germans working in a national versus an international environment versus French working nationally versus internationally).

The solution is as follows (the same technique was followed for each of the different areas):

→ 6 covariance matrices⁹⁰ are calculated for each of the 6 situations:



→ these 6 matrices are averaged to one pooled covariance matrix; the procedure of pooling the 6 matrices is necessary because we are interested in the structure within each group (F-NAT, F-INT, B-NAT, B-INT, D-NAT, D-INT)

→ the pooled covariance matrix is converted into a pooled (within situation) correlation matrix

→ this grand correlation matrix is used for a principal component analysis; the results

⁹⁰ Reasons for a covariance matrix are:

- ambition to compare all these within groups with each other
- this technique accepts, that Variable 1 of national teams is equal to Variable 1 of international teams and it adds these variables up; desire to have the same weight for both values of same variable - otherwise the comparison is not possible
- for each situation the covariances and variances are calculated about the situation or group mean.

are excellent⁹¹ in terms the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO); the factor extraction step uses the method of principal component analysis and this obtains 7 factors for the 4 areas.

The principal component analysis is the default extraction method within the SPSS factor analysis. "In principal component analysis, linear combinations of the observed variables are formed. The first principal component is the combination that accounts for the largest amount of variance in the sample. The second principal component accounts for the next largest amount of variance and is uncorrelated with the first. Successive components explain progressively smaller portions of the total sample variance, and all are uncorrelated with each other" (Norušis, 1990:B-129).

⁹¹ Kaiser (1974) points out that measures in the 0.90's are 'marvellous', in the 0.80's are 'meritorious', in the 0.70's are 'middling', in the 0.60's are 'mediocre', in the 0.50's are 'miserable' and below 0.5 are 'unacceptable'.

Throughout we obtained values in the 0.90's (Satisfaction: 0.95; Interaction: 0.95; Skill Utilization: 0.94 and Conflicts: 0.94).

Overview over the principal components/factors

	KMO	explained % of variance	used in further analysis	name
SATISFACTION (23 variables)	.95	1. Factor: 84.8 2. Factor: 5.1	yes no	F1
INTERACTION (44 variables)	.95	1. Factor: 76.0 2. Factor: 8.8 3. Factor: 6.6	yes no yes	F2 F3
SKILL UTILIZATION (17 variables)	.94	1. Factor: 88.0	yes	F4
CONFLICTS (12 variables)	.94	1. Factor: 86.4	no	

- the next step is to position the 6 different situations on the principal components (factors):
firstly, the country responses were manually calculated (each variable is weighted equally) and the results are shown in Figures V.1, 3, 5 and 7 of Chapter V; because of several shortcomings of this technique, a second strategy was developed
- the factor score coefficients of this principal component analysis are used to score the six situations on each factor; the following formula is applied:

$$\sum_r \frac{S_{ir} * (X_{jkr} - X_r)}{STD_r} = \text{country scoring in NAT or INT setting on a factor}$$

S_{ir} denotes the Factor Score Coefficient of the i -th Factor for the r -th question

X_{jkr} denotes the average of the answer of j -th setting (NATIONAL or INTERNATIONAL teamwork) of the k -th nationality (French/British or Germans) for the r -th question

X_r denotes the grand average (of all three nationalities F+B+D) and the two settings (NAT and INTER) for the r -th question

STD_r denotes the standard deviation (within-group std.dev.) of the answers of all three nationalities (F+B+D) and both settings (NATIONAL and INTERNATIONAL answers)

Brief explanation of formula:

With the Principal Component Analysis we obtain new variables as linear functions of original variables. The factor score coefficients S_{ir} are received as one of the outputs of the Principal Component Analysis. To get the new variables we must multiply each S_{ir} by the rescaled original variable, and sum over all r .

The procedure of subtracting X_r centres the between group values on zero rather than on X_r . That makes the understanding easier and more convenient.

Our Principal Component Analysis uses the within group correlation matrix. Therefore the formula for calculating Principal Components requires each variable to be rescaled by dividing by its within group standard deviation STD_r .

→ the results of this technique are shown in Chapter V, Section 9 (Figures V.2,4,6 and 8)

III.5. The company where the fieldwork took place

Siemens, Europe's biggest employer⁹² and Europe's leading electrical and electronics group is moving from a German multinational firm to a global corporation. For this it aims to explore synergy between the cultures in which it operates. The ambition is to develop a truly international management style and human resources policy.

Siemens has been living with an image of a German corporation with international operations for most of the past 100 years. In order to encourage global and international attitudes on the basis of a Siemens corporate culture it has undertaken a pilot study in early 1990 to collect the best ways of doing business and managing people in international settings and markets. This is a requirement for developing intercultural synergy and for complementing the work done by researchers in that field.

For this Siemens interviewed 22 managers (21 of them of British nationality and one German) and the results of this inventory helped to narrow down potential problem areas for heterogenous management teams (see Chapter II).

We will assess the present stage of corporate evolution along a dimension spanning from domestic to global enterprise in order to evaluate where Siemens stands.

"As more firms today move from domestic, international, and multinational organizations to operating as truly global organizations and alliances, the importance of cultural diversity increases markedly. What once was 'nice to understand' becomes imperative for survival, let alone success" (Adler & Ghadar, 1990).

⁹² See "Europe's biggest employers 1992" (p.14), "Europe's Top 500 compared by market capitalization 1992" (p.6) and "Europe's Top 200 by turnover 1992" (p.12) in: *FT500, The Financial Times*, (London), February 10th, 1993.

What are the typical characteristics of the different stages ? Table III.2⁹³ answers this question along the four evolutionary phases domestic, international, multinational and global.

	I. DOMESTIC	II. INTERNAT.	III. MULTINAT.	IV. GLOBAL
Primary orientation	product/ service	market	price	strategy
Company strategy	domestic	multidomestic	multinational	global
Product/ service	new, unique	more standardized	completely standardized	mass- customized
Competitors	none	few	many	significant (few or many)
Market	small, domestic	large, multidomestic	larger, multinational	largest, global
Production location	domestic	domestic + primary markets	multinational, least cost	global, least cost
Structure	centralized	decentralized	centralized	co-ordinated, decentralized
Cultural sensitivity with whom level	marginally important no one no one	very important clients workers + clients	somewhat important employees managers	critically important employees + clients executives
Strategic assumption	"one way", "one best way"	"many good ways", equifinality	"one least- cost way"	"many good ways" simul- taneously

Table III.2: International Corporate Evolution

⁹³ The first three phases are based on Vernon (1966) and the last one was added by Adler (1988:xiii-xvi).

Product Systems marketing

As we see in Table III.3, nearly one half of the responding managers of the Siemens pilot study thought of Siemens as being a "German corporation with foreign marketing, manufacturing and R & D facilities", which rather speaks in favour of an international as opposed to a multinational⁹⁴ or global enterprise. The production location of an international firm is located in the domestic and the primary markets. A multinational firm selects its production sites according to costs, which only one of the respondents agreed to as being Siemens' policy. Two further aspects of an international enterprise is its decentralised structure and its primary orientation on the market.

Human Resources Management

STAGE OF INTERNATIONALIZATION APPLYING TO SIEMENS	N.OF RESP.
German corporation with export business	3
German corp. with foreign marketing subsidiaries	2
German corp. with foreign marketing and manufacturing subsidiaries	4
German corp. with foreign marketing, manufacturing, and R&D facilities	10
International corp. with German HQ	1
International corp. with local units free to launch innovative products in international markets	1
Multinational corp. using local advantages to maximize corporate profit and gain bigger share of global markets	1
International corp. combining all assets in co-operation networks worldwide to increase competitiveness in global markets	-

Table III.3: Product/Systems Marketing within the company

⁹⁴ Christopher Lorenz (referring to Yao-Su Hu, 1992) recommends careful questioning of the significance of the term multinational since most multinational, global or transnational firms are merely national entities with foreign operations (criteria include geographic spread, ownership and control, ratio of foreigners, legal nationality and taxation). See Christopher Lorenz (4.3.1992).

Table III.4 shows that the spectrum within which the majority of answers focus is narrower here (than within Table III.3); 14 of the managers approve of the statement that "most key positions [are] held by local nationals with limited international experience". This indeed indicates a decentralised structure. It is also evidence of the importance attached to cultural sensitivity with clients and employees in the non-domestic market. The necessity for considerable international cultural experience has not won widespread recognition. Relationships to the headquarters in Munich are obviously understood as playing a more important role when managers have to be appointed.

STAGE OF INTERNATIONALIZATION APPLYING TO SIEMENS' H.R.M.	N.OF RESP.
All key positions held by German nationals	-
Most key positions held by Germans, some by local nationals with little experience of HQ	2
Most key positions held by Germans, some by local nationals with wide experience of HQ	3
Some key positions held by Germans, some by local nationals who have also held responsible positions in Germany	2
Most key positions held by local nationals with limited international experience	14
Most key positions held by local nationals with considerable international experience	1
Most key positions held by local nationals prepared through international job rotation for their positions	-
Most key positions held on basis of international management experience regardless of nationality	-
Most key positions held on basis of international qualifications, language and communication skills and cultural adaptability	-

Table III.4: Human Resource Management at Siemens

True international convictions ?

Apart from the previously quoted pilot study carried out by Siemens internally, the main national samples (as described in Section 3 of this Chapter) were asked to, among others, position their company in relation to a number of criteria. These criteria or questions and their answers are listed in Table III.5 below. The figures indicate the means (medians) of the French, British and German contingents on a 5-point-scale ranging from 1 = 'yes, I definitely agree' to 5 = 'no, I definitely disagree'.

TRUE INTERNATIONAL CONVICTIONS ?	French	British	German
The organization can cope with the complexity caused by being confronted with different nationalities.	2.4 (2)	2.5 (2)	2.6 (2)
There is enough cross-cultural communication, exchange and learning to blend together the best from everywhere.	2.9 (3)	3.4 (4)	3.2 (4)
The employees are able to avoid stereotyping in respect to nationality.	2.7 (2)	3.2 (3)	2.6 (2)
The strong corporate identity compensates for centrifugal forces caused by different cultural attitudes.	2.4 (2)	2.7 (2)	2.9 (3)
Siemens-LG's, associated companies and HQ are able to pursue different market behaviour in different countries.	2.4 (2)	2.5 (2)	2.4 (2)
Human resource practices that cope with the different attitudes to work in different countries are being developed.	2.8 (3)	3.0 (3)	2.9 (3)
There is a national dominance from the HQ-country.	2.0 (2)	2.4 (2)	2.1 (2)
I find complete absence of German company practices desirable for a multinational in the electronics industry.	3.0 (3)	3.3 (4)	2.4 (2)
Siemens' "Management-by-cooperation" is as successful in international as in national settings.	3.0 (3)	2.9 (3)	3.1 (3)

Mean (and median) of the following scale:

1 = yes, I definitely agree; 2 = yes, I tend to agree; 3 = I am undecided; 4 = no, I tend to disagree; 5 = no, I definitely disagree

Table III.5: True International Convictions within Siemens ?

All three countries agree that there is a national dominance from the HQ (headquarters) country (this question is answered most positively of all). German managers find themselves answering this question numerically in-between the French and British managers. French managers are 'undecided' whether they find a complete absence of German company practices desirable for a multinational in the electronics industry. The British rather negate the desirability of such an absence and hence value German company practices. The Germans are, surprisingly enough, most positive about this and 'tend' to agree, that German company practices are undesirable for a multinational in the electronics industry. Whatever the explanation for this (there can surely be different definitions of what exactly German practices are), the biggest difference between the three national medians can be found here.

The three countries 'tend to agree' (in terms of the median) that the organization can cope with the complexity caused by the confrontation of different nationalities.

The respondents state that this is the case because of the long experience (good examples and guidelines from company history) and flexibility (high tolerance; readiness to meet other nationalities) of the managers, the good team spirit (sense of family), the training, the common company culture, interests and targets, the corporate system facilitating this and because of the proportion of international business⁹⁵.

The managers who are sceptical as to whether the organization can cope with the complexity caused by the confrontation of different nationalities mention that in difficult situations there is seldom purposeful leadership, that there is not enough exchange at working level (time is a problem, but face-to-face experience is the key; too few people understand different nationalities and their value system) and that headquarters should open its doors to different nationalities and gain more knowledge of international conditions, markets and customers.

Overall, there does not seem be enough cross-cultural communication, exchange and learning to blend together the best from everywhere (see Table III.5). This is stated to

⁹⁵ According to United Nations sources (quoted in The Economist, 27.3.1993:6) Siemens' \$ 15.1 billion foreign sales (including export sales) make up 40 % of total sales in 1990.

be the case because of the many preconclusions, the lack of confidence in each other's skills and results and the insufficient exposure to cross-cultural ideas and thought processes across the vast majority of employees ("when push comes to shove, the right nationality is almost always right"). On the other hand, it was also pointed out, that cross-cultural teams, the many foreigners within the company and the company climate have all strongly strengthened the awareness of cultural differences (European ideas are increasing).

Both non-headquarters countries (France and Britain) find that the strong corporate identity 'tends' to compensate for the centrifugal forces caused by different cultural attitudes within the company (see Table III.5).

They were asked whether this was practically the most successful way of dealing with many nationalities.

Affirmative responses point to the fact that this is a significant contributor and that without it, separate identities would be created leading to additional problems. While a strong corporate identity is seen as necessary, it was not considered sufficient. In addition there is a need for better understanding of different cultural working habits, a need to integrate foreign employees, a need for more knowledge and cultivation of the best of each culture and a need for more job-rotation. The corporate identity also has to be communicated well within non-headquarters operations and it must successfully make employees think in terms of the company and not in terms of the nation.

All three countries 'tend' to agree (see Table III.5), that Siemens managers do pursue different market behaviour in different countries (this group of respondents thus put a more international image on Siemens as compared to the group under consideration in Siemens' own inventory).

All three countries also agree in their 'undecidedness' about whether human resource practices, which cope with the different attitudes to work in different countries were being developed. And finally, French, British and German managers are also 'undecided' as to whether Siemens' "management-by-cooperation" is as successful internationally as it is nationally.

Summary

This chapter outlines the contribution to the academic world and to practitioners that this project hopes to provide. It then details and mutually compares each national management sample used for the verification of the hypotheses. The methods of evaluation are described thoroughly with special emphasis being put on the reconstructability of the novel Principal Component Analysis developed for the questionnaire design of this project. Further reference to the content of each principal component (factor) will be made within Chapter V, Section 9. The chapter concludes by describing the multinational company where the fieldwork took place. This is done by reporting on international corporate evolution and the stage of internationalization regarding the organization, human resources management and employee convictions.

CHAPTER IV:

What are the differences in national management styles and how do these results fit into the earlier mentioned body of literature ?

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Aims

It is the aim of Chapter IV to detail the differences between the French, British and German management styles in regard to the areas that have been shown (in Chapter II) to be of high relevance to practitioners in the field: participation, decision-making, co-operation, mutual exchange of information, satisfaction, skill utilization, conflicts and standardization.

The differences and similarities between the three national management contingents are shown in full and significance tests have been conducted in order to show where the differences are statistically significant.

These results are then contrasted with the body of literature mentioned in Chapter I.

The Tables IV.1 to 10 list all the statements of the questionnaire and show the arithmetic means of the responses of the French 'F', British 'B' and German 'D' managers. The numbers refer to the Likert-type responses (1 = 'yes, I definitely agree'; 2 = 'yes, I tend to agree'; 3 = 'I am undecided'; 4 = 'no, I tend to disagree'; and 5 = 'no, I definitely disagree'). In the first three columns the tables show whether the differences between French and British 'F↔B', French and German 'F↔D' plus between British and German managers 'B↔D' are classified as significant '✓' by both the independent t-test and the Mann-Whitney test. If the status of significance is only submitted by the independent t-test, this is noted with 'T' and in the case of sole Mann-Whitney significance it is registered with 'M'.

We see that both tests submit the attribute of significance slightly differently. If we examine the results of all three comparisons (F↔B, F↔D, B↔D) in respect of national variables only, then it is obvious that:

- the parametric t-test has described 5 differences as significant that were not mentioned as significant by the non-parametric Mann-Whitney test
- the Mann-Whitney test has described 2 differences as significant that were not already classified as significant by the independent t-test.
- and a further 74 differences were attributed significance by both tests.

The parametric t-test demands more qualities from its sample (normal distribution within the sample and equal (homogenous) variances of the populations, out of which the two samples are taken) and if these are met then it offers more precise results. It cannot be said that the responses have a normal distribution. The t-test is, however, robust against the breach of this condition.

The reader is referred to the Appendix (A.IV.) for tables of all the statistical details of the differences between French and British (Tables A.IV.1), French and German (Tables A.IV.2) and British and German management (Tables A.IV.3).

IV.1. Participation in decision-making

IV.1.A. Satisfaction with participation

F ↔ B	F ↔ D	B ↔ D	F	B	D	Statement
			2.5	2.3	2.4	I am satisfied with the way my immediate superior asks for my opinion on matters related to my work.
	✓		2.2	2.5	2.1	I am satisfied with my participation in decisions relating to my work.
			2.3	2.2	2.2	I am satisfied with the way my immediate superior pays attention to my ideas and suggestions.
✓	✓		1.6	2.3	2.3	I am satisfied with my opportunities to take on responsibility.
			2.6	2.8	2.5	I am satisfied with the way I am consulted by my immediate superior when changes in my work occur.

Country-means of: 1 = 'yes, I definitely agree' 2 = 'yes, I tend to agree' 3 = 'I am undecided' 4 = 'no, I tend to disagree' 5 = 'no, I definitely disagree'
 Significance according to both '✓' tests, only Mann-Whitney 'M' or only t-test 'T' ($\alpha=5\%$)

Table IV.1: The differences between French, British and German managers in respect of satisfaction with participation.

Table IV.1 shows, that the French sample of managers is more satisfied with its opportunities to take on responsibility. In this respect there are significant differences with both the British and the German samples. And this aspect is the decisive reason as to why the French state that they are on average slightly more satisfied with their participation⁹⁶ (French average for five statements: 2.2 while British score at 2.4 and German managers register 2.3). British and German managers are equally satisfied with

⁹⁶ As encompassed by the 5 statements of this table.

their opportunities to take on responsibility.

Generally it can be assumed that the level of satisfaction in regard to responsibility has to do with stratification (more rigid in France), job demarcation (tighter in France), centralization (more prevalent in France), the tallness of the organizational pyramid and with individual uncertainty avoidance (very high uncertainty avoiding managers, as in France, are said to be less willing to make individual and risky decisions and they are also generally more satisfied). Hofstede (1984) has also argued that one of the exploitable advantages of countries with small power distances (as Britain and Germany) lies in the acceptance of responsibility. Larger power distance countries (such as France) are readily exploitable for their sense of discipline.

Having lower expectations and feeling more ambivalent towards responsibility, French managers are therefore easier to satisfy with a certain and in all three countries equal level of responsibility.

Since the samples of French and British managers are comparable in terms of their job hierarchies, this constitutes no reason for different satisfaction levels.

Another finding is that British managers are significantly less satisfied than their German colleagues with their participation in decisions that are related to their work.

This result can be explained by the more democratic style that has been attributed to British managers (Lane, 1989) vis-à-vis German ones, which makes British managers have higher demands and expectations regarding participation⁹⁷.

⁹⁷ Other characteristics attributed to British management in Chapter I help little or indeed contradict the present results. For instance, the low uncertainty avoidance of the British (making them more comfortable in ambiguous situations and with unfamiliar risks) could make them more indifferent towards participating in decisions related to their work.

IV.1.B. Effects of participation

The statements about participation are intended to describe the attitudes that different national management samples have about more participation (in relative and not in absolute terms). The respondents state disapproval of increased participation when answering positively phrased statements negatively and/or negatively phrased statements positively.

Table IV.2 shows that the French and German sample give equally affirmative answers to the positive statements (French mean: 2.0; German mean: 2.0; British mean: 2.3) while the British reply slightly less in the affirmative. Regarding statements of disapproval, German managers negate these most strongly (German mean: 4.2) followed by British (4.0) and French (3.9) colleagues. It can therefore generally be said that German managers view increased participation more favourably than the two other nationalities. The French sample follows in second place while British managers still consider increased participation as advantageous (in absolute terms), they follow in third place.

There are two statements within Table IV.2 that capture negative consequences by stressing the waste of time and the unfolding of tension resulting from more participation. German managers disagree more strongly than the French and British that too much time is wasted because of more participation and here they differ significantly from both the French and the British samples (who both disagree with this less vehemently). All three nationalities equally reject the suggestion that more tension arises as a consequence of more participation.

F ↔ B	F ↔ D	B ↔ D	F	B	D	Statement
T	✓	✓	1.8	2.0	1.8	Because of <u>more participation...</u>
			1.7	2.0	1.7	I know better what is going on in the company
			1.8	2.1	1.8	I have more job satisfaction
			1.9	2.2	2.3	I accept decisions more easily
			2.3	2.4	2.7	I have more influence on day-to-day matters
			4.0	4.2	4.0	worker's interests are better looked after
			3.7	3.8	4.3	more tension occurs
			2.0	2.2	1.9	too much time is wasted
			2.1	2.7	2.3	in general the quality of decisions is better
			1.9	2.1	2.0	people are getting more say in company/departmental policy making
			1.9	2.2	1.7	there is a better atmosphere in the department
			2.4	2.6	1.9	people's abilities and experiences are better utilised
			2.4	2.6	1.9	people have gained greater independence and responsibility.

Country-means of: 1='yes,I definitely agree' 2='yes,I tend to agree' 3='I am undecided' 4='no,I tend to disagree' 5='no,I definitely disagree'
 Significance according to both '✓' tests, only Mann-Whitney 'M' or only t-test 'T' ($\alpha=5\%$)

Table IV.2: The differences between French, British and German managers with regard to effects of participation.

With regard to positively phrased suggestions within Table IV.2 there is only one significant difference between French and British managers: French respondents affirm more strongly that people are getting more say in company and/or departmental policy making as a result of more participation. British managers are 'undecided' about this while German colleagues 'tend' to affirm it and are hence closer to the French position

in this respect.

When examining the significant differences between French and German managers, it is obvious that the German respondents feel more strongly that they have gained greater independence and responsibility. The French sample, on the other hand, 'tends' to affirm that worker's interests are better looked after (German colleagues being 'undecided') and they also affirm more strongly that they have more influence on the day-to-day matters because of more participation.

British and German managers differ in regard to the following aspects: the German sample affirms more strongly that more participation results in greater independence and responsibility, in better utilization of peoples' abilities and experiences and also in improved quality of decisions.

Why do the German managers view increased participation more favourably than the French ?

Table IV.2 shows the following reasons in this respect: the gain of greater independence and responsibility and the rejection that more time is wasted.

Why do German managers perceive increased participation to be more advantageous than the British ? The reasons for this include the gain of greater independence and responsibility (again), the rejection that too much time is wasted (again), better quality of decisions and better utilization of peoples' abilities and experiences.

The French sample views more participation to be slightly less valuable than their German colleagues. What are the reasons for this ? On one side they feel that for them more participation leads to more influence on day-to-day matters and that worker's interests are better looked after (more positive effects here than for the Germans), but on the other side they state that too much time is wasted and they are 'unsure' if people have gained greater independence and responsibility (also more negative effects/lack of advantages than for Germans; the disadvantages outweigh the advantages).

The British sample considers more participation as least beneficial when compared to the two other samples. Compared to the French sample this is because they are (only) 'undecided' as to whether people are getting more say in company/departmental policy making. And compared to the German one this is because of the view that they are (only) 'undecided' as to whether people have gained greater independence and responsibility and also because they affirm less strongly (than the Germans) that both abilities and

experiences are better utilized and that the quality of decisions are better. On top of this, they more easily than the Germans, affirm that too much time is wasted because of more participation.

Heller & Wilpert (1981) present evidence that the attitudes to participation (in absolute terms⁹⁸) are exactly the same in both Germany and Britain. For these two nationalities, participation primarily improves the technical quality of decisions whereas for the French participation mainly improves communication.

The present results, however, indicate that French and British managers view more participation as primarily increasing job satisfaction⁹⁹ and German managers state that more participation increases both job satisfaction and the utilization of people's abilities and experiences (mean in both cases 1.683).

The study by Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966) offers data that the German in comparison with British and French managers have a more democratic conception of sharing information and objectives (SIO index). In regard to the belief in participative management there is not a big difference between the three countries. This study, however, has to be treated with caution because of the fact that nationality only plays a small role when explaining the differences between the responses.

Among the descriptive studies, Lane (1989) attributes a participative management style to the British while the German style is not characterized as authoritarian (Lawrence 1980; Lane 1989; Simon 1992). And Ebster-Grosz and Pugh (1992:15) state that the "Germans follow a consensus decision-making style whereas the British favour more individualistic entrepreneurialism".

Breuer & de Bartha (1993a) state that German managers decide by consensus whereas French ones rather decide by directive, which is confirmed by the present results.

Since the emphasis of previous studies are different to the present results (absolute versus relative views on participation), this study tends to extend rather than verify previous results.

⁹⁸ The questionnaire is phrased 'Expectations from participation' and not from more participation, see Heller & Wilpert (1981:210).

⁹⁹ British managers' mean score for 'I have more job satisfaction' equals 1.98 versus 2.04 for 'I know better what is going on in the company'.

IV.1.C. Decision-making

F ↔ B	F ↔ D	B ↔ D	F	B	D	Statement
✓		✓	3.6	3.3	3.9	I am <u>satisfied when decisions are made by...</u>
	✓	✓	2.4	3.0	2.5	the person with the greater authority and power
	✓	✓	1.8	1.7	2.5	the person whose job description carries the responsibility
✓	✓		2.5	3.3	3.3	the person with most knowledge and expertise about the problem
			4.4	4.6	4.5	the person most personally involved and affected by the outcome
			4.3	4.2	4.2	the person with the "right" nationality
						the people who have taken them in the past.

Country-means of: 1 = 'yes, I definitely agree' 2 = 'yes, I tend to agree' 3 = 'I am undecided' 4 = 'no, I tend to disagree' 5 = 'no, I definitely disagree'
 Significance according to both '✓' tests, only Mann-Whitney 'M' or only t-test 'T' ($\alpha=5\%$)

Table IV.3: The differences between French, British and German managers in respect of decision-making

We see from Table IV.3, that taking decisions because one is of "right" nationality is a procedure which is strongly disliked equally by all three nationalities.

They are also equally strongly against decisions being taken by the people who have taken them in the past.

For each nationality satisfaction is highest when decisions are taken by the person with most knowledge and expertise about the problem (see Table IV.3). This sapiential decision-making is preferred equally strongly by British and French managers, who both significantly differ from the - in this respect less satisfied - German sample. The German respondents score in-between 'yes, I tend to agree' and 'I am undecided' (2.5) on this suggestion, which challenges the findings of Lawrence (1980), who argues that

particularly German managers are stronger for the fact that they emphasize the sapiential dimension of authority. It also challenges Breuer & de Bartha's (1993a) claim, that the German leadership style is competence related and the French one is person related. But again, the emphasis is slightly different: both studies deal with the degree to which this style is practised and not with the level of satisfaction each country has from this style. The extending feature of the present results lies in the fact that both the French and the British are significantly more satisfied with sapiential decision-making than the German managers.

Decision-making on the basis of formal considerations (by the person whose job description carries the responsibility) is the second most popular style of all three nationalities, but both the French and the German significantly differ from the British sample, which is 'undecided' (=most negative) about this. This gives some confirmation to Barsoux & Lawrence's (1990) statement, that the British management style is person-driven and not systems driven. The attachment of the French to formal (impersonal) rules (Crozier 1964, and others) is also confirmed.

French managers (still, to some extent) approve of decision-making by the person most personally involved and affected by the outcome and they significantly differ from the British and German samples, which hold more negative perceptions about this (in absolute terms, they are 'undecided').

While British managers are (still) 'undecided' as to whether they are satisfied when decisions are taken by the person with greater authority and power, both French and especially German managers 'tend' to dislike this style. This finding affirms those that are opposed to describing the German style as authoritarian (for instance: Lane 1989, Lawrence 1980). It does not directly oppose but challenges those that view British (in contrast to German) decision-making as decentralised (e.g. Budde et al., 1982; Granick, 1962; Lane, 1989; Horovitz, 1980) and those that have described the French concentration of decision-making at the top of the organization (Crozier, 1964; Clark and others in Lammers & Hickson, 1979).

IV.2. Co-operation

IV.2.A. Teamwork

Table IV.4 shows, that for both German and French managers teamwork occurs mainly when people's joint contribution is needed to achieve progress in the task (the German sample differs significantly from the British one, which states this reason on a second place).

For the British respondents teamwork occurs mainly when the collaboration is personally satisfying, stimulating or challenging. The reasons for conducting teamwork are thus more personal for the British. The French sample scores similarly to the British one in spite of the fact that the French mention this reason in second place. For German managers it is also a reason of second priority, but they are significantly more negative about it.

F ↔ B	F ↔ D	B ↔ D	F	B	D	Statement
			3.7	3.7	3.6	<u>Teamwork occurs when...</u>
			3.2	3.2	3.3	it is required by higher authority
			3.8	3.2	3.2	people believe they can use each other for personal advantage
✓	✓		✓	1.7	1.9	co-ordination and exchange are specified by the formal system
			✓	1.7	1.5	people's joint contribution is needed to make progress in the task
			✓	1.8	2.6	the collaboration is personally satisfying, stimulating or challenging.
			✓	4.0	3.8	Teamwork is practised seldom.

Country-means of: 1='yes, I definitely agree' 2='yes, I tend to agree' 3='I am undecided' 4='no, I tend to disagree' 5='no, I definitely disagree'
Significance according to both '✓' tests, only Mann-Whitney 'M' or only t-test 'T' ($\alpha=5\%$)

Table IV.4: The differences between French, British and German managers in respect of teamwork

Formal reasons (co-ordination and exchange being specified by the formal system) do not ensure that teamwork takes place for the French but this result is significantly different for both British and German managers who are 'undecided' (and hence more positive) for stating this as a reason.

Looked at it from a slightly different angle, it can be said that German managers very clearly (score 1.5 stands out) have pragmatic reasons in their mind when conducting teamwork (joint contribution needed), while French and British managers state both personal and pragmatic reasons (scores from 1.7 to 1.9) for the occurrence of teamwork. For all three countries teamwork does similarly not occur out of the reason that it is required by higher authority.

Each country is equally 'undecided' as to whether teamwork occurs because of the fact that people believe they can use each other for personal advantage.

Teamwork seems to happen most often among German managers and least often among British managers (significant difference to German sample). The French sample scores in between.

IV.2.B. Team assessment¹⁰⁰

There are remarkably few differences between French, British and German managers when it comes to team assessment (see Table IV.5).

All three nationalities tend to agree that interpersonal relations in their team/task force are friendly and co-operative. The British sample is most positive and the German one most negative about this and they differ significantly on this issue. France is positioned in between them.

There are equal levels of diversity of opinion in the teams/task forces of each of the three nationalities but British managers find it most easy to manage the existing diversity. The German colleagues do not find diversity easy to manage and they again significantly differ from the British. France takes the middle position.

¹⁰⁰ One item dealing with 'national dominance' within the team has been left out of the analysis within Chapters IV and V. The word 'dominance' has different connotations among the three countries (negative within Britain).

While all three nationalities tend to disagree that their teams would be more effective in total absence of diversity, German managers understandably score more positively than the British or the French sample (to the latter the t-test attributes significance).

Diversity within teams of either nationality is dealt with (not ignored) equally often and within teams of either nationality the members possess roughly equal power.

Team members within French and British samples tend to encourage one another's best efforts more, therewith reinforcing successful behaviour. The German managers score most negatively here but the difference between the German vis-à-vis the French and British samples is not significant.

The picture that emerges so far from Table IV.5 is that while team interaction (interpersonal relations, diversity of opinion, management of this diversity, mutual encouragement, distribution of power) is similar for each of the three nationalities, there is a difference specifically between the British and the German sample in regard to the state of friendliness of and co-operation within interpersonal relations and in regard to the mutual encouragement of team members' best efforts (country-mean for these 2 statements for Germany: 2.5, Britain: 2.2 and France 2.3). German managers also find diversity less easy to manage than the French or certainly the British samples do.

Is there a difference in regard to the input into the teams ?

All three nationalities equally affirm that the members of task forces are selected for task related abilities and that there is an effective use of material and human resources within the groups.

The three nationalities also equally confirm that their groups can orientate themselves towards clear overall goals. Again to an equivalent degree each of the three nationalities occasionally feel constrained by rules and regulations in accomplishing their tasks.

While team input therefore seems constant among the three nationalities, do the slight differences in regard to interpersonal relations and mutual encouragement within the team (especially between the German and British managers) cause differences regarding team output ?

The empirical data of this project (see Table IV.5) offers no evidence for this. Especially within the German and the British samples the respondents equally affirm that the members work effectively as a team and that the members maintain adequate standards of performance (only the French managers score slightly more negatively when compared

to colleagues of the two other nationalities, but these differences are not statistically significant). There are, however, slight differences between the scores as to whether feedback is external. Both the German and the French samples state that they 'tend' to get external feedback while the British sample is 'undecided' (= more negative) in this respect (significant difference between D and B).

						Statement
F ↔ B	F ↔ D	B ↔ D	F	B	D	<p>Interpersonal relations in my team/task force are friendly and co-operative.</p> <p>There is little diversity of opinion in my team.</p> <p>The diversity that exists is relatively easy to manage.</p> <p>The team would be more effective in the total absence of diversity.</p> <p>Diversity in my team is more frequently ignored than managed.</p> <p>The members of task forces are selected for task-related abilities.</p> <p>My group makes effective use of resources (material+human).</p> <p>The members of my group have about equal power.</p> <p>My group can orientate itself along clear overall goals.</p> <p>My group usually gets external feedback.</p>
Table continued on next page						

Country-means of: 1='yes,I definitely agree' 2='yes,I tend to agree' 3='I am undecided' 4='no,I tend to disagree' 5='no,I definitely disagree'
Significance according to both '✓' tests, only Mann-Whitney 'M' or only t-test 'T' ($\alpha=5\%$)

Table IV.5: The differences between French, British and German managers in respect of team assessment (table continued on next page)

F ↔ B	F ↔ D	B ↔ D	F	B	D	Statement
			2.4	2.4	2.7	Table continued from previous page
			2.4	2.2	2.2	The members of my group encourage one another's best efforts, reinforcing successful behaviour.
			2.4	2.1	2.2	The members work effectively as a team.
			2.7	2.8	3.0	The members maintain adequate standards of performance.
						The members do not feel constrained by rules and regulations in accomplishing their tasks.

Country-means of: 1='yes,I definitely agree' 2='yes,I tend to agree' 3='I am undecided' 4='no,I tend to disagree' 5='no,I definitely disagree'
 Significance according to both 'V' tests, only Mann-Whitney 'M' or only t-test 'T' ($\alpha=5\%$)

Table IV.5: The differences between French, British and German managers in respect of team assessment (table continued from previous page)

Is there any evidence in the literature reviewed earlier that confirms the finding that within German teams - as opposed to British ones - interpersonal relations tend to be less friendly and co-operative, that there is less mutual encouragement of team members' best efforts and that diversity within the team is slightly less easy to manage ?

Hofstede (1984) has stated that in countries with a low uncertainty avoidance like Britain, managers are more interpersonally oriented and flexible in their style. In countries where uncertainty avoidance is higher (as in Germany and France), managers are more task oriented and consistent in their style. These two styles may then lead to similar levels of effectiveness within either British or German/French teams.

To some extent Barsoux & Lawrence (1990) also confirm the present results with their view that the British manage in a humanitarian way, which, according to them, goes back to the aristocratic tradition of getting one's way without upsetting anybody in the process. And on the other side, permanent mutual power control and the will to increase one's own

power, which Ruedi & Lawrence (1970) ascribe to German management, may restrain mutual encouragement of team members' best efforts and impede friendly and co-operative interpersonal relationships within the team. Ebster-Grosz and Pugh (1992) state that British managers focus on interpersonal relationships as a priority whereas German managers primarily focus on work relationships.

IV.3. Mutual exchange of information

There are a lot of significant differences between French, British and German managers when they exchange information amongst themselves, as Table IV.6 shows.

It is very understandable that British managers favour the use of English as the main company language, that French are more sceptical about this and that the German sample wants to use the German language since the national origin of this company is Germany. The respondents either 'tend' to agree (British) if openness is practised very successfully or they are rather 'undecided' (French and German) about it.

British managers 'tend' not to be satisfied with the present state of organizational communication and here they significantly differ from both French and German managers, who are more positive (though 'undecided') about the state of organizational communication.

Downward communication (between the respondent and subordinates) is perceived as most adequate by British and German managers. Lateral communication (among peers) comes second and upward communication (between the respondent and superiors) is perceived as least adequate.

The French sample states lateral communication as most adequate, downward communication in place two and upward communication is considered to be least adequate (as by B and D).

Whereas French managers cite small differences between the three modes of communication, both the British and the German samples show considerable differences when assessing the modes. Downward communication is thought to be considerably more adequate than upward communication (lateral communication is in between) by these two nationalities.

If all three modes are inspected as one entity, the German sample finds communication generally most adequate, closely followed by the French one and the British managers evaluate communication generally as least adequate (3-statement-mean for German sample: 2.2, for French: 2.3 and British: 2.6).

F ↔ B	F ↔ D	B ↔ D	F	B	D	Statement
			2.6	2.3	2.5	Openness is practised very successfully.
✓	✓	2.9	3.7	3.2		I am satisfied with the present state of organizational communication.
T	✓	2.3	2.2	1.9		Communication between myself and subordinates is adequate.
✓	✓	2.2	2.7	2.2		Communication between myself and peers is adequate.
✓		2.4	2.8	2.6		Communication between myself and superiors is adequate.
	✓	2.3	2.6	1.9		There is enough written communication in 'the company'.
✓		2.9	3.4	3.0		There is enough oral communication in 'the company'.
✓	✓	✓	2.9	2.0	3.6	English as the main company language would improve overall communication.
	✓	3.1	2.8	3.2		There is too much misperception of facts.
	✓	3.4	2.9	3.4		There is too much misinterpretation ! (Please specify of what...)
✓		3.3	2.8	3.2		There is a lot of misjudgment ! (Please specify of what...)

Country-means of: 1='yes,I definitely agree' 2='yes,I tend to agree' 3='I am undecided' 4='no,I tend to disagree' 5='no,I definitely disagree'
Significance according to both '✓' tests, only Mann-Whitney 'M' or only t-test 'T' ($\alpha=5\%$)

Table IV.6: The differences between French, British and German managers in respect of mutual exchange of information

There are significant differences between the German and the British sample in regard to downward and lateral communication. And significant differences between the French and British managers exist with regard to lateral and upward communication.

Only the t-test uncovers a significant difference between French and German managers: upward communication is perceived as more adequate by the German sample.

The three nationalities are 'undecided' as to whether there is enough oral communication within the company (British managers are, however, significantly more negative than the French sample in this respect).

While there seems to be enough written communication for German managers and to a slightly lesser degree also for the French sample, the British one is 'undecided' (significantly more negative than the German group) about this.

Misperception, misinterpretation and misjudgment occur within all three national management contingents to varying degrees (Britain stating least, France is in between and Germany states most of it).

The picture that emerges from Table IV.6 is that German and French managers find communication most adequate (German sample comes first) and after a certain gap Britain follows.

German and French again are much more positive in regard to the state of written and oral communication than the British sample is. And British managers - compared to their German and French colleagues - feel much more that there is too much misperception, misinterpretation and misjudgment.

French and German managers are hence more satisfied with organizational communication than the British sample is.

From earlier studies implying impersonality, considerable distance between hierarchies and isolation within French organizations (Crozier 1964) and others stressing few communication channels between different departments (Ruedi & Lawrence, 1970) within German companies¹⁰¹, one can conclude that both expectations and demands for communication are lower among French and German managers. Hence their more

¹⁰¹ However, Eberwein & Tholen (1990) have stressed the increasing importance of among others communication within German companies.

positive evaluation of organizational communication compared to the British sample.

IV.4. Satisfaction in the company

When it comes to satisfaction in the company, French, British and German managers are most equal in evaluating their working relationships with colleagues as opposed to other aspects of job satisfaction (see Table IV.7). Examining this further, it is obvious that the three national management contingents are most satisfied with the working relationships with subordinates. Almost the same level of satisfaction is attributed to the working relationships with peers and least satisfaction is noted in regard to working relationships with superiors. In absolute terms all three nationalities' evaluations of upward, lateral and downward working relationships cluster around 'yes, I tend to agree' (that I am satisfied with them).

F ↔ B	F ↔ D	B ↔ D	F	B	D	Statement
						<u>I am satisfied with...</u>
✓	✓		1.7	2.4	2.2	the challenge my work poses and the personal sense of accomplishment I get from it
✓			2.0	2.6	2.3	the extent to which people I work with mutually co-operate
✓	✓	✓	2.5	3.2	2.0	the training possibilities I get for my tasks
	✓	M	2.9	2.9	2.5	the recognition I get when doing a good job
	T		2.8	2.5	2.3	my physical working conditions (work space etc.)
			2.0	2.1	1.8	the freedom I have to adopt my own approach to the job
			2.0	1.9	1.9	the working relationships with subordinates
			2.0	2.2	2.1	the working relationships with peers
			2.3	2.5	2.3	the working relationships with superiors
✓	✓		2.4	2.8	2.1	the possibility for self-development within my job
✓	✓		3.0	3.4	2.3	the organizational objectives and targets I get
✓	✓		2.8	3.1	2.6	the extent to which fair distribution (equality of chances) is exercised.

Country-means of: 1 = 'yes, I definitely agree' 2 = 'yes, I tend to agree' 3 = 'I am undecided' 4 = 'no, I tend to disagree' 5 = 'no, I definitely disagree'
 Significance according to both '✓' tests, only Mann-Whitney 'M' or only t-test 'T' ($\alpha=5\%$)

Table IV.7: The differences between the French, British and German managers in respect of satisfaction in the company

The managers of all three nationalities also attribute equally high satisfaction levels to the freedom they individually have to adopt their own approach to the job.

When asked about the satisfaction with the extent to which colleagues co-operate, French managers score more positively than German and significantly more positively than British managers.

French managers also state significantly more satisfaction with the challenge the work poses and the personal sense of accomplishment they get from it than both the German and the British samples.

German managers, however, state a significantly higher level of satisfaction in regard to the recognition they get for doing a good job when compared to the French and the British (only Mann-Whitney significance) samples.

German managers are also significantly more satisfied than both French and British ones with regard to the training possibilities they get for fulfilling the tasks (the French sample is significantly more satisfied than the British one).

Also German managers show a significantly higher degree of satisfaction than French and British ones in respect to the organizational objectives and targets they get.

German managers express more satisfaction than the French and significantly more satisfaction than the British ones regarding the extent to which fair distribution (equality of chances) is exercised.

And lastly, the German sample state more satisfaction than the French and significantly more satisfaction than the British managers (who in turn are significantly less satisfied than the French) in regard to the possibilities for self-development within the job.

This pattern of highest satisfaction scores for German, medium for French and lowest for British managers, which has been described for the last 5 aspects of satisfaction within the company, is only broken once: satisfaction in regard to the physical working conditions (work space etc.). Here the sequence is Germany - Britain - France (German managers score higher than the British and have significantly higher scores (only t-test) than the French sample).

The general pattern (see Table IV.7) is that German managers are (often significantly) more satisfied than the French and (nearly always significantly) more satisfied than British managers in regard to training, recognition, physical working conditions, organizational objectives, possibilities for self-development and the extent to which fair distribution is exercised. It cannot be said whether this is due to Germany being the country where the

headquarters are situated.

Furthermore, French managers are more satisfied than both German and British ones in terms of the challenge the work poses and the resulting personal sense of accomplishment (significance to both German and British) and also regarding the extent of mutual co-operation (significant difference only to British managers).

There are no significant differences between the three nationalities concerning working relationships (upward, lateral and downward) and concerning the freedom to adopt a personal (own) approach to the job.

Some support for the present findings is for instance lent by Hofstede (1984), who states that there is less satisfaction in workplaces within low uncertainty avoiding countries such as Britain (which scores lowest when compared to Germany and France). But Heller & Wilpert (1981) point to the important fact that one "...known difficulty is that satisfaction measures depend upon the person's level of expectation, and expectations change" (Heller & Wilpert, 1981:123). Nonetheless, they found that French managers are the most satisfied with their work, German ones rank second, and British ones are least satisfied with their work¹⁰².

One would, on the other hand, assume that the interpersonal (Ebster-Grosz and Pugh, 1992) and more humanitarian and person-driven (Barsoux & Lawrence, 1990) management style ascribed to British managers which aims at maintaining high morale among the workforce (Budde et al., 1982) would instead lead to more rather than less personal satisfaction within the company.

And some aspects of Hofstede's work (1984) lead to expectations that are not confirmed by the present results. Hofstede has described countries as collectivist if their managers tend to value for instance training and physical working conditions (services of the organization to the employee) highly. For countries with high IDV scores (individualistic countries such as Britain) this is less important. The lower the standards/expectations, the easier it is to satisfy them. One would therefore, following Hofstede, expect a slightly

¹⁰² Heller & Wilpert (1981:124). Satisfaction measured as answers to the four statements: 'work appreciated in this company', 'satisfied with higher management', 'like job in three years' and 'all in all how satisfied' (see same source p.89).

higher satisfaction score on these two issues for British managers when compared to their French and German colleagues. The present results do not confirm these expectations. For individualistic countries it is also important to be able to adopt one's own approach to the job and to have challenging work to do. If expectations are higher for Britain than for France and Germany, one would expect a slightly lower satisfaction score for British managers. On both of these last issues the present results do not confirm this prediction.

IV.5. Skill utilization

There is rarely only one clear-cut approach in doing a job. Different people solve problems differently and use different skills and abilities for this. Illustrating which opportunities French, British and German managers notice in using their skills on-the-job enables us to describe the differences between the work practices of these nationalities.

Table IV.8 shows that French, British and German managers have different opinions of the opportunities which are presented by their jobs to use their abilities. Table IV.8 provides thirteen different items and only in fourteen per cent (seven out of fifty-one items) have the managers stated significant differences.

French managers primarily see the opportunities to use initiative, practical work experience, ability to organize the job, intelligence, the capacity to solve problems at work, the feeling of responsibility and understanding of people in their jobs.

The British sample predominantly perceive the opportunity to use their understanding of people, initiative, ability to organize one's job, intelligence, adaptability/flexibility, verbal ability, practical work experience, co-operativeness, being accurate in their work and the capacity to solve problems at work.

And German colleagues principally discover opportunities to use co-operativeness, adaptability/flexibility, initiative, ability to organize one's job, intelligence, practical work experience and understanding of people.

F ↔ B	F ↔ D	B ↔ D	F	B	D	Statement
						My job gives me the <u>opportunity to use the following:</u>
			1.6	1.7	1.7	initiative
			1.9	1.8	1.9	verbal ability
			1.7	1.8	1.8	practical work experience
			2.1	2.2	1.9	capacity to develop new ideas
✓	✓		2.2	1.8	1.6	co-operativeness
			1.8	1.7	1.7	ability to organise my job
✓	✓		2.4	1.9	3.0	ability to work on my own
			✓	2.1	2.0	being decisive
			1.8	1.7	1.7	intelligence
			1.9	1.7	1.6	adaptability/flexibility
✓	✓		2.2	2.0	2.8	showing others how to do a job
			2.0	1.8	2.1	being accurate in the work
			2.0	2.4	2.3	capacity to look ahead
			1.8	1.8	1.9	capacity to solve problems at work
			1.8	1.9	1.9	feeling of responsibility
			1.8	1.6	1.8	understanding of people.
			3.5	3.3	3.4	Most often I feel that my skills are under-utilized.

Country-means of: 1='yes, I definitely agree' 2='yes, I tend to agree' 3='I am undecided' 4='no, I tend to disagree' 5='no, I definitely disagree'
 Significance according to both '✓' tests, only Mann-Whitney 'M' or only t-test 'T' ($\alpha=5\%$)

Table IV.8: The differences between French, British and German managers in respect of skill utilization

The British sample envisions slightly more opportunities than the French and significantly more opportunities than the German one to use the ability of being decisive.

The British also distinguish more opportunities than the French and significantly more opportunities than the German (who in turn see significantly fewer opportunities than the French) managers both to use the ability to work by themselves and to show others how to do a job.

French managers recognise more opportunities than the German and British colleagues for using the capacity of looking ahead.

French managers also detect significantly fewer opportunities than both German and British colleagues to use co-operativeness.

German managers see more scope than their French and British colleagues to develop new ideas.

In order to more clearly distinguish each nationality from the others in regard to what abilities the job offers opportunities for, it is necessary to exclude those abilities that are used to an equal extent by all three nationalities. These are: initiative, intelligence, the ability to organize one's job, practical work experience, the capacity to solve problems at work, verbal ability and the feeling of responsibility. These 7 skills/abilities are at the same time very often used by the respondents of either nationality.

Keeping this extraction method in mind and on the basis of the present results one can describe the utilization of abilities that primarily distinguish a manager of one nationality from those of other nationalities:

- French managers are mainly distinguishable by the use of their capacity to look ahead (often used abilities like initiative, intelligence and feelings of responsibility were previously extracted)
- British colleagues are, in contrast, principally differentiated through the use of their ability to understand people, their decisiveness, their ability to show others how to do a job, their ability to work by themselves and their ability of being accurate in their work (the often used verbal ability had been extracted)
- and German managers are primarily set apart from colleagues of the other nationalities by their frequent use of abilities like co-operativeness, adaptability/flexibility and their capacity to develop new ideas.

The capacity to look ahead certainly requires an intellectual mind which has been attributed to French managers¹⁰³ (Barsoux & Lawrence, 1991).

According to Hofstede (1984), managers from highly individualistic countries such as Britain have more freedom to adopt a personal approach to the job than managers from more collectivist countries (such as France and Germany). This can explain why especially British managers notice more possibilities to show others how to do a job.

Hofstede (1984) - among others - describes the British management style as more interpersonal oriented (in contrast to the one of France and Germany). Understanding of people is certainly an important ingredient of such an approach (and explains the British prevalence for it compared to both other countries).

By providing evidence that co-operativeness, adaptability and flexibility are important ingredients in the German management style, confirmation is given to previous studies that have emphasized informal and good relations within German companies (Lane, 1989), trust in employees (Simon, 1992) and a management style that is on an increasing basis mainly not characterized by technical-economic criteria but by its social environment (leadership has more to do with motivation, integration and communication) (Eberwein & Tholen, 1990).

In the study of Heller & Wilpert (1981), German managers showed a higher degree of skill under-utilization than French (no results for British) ones, a finding that cannot be confirmed by the present data.

IV.6. Conflicts

From Table IV.9 we see that all three nationalities equally affirm, that conflicts are more frequently found within the organization than with those outside (customers/suppliers). All three nationalities are equally 'undecided' about whether conflicts often cause disturbances (which means that both the negative and also the positive consequences of conflicts are noticed).

¹⁰³ On the other hand Horovitz (1980) states that long-range planning is mistrusted among French managers and is hence not used often.

Are the origins of the conflicts different for different nationalities ?

For German managers conflicts are mainly of operational focus (this origin is attributed with a much higher score than the other 4 listed alternatives).

British managers see the main origin for conflicts in differences between individual and departmental interests. Different values also cause certain conflicts for the British.

The present findings are considerably less clear for the French sample because all 5 alternatives that are listed in Table IV.9 and that are offered to the respondents as origins of conflicts are scored very similarly (which makes ranking unconvincing). For the French sample, conflicts arise mainly from differences between individual and departmental interests (as for the British sample). But the margin which singles out this conflict origin as the main one in comparison to other origins (conflicts of operational focus, conflicts caused by personality factors, lack of team spirit/co-operation and differences in values) is very small. From this follows at the same time that French managers state more often than German and significantly more often than British colleagues that conflicts occur both because of differences in understanding due to personality factors in addition to lack of team-spirit and sense of co-operation. The French sample also expresses that for them significantly more conflicts occur because of people's different values (value systems/value patterns) than for both the British (only t-test significance) and their German colleagues.

F ↔ B	F ↔ D	B ↔ D	F	B	D	Statement
M			3.3	3.3	3.4	<u>Conflicts...</u>
						often come up with people outside 'the company' (customers/suppliers)
						are more frequently found within the organization
						often cause disturbances
						are mainly of operational focus (how operations should be/are performed)
						arise mainly from differences between individual and departmental interests
						occur mainly because of differences in understanding due to personality factors
						occur mainly because of lack of team-spirit and sense of co-operation
						occur mainly because of people's different values (value systems/value patterns)
						are controlled by the intervention of higher authority
						are suppressed by reference to rules, procedures and definitions of responsibility
						are resolved through full discussion of the merits of the work issues involved
						can often not be resolved because of time pressure.

Country-means of: 1 = 'yes, I definitely agree' 2 = 'yes, I tend to agree' 3 = 'I am undecided' 4 = 'no, I tend to disagree' 5 = 'no, I definitely disagree'
 Significance according to both '✓' tests, only Mann-Whitney 'M' or only t-test 'T' ($\alpha=5\%$)

Table IV.9: The differences between French, British and German managers in respect of conflicts

Among the 4 alternative approaches to conflict resolution which are listed (see Table IV.9) both the French and the British samples state that conflicts are predominantly resolved through full discussion of the merits of the work issues involved.

German managers state that their predominant conflict resolution strategy consists to an equal extent, of a full discussion of the merits of the work issues involved (like France and Britain) as also of leaving conflicts unresolved because of time pressures. German managers, hence, more than their British colleagues and significantly more than their French (who in turn negate this significantly stronger than the British) colleagues state that conflict is left unresolved (because of time pressures). The German sample, on the other hand, negates more strongly than the French and significantly more strongly than the British that conflicts are controlled by the intervention of a higher authority.

All three nationalities are equally 'undecided' as to whether conflicts are suppressed by reference to rules, procedures and definitions of responsibility.

The present results thus confirm that conflicts have different origins in the three countries: in Germany they are mainly of operational origin while in Britain and France they mainly arise from differences between individual and departmental interests (for France, however, this result is vague).

Conflicts are mainly resolved by full discussion in France and Britain and conflicts are either resolved by full discussion or equally often left unresolved (because of time pressures) in Germany.

The present results neither confirm those studies that note more conflicts within French organizations (Crozier, 1964) nor those that detect fewer conflicts within the British organization (for instance Clark and Child & Kieser in Lammers & Hickson, 1979).

IV.7. Standardization

Regarding standardization (of products, work processes, corporate culture, operational tasks, corporate goals and corporate identity) most responses cluster around 'I am undecided' about whether standardization is inadequate (see Table IV.10).

French managers notice more strongly than their British and German colleagues inadequate standardization regarding corporate culture (significant difference to Germany) and operational tasks (significance in respect to both Britain and Germany).

F ↔ B	F ↔ D	B ↔ D	F	B	D	Statement
			3.6	3.1	3.3	There is <u>not adequate standardization</u> regarding...
			3.4	3.1	3.1	the technical specifications and quality of the products
			3.1	2.9	3.3	the product design
			2.9	3.1	3.4	work processes (content of work, procedures to be followed)
✓			3.0	3.1	3.4	corporate culture
✓	✓		3.1	2.9	3.5	operational tasks
	✓		3.1	3.1	3.4	corporate goals
			3.1	3.1	3.3	corporate identity.

Country-means of: 1='yes, I definitely agree' 2='yes, I tend to agree' 3='I am undecided' 4='no, I tend to disagree' 5='no, I definitely disagree'
Significance according to both '✓' tests, only Mann-Whitney 'M' or only t-test 'T' ($\alpha=5\%$)

Table IV.10: The difference between French, British and German managers in respect of standardization

The British sample more strongly than their French and German colleagues state that there

is inadequate standardization in respect to corporate goals (significant difference to Germany), work processes (content of work, procedures to be followed) and the technical specifications and quality of the product.

German managers share with their British colleagues the view of more inadequate (in contrast to France) standardization in regard to product design.

The major requests for more standardization does therefore come from the French (corporate culture and operational tasks) and from the British (corporate goals, work processes and technical specifications and quality of the products) and not from the German managers (headquarters country nationality).

Hofstede (1984) states that in strong uncertainty avoiding countries such as France, the organization is as uniform as possible (standardized). In low uncertainty avoiding countries such as Britain, the organization is pluriform¹⁰⁴. The present results do not confirm different opinions between Britain and France about the adequacy of standardization in respect to the organization (work processes, corporate culture and identity and goals, operational tasks).

¹⁰⁴ Horovitz (1980) states high degrees of systematization and standardization in regard to top management control for Britain and low ones for France.

IV.8. Summary of the comparison between French, British and German management teams¹⁰⁵

IV.8.1. Differences in regard to participation in decision-making between French and British managers:

- the French are significantly more satisfied than the British with their opportunities to take on responsibility
- the French affirm significantly more strongly than the British that because of more participation, people are getting a greater say in company/departmental policy making
- the French note significantly more satisfaction when decisions are made by the person whose job description carries the responsibility
- the French record significantly more satisfaction when decisions are made by the person most personally involved and affected by the outcome

French and German managers:

- the French are significantly more satisfied than the Germans with their opportunities to take on responsibility
- the French affirm significantly more strongly than the Germans that because of more participation:
 - they have more influence on day-to-day matters
 - worker's interests are better looked after
- the French affirm significantly less strongly than the Germans that because of more participation, people have gained greater independence and responsibility
- the French negate significantly less strongly than the Germans that because of more participation, too much time is wasted
- the French are significantly more satisfied than the Germans when decisions are made by the person with most knowledge and expertise about the problem
- the French are significantly more satisfied than the Germans when decisions are made by the person most personally involved and affected by the outcome

¹⁰⁵ In the following only those differences that are statistically significant (by either or both tests) are listed.

British and German managers:

- the British are significantly less satisfied than the Germans with their participation in decisions relating to their work
- the British negate significantly less strongly than the Germans that because of more participation, too much time is wasted
- the British affirm significantly less strongly than the Germans that because of more participation:
 - in general the quality of decisions is better
 - people's abilities and experiences are better utilised
 - people have gained greater independence and responsibility
- the British are significantly more satisfied than the Germans when decisions are made by the person with greater authority and power and also when decisions are made by the person with most knowledge and expertise about the problem
- the British are significantly less satisfied than the Germans when decisions are made by the person whose job description carries the responsibility

IV.8.2. Differences in regard to co-operation between

French and British managers:

- within the French setting teamwork occurs significantly less often due to the reason that co-ordination and exchange are specified by the formal system

French and German managers:

- within the French setting teamwork occurs significantly less often due to the reason that co-ordination and exchange are specified by the formal system
- within the French setting teamwork occurs significantly more often due to the reason that the collaboration is personally satisfying, stimulating or challenging
- the French negate significantly more strongly than the Germans that the team would be more effective in the total absence of diversity

British and German managers:

- within the British setting teamwork occurs significantly less often due to the reason that people's joint contribution is needed to achieve progress in the task
- within the British setting teamwork occurs significantly more often due to the reason that the collaboration is personally satisfying, stimulating or challenging
- within the British setting teamwork is practised significantly less often
- the British affirm significantly more strongly than the Germans that interpersonal relations in their teams/task forces are friendly and co-operative
- the British affirm significantly more strongly than the Germans that the existing diversity is easy to manage
- the British affirm significantly less strongly than the Germans that their groups usually get external feedback

IV.8.3. Differences in regard to mutual exchange of information between

French and British managers:

- the French are significantly more satisfied than the British with the present state of organizational communication
- the French find lateral communication significantly more adequate than the British
- the French find upward communication significantly more adequate than the British
- the French agree significantly more strongly than the British that there is enough oral communication within the company
- the French disagree significantly more strongly than the British that English as the main company language would improve overall communication
- the French disagree significantly more strongly than the British that there is a lot of misjudgment

French and German managers:

- the French find downward communication significantly less adequate than the Germans
- the French agree significantly more strongly than the Germans that English as the main company language would improve overall communication

British and German managers:

- the British are significantly less satisfied than the Germans with the present state of organizational communication
- the British find downward communication significantly less adequate than the Germans
- the British find lateral communication significantly less adequate than the Germans
- the British agree significantly less strongly than the Germans that there is enough written communication in the company
- the British agree significantly more strongly than the Germans that English as the main company language would improve overall communication
- the British agree significantly more strongly than the Germans that there is too much misperception of facts
- the British agree significantly more strongly than the Germans that there is too much misinterpretation

IV.8.4. Differences in regard to satisfaction between

French and British managers:

- the French state significantly more satisfaction than the British with the challenge the work poses and the personal sense of accomplishment they get from it
- the French note significantly more satisfaction than the British with the extent to which people they work with mutually co-operate
- the French express significantly more satisfaction than the British with the training possibilities they receive for their tasks
- the French note significantly more satisfaction than the British with the possibilities for self-development within their jobs

French and German managers:

- the French state significantly more satisfaction than the Germans with the challenge the work poses and the personal sense of accomplishment they get from it
- the French express significantly less satisfaction than the Germans with the training possibilities they get for their tasks
- the French note significantly less satisfaction than the Germans with the recognition they get when doing a good job
- the French state significantly less satisfaction than the Germans with their physical working conditions (work space etc.)
- the French express significantly less satisfaction than the Germans with the organizational objectives and targets they get

British and German managers:

- the British express significantly less satisfaction than the Germans with the training possibilities they get for their tasks
- the British note significantly less satisfaction than the Germans with the recognition they get when doing a good job
- the British state significantly less satisfaction than the Germans with the possibilities for self-development within their job
- the British express significantly less satisfaction than the Germans with the organizational objectives and targets they get
- the British state significantly less satisfaction than the Germans with the extent to which fair distribution (equality of chances) is exercised

IV.8.5. Differences in regard to skill utilization between

French and British managers:

- the French notice significantly less opportunities than the British to be co-operative

French and German managers:

- the French notice significantly less opportunities than the Germans to be co-operative
- the French find significantly more opportunities than the Germans to use the ability of working by themselves ('work on my own')
- the French see significantly more opportunities than the Germans of showing others how to do a job

British and German managers:

- the British find significantly more opportunities than the Germans to use the ability of working by themselves ('work on my own')
- the British notice significantly more opportunities than the Germans to be decisive
- the British see significantly more opportunities than the Germans of showing others how to do a job

IV.8.6. Differences in regard to conflicts between

French and British managers:

- the French agree significantly more strongly than the British that conflicts are mainly of an operational origin (how operations should be/are performed)
- the French agree significantly more strongly than the British that conflicts occur mainly because of differences in understanding due to personality factors
- the French agree significantly more strongly than the British that conflicts occur mainly because of lack of team-spirit and sense of co-operation
- the French disagree significantly more strongly than the British that conflicts can often not be resolved because of time pressures

French and German managers:

- the French agree significantly more strongly than the Germans that conflicts arise mainly from differences between individual and departmental interests
- the French agree significantly more strongly than the Germans that conflicts occur mainly because of people's different values (value systems/value patterns)
- the French disagree significantly more strongly than the Germans that conflicts can often not be resolved because of time pressures

British and German managers:

- the British agree significantly less strongly than the Germans that conflicts are mainly of an operational origin (how operations should be/are performed)
- the British agree significantly more strongly than the Germans that conflicts arise mainly from differences between individual and departmental interests
- the British disagree significantly more strongly than the Germans that conflicts occur mainly because of differences in understanding due to personality factors
- the British agree significantly more strongly than the Germans that conflicts occur mainly because of people's different values (value systems/value patterns)
- the British agree significantly more strongly than the Germans that conflicts are controlled by the intervention of a higher authority

IV.8.7. Differences in regard to standardization between

French and German managers:

- the French agree significantly more strongly than the Germans that there is not adequate standardization regarding corporate culture and regarding operational tasks

British and German managers:

- the British agree significantly more strongly than the Germans that there is not adequate standardization regarding operational tasks and regarding corporate goals

IV.9. Summarising how the present results fit into the earlier mentioned cross-national literature (Chapter I)

IV.9.1.A. Satisfaction with participation

- the literature in Chapter I helps to explain the present results

IV.9.1.B. Effects of participation

- since the emphasis of previous studies (Ch.I) and present results are different (absolute versus relative views on participation), the present results tend to extend the data from previous literature

IV.9.1.C. Decision-making

- the present results extend previous literature (Ch.I) by stating that sapiential decision-making is preferred significantly more by French and British than by German managers
- otherwise present results mainly confirm results of previous studies

IV.9.2.A. Teamwork occurrence

- the present results mainly extend previous literature for instance by providing evidence that German managers conduct teamwork mainly because of pragmatic reasons (joint contribution needed), while French and the British colleagues stress both personal and pragmatic reasons as main causes of the conduct of teamwork

IV.9.2.B. Team assessment

- here the present results rather verify the literature of Chapter I

IV.9.3. Mutual exchange of information

- previous literature (Chapter I) helps to explain present results

IV.9.4. Satisfaction in the company

- within this area the present results have extending elements (over previous literature stated in Chapter I) in that they offer evidence that (a) German managers are significantly more satisfied than their French and British colleagues in regard to training possibilities, recognition, physical working conditions*, organizational objectives, possibility for self development* and the extent to which fair distribution is exercised* (*=significance only towards one country); (b) French managers are significantly more satisfied than their German/British counterparts in regard to the challenge which the work poses, the resulting sense of accomplishment and with the extent of mutual co-operation*; and (c) no significant differences exist in the three countries' satisfaction regarding working relationships

IV.9.5. Skill Utilization

- sometimes previous literature helps to explain present results, at other times the present results confirm previous literature (Ch.I)

IV.9.6. Conflicts

- the present results extend some findings of the previous literature (in Ch.I) by offering evidence that (a) conflicts have significantly different origins within the three countries and (b) that conflict resolution is similar among the three countries
- the present results challenge the findings of more conflict within France and less conflict within British organizations

IV.9.7. Standardization

- the present results do not confirm different opinions between Britain and France about the adequacy of standardization in respect to the organization (work process, corporate culture and identity and goals as well as operational tasks)

CHAPTER 5:

What are the differences between the work in nationally heterogeneous versus homogeneous management teams ?

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"Other cultures are strange, ambiguous, even shocking to us. It is unavoidable that we will make mistakes in dealing with them and feel muddled and confused. The real issue is how quickly we are prepared to learn from mistakes and how bravely we struggle to understand a game in which 'perfect scores' are an illusion, and where reconciliation only comes after a difficult passage through alien territory. We need a certain amount of humility and sense of humour to discover cultures other than our own; a readiness to enter a room in the dark and stumble over unfamiliar furniture until the pain in our shins remind us where things are. World culture is a myriad of different ways of creating the integrity without which life and business cannot be conducted. There are no universal answers but there are universal questions or dilemmas, and that is where we all need to start."

Fons Trompenaars (1993:177)

Aims

The aim of this chapter is to explore the differences between nationally heterogenous and nationally homogenous management teams or settings. This is achieved through the use of two alternative statistical techniques.

Firstly average answers for national and bi-/international teams and statistical significance tests which were conducted will be compared. There is only scope for the utilization of a parametric (dependent) t-test since the sample sizes involved here do not allow the non-parametric Chi-Square test to be conducted meaningfully.

The scores listed for national teamwork within Chapter V may at times vary from those listed in Chapter IV. The reason for this is that the dependent t-test only uses the input from those questionnaires that provide responses both for the national as also the international setting. The sample size within Chapter V therefore decreases when compared to the previous chapter. While the smaller sample size should be used to outline the differences between bi- or international and national settings in this chapter (the inclusion of other questionnaires would distort the picture), it is much better to obtain the description of national teamwork within Chapter IV from as many respondents as possible, including those that have only provided replies for the national setting.

Within Sections V.1 to V.7 we have generally adopted the approach of firstly describing the significant differences between the two forms of teams.

Non-significant differences are given later and include all those where the differences

between the bi-/international and the national country-score (response) are more than 0.1 ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$).

Thirdly, aspects to which similar scores are attributed ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) are mentioned (this similarity is also referred to as no real difference).

The findings are introduced by referring to potentially centrifugal forces within heterogeneous management teams stemming from the differences in the national management styles as described in Chapters I, II, and IV.

Section V.8 will summarise these findings and give responses to the hypotheses outlined in Chapter II.

The second approach to achieving the aim of this chapter is to conduct a principal component analysis. It will develop underlying factors that best describe the differences and will enable a cross-comparison between both bi-/international and national teams/settings and all three countries on these factors (see Section V.9).

The reader is referred to Tables A.V.1 to 3 in the Appendix for statistical details of the t-test and to Tables A.V.4 to 7 for statistical details of the principal component analysis.

V.1. Participation in decision-making

Why is it important to study participation within bi- or international management teams?

One very interesting characteristic of great leaders is their ability to perform many different leadership styles (Hunsicker, 1985:157). This has to be emphasized especially in the light of managing nationally heterogeneous management teams.

"Although an international team, like any other, will develop common group norms, in times of stress individuals will naturally tend to revert to the kind of behaviour prescribed by their own culture. In particular, when under pressure they will tend to expect the kind of leadership that they would receive in their own culture. For this reason, it is very important for international managers to be aware of the cultural factors influencing their team members' ideas of leadership" (Phillips, 1992:81).

What centrifugal forces may work within nationally heterogeneous teams in regard to participation ?

The examination of nationally heterogeneous versus nationally homogeneous management teams reveals certain differences. These differences can be positive or negative. While it is impossible within the scope of this project (and often with data of national management styles) to demonstrate a causal link between differences in national styles and positive or negative impacts on the bi-/international teams, we will mention certain differences that potentially have consequences within each Section of Chapter V.

Generally it can be assumed that participation in decision-making within the bi- or international team is influenced by the French style of centralization, decision-making at the top (Crozier, 1964; Phillips, 1992) and their habit of clearly defining the leader (Phillips, 1992).

The British managers within the team are used to decentralization (Granick, 1962; Clark, Aiken & Bacharach, Tannenbaum & Cooke, Child & Kieser, all in Lammers & Hickson, 1979; Budde, Child, Francis, Kieser, 1982), delegation, a democratic management style (Lane, 1989) and individualistic entrepreneurialism (Ebster-Grosz and Pugh, 1992).

And the German managers within the team are said to have habits of a sapiential (knowledge and experience based) dimension of authority (Lawrence, 1980), father-son like authority relationships (Ruedi & Lawrence, 1970) and follow a consensus decision-making style (Ebster-Grosz and Pugh, 1992).

The Siemens managers themselves state that the "German approach (software of the mind) [is] programmed more strongly to considering alternatives, objections, consequences, flaws, advantages; [whereas the] French and British mind software [is] programmed rather to 'winning' for their 'idea', 'creativity' etc. The positive benefits of 'synergy' appear logical and therefore worth serious consideration by Germans, whereas cultural bias (La Grande Nation, the Empire, Individualism) [is] stronger in French and British approach - a kind of 'what's in it for me' approach". The German managers are said to be more consistently goal-oriented and assess results more on basis of 'Sache' and less on effects on persons.

Apart from this, many differences between the three country styles were outlined in Chapter IV Section 1 (and summarised in IV.8.1.).

V.1.A. Satisfaction with participation

F_N ↔ F_I	B_N ↔ B_I	D_N ↔ D_I	F: \bar{X}_N	B: \bar{X}_N	D: \bar{X}_I	Statement
			2.4 2.3	2.4 2.7	2.3 2.5	I am satisfied with the way my immediate superior asks for my opinion on matters related to my work.
	✓	✓	2.1 2.4	2.6 3.0	1.8 2.2	I am satisfied with my participation in decisions relating to my work.
			2.2 2.4	2.3 2.5	2.1 2.4	I am satisfied with the way my immediate superior pays attention to my ideas and suggestions.
✓			1.5 2.0	2.3 2.7	2.3 2.4	I am satisfied with my opportunities to take on responsibility.
			2.6 2.6	2.9 3.1	2.6 2.9	I am satisfied with the way I am consulted by my immediate superior when changes in my work occur.

Country-means of: 1='yes, I definitely agree' 2='yes, I tend to agree' 3='I am undecided' 4='no, I tend to disagree' 5='no, I definitely disagree'
'✓' indicates a significant ($\alpha=5\%$) difference between national 'N' and international 'I' teams/settings

Table V.1: French, British and German perceptions of the differences between nationally homogenous versus heterogenous teams in respect of satisfaction with participation.

We see from Table V.1 that generally, all three nationalities are less satisfied with participation within nationally heterogenous teams (only exception is France with similar levels of satisfaction in two out of five items). The average satisfaction scores for the national setting are 2.2 for the French, 2.5 for the British and 2.2 for the German managers. For the international setting they are 2.3 for the French, 2.8 for the British and 2.5 for the German colleagues (these average scores are calculated manually and are not visible in Table V.1). Each country only reports one out of five possible statistically significant differences.

The French managers respond that they are significantly less satisfied within bi-/international than within national teams in respect to their opportunities to take on responsibility. This is the only significant difference between national and international teamwork in respect to satisfaction with participation from the viewpoint of French colleagues.

The French respondents also state slightly less satisfaction (no significant difference and $|d\bar{X}| > .1$) within bi-/international teams in respect of their participation in decisions related to their work and also in respect to the way their immediate superior pays attention to their ideas and suggestions.

There are similar levels of satisfaction ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) regarding the way the immediate superior asks for the opinions of the respondent and the way the respondent is consulted when changes in the work occur.

British and German managers are both significantly less satisfied within nationally heterogenous teams in respect to their participation in decisions relating to their work. Both nationalities are also less satisfied within bi-/international (as opposed to national) teams (no significance and $|d\bar{X}| > .1$) regarding the way the immediate superior asks for the respondent's opinion and pays attention to his/her ideas and the way the superior consults the respondent when changes occur in the work.

V.1.B. Effects of participation

"Even at the best of times it can be difficult to assess exactly what style of leadership will work best in a particular situation, and attempting to lead an international team can seem to demand an almost chameleon-like ability to adopt different leadership styles in different contexts. Certainly, it demands a versatility that can be switched on at a moment's notice" (Phillips, 1992:81).

Generally, increased participation within nationally heterogenous teams is looked upon more negatively than in the case of the nationally homogenous setting (see Table V.2). The French and British managers negate the negative effects of more participation (more tension, waste of time) less strongly (thereby affirming the negative aspects slightly more strongly) for bi-/international teamwork (German sample: no difference). All three nationalities score the positive effects of increased participation more negatively when referring to the bi- or international setting. The need for a more participative style is thus smaller within a bi- or international team than it is with the national one. The following statistics confirm this:

Average for national team	average for bi-/internat.team	Positive effects: all items except 6+7 of Tab.V.2 Negative effects: items 6+7 of Table V.2
1.9	2.1	French response on positive effects
3.9	3.7	French response on negative effects
2.3	2.7	British resp. on positive effects
3.9	3.7	British resp. on negative effects
1.9	2.0	German resp. on positive effects
4.0	4.0	German resp. on negative effects

As to significant differences, both the French and the British sample each state 3 out of 12 possible items (25 %) as statistically significantly different, see Table V.2.

F_N ↔ F_I	B_N ↔ B_I	D_N ↔ D_I	$F:$ \bar{X}_N	$B:$ \bar{X}_N	$D:$ \bar{X}_N	Statement
						Because of <u>more participation...</u>
✓			1.6 2.0	2.1 2.4	1.8 1.7	I know better what is going on in the company
✓			1.6 1.9	2.0 2.2	1.6 1.6	I have more job satisfaction
			1.8 1.8	2.1 2.4	1.8 1.7	I accept decisions more easily
✓			1.7 1.9	2.1 2.7	2.2 2.2	I have more influence on day-to-day matters
			2.3 2.3	2.5 2.7	2.7 2.8	worker's interests are better looked after
✓			4.0 3.9	4.1 3.7	3.8 3.7	more tension occurs
			3.7 3.5	3.7 3.7	4.2 4.2	too much time is wasted
			2.0 2.1	2.3 2.5	1.8 1.8	in general the quality of decisions is better
✓			2.1 2.4	2.7 3.0	2.2 2.2	people are getting more say in company/departmental policy making
			1.9 2.0	2.3 2.7	1.8 1.9	there is a better atmosphere in the department
✓			2.0 2.2	2.4 2.7	1.6 1.8	people's abilities and experiences are better utilised
			2.4 2.5	2.8 3.2	1.8 2.0	people have gained greater independence and responsibility.

Country-means of: 1='yes, I definitely agree' 2='yes, I tend to agree' 3='I am undecided' 4='no, I tend to disagree' 5='no, I definitely disagree'
 '✓' indicates a significant difference ($\alpha=5\%$) between national 'N' and international 'I' teams/settings

Table V.2: French, British and German perceptions of the differences betw. nationally homogenous vs.heterogenous teams regarding effects of participation

The German sample states no significant difference between bi-/international and national teams in respect to the effects of participation. Only in the German sample (not the British or French) does more participation have similar effects ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) in international as in national teams.

The French respondents express no significant differences between international and national teams in respect to the negative effects of more participation. However, inspecting the positive effects, they negate significantly stronger the fact that because of more participation within the bi-/international team (versus the national one) they know better what is going on in the company, they have more job satisfaction and that people get more say in company/departmental policy making.

The French managers also state that within nationally heterogenous (as opposed to homogenous) teams increased participation leads to a lesser degree of influence on day-to-day matters and of utilization of people's abilities and experiences.

In their view the introduction of a bi- or international element within teams has no real influence ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) on the effects of more participation on the acceptance of decisions, on the looking after of workers' interests, on the quality of decisions, on the atmosphere in the department and on the independence and responsibility that people gain.

The British respondents negate significantly more strongly that increased participation within the bi-/international team (as opposed to the national one) leads to more influence on day-to-day matters as well as to people's abilities and experiences being better utilized. The British managers also find that within the international setting more participation leads to significantly more tension than within the national setting.

Within international (in contrast to national) teams more participation also leads to a lesser degree of: knowledge of what is going on in the company, job satisfaction, acceptance of decisions, the looking after of workers' interests, quality of decisions, say in the company/departmental policy making, atmosphere in the department and of independence and responsibility that people gain. Increased participation leads to similar quantities of wasted time in bi-/international as in national settings.

V.1.C. Decision-making

Table V.3 shows no single significant difference between the most preferred decision-making style for either the international or the national team. None of the three nationalities state any significant difference between nationally heterogenous versus homogenous management teams in regard to their satisfaction with the decision-making styles mentioned in Table V.3.

As to non-significant differences ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) only the French sample is more 'undecided' (that means less negative) about decisions being made by the person with greater authority and power within bi-/international teams (as opposed to national ones).

F_N \leftrightarrow F_I	B_N \leftrightarrow B_I	D_N \leftrightarrow D_I	$F:$ \bar{X}_N	$B:$ \bar{X}_N	$D:$ \bar{X}_N	Statement
						I am <u>satisfied when decisions are made by...</u>
			3.5	3.2	3.9	the person with the greater authority and power
			3.2	3.2	3.8	
			2.4	2.9	2.4	the person whose job description carries the responsibility
			2.3	2.8	2.5	
			1.8	1.7	2.4	the person with most knowledge and expertise about the problem
			1.8	1.7	2.5	
			2.4	3.4	3.2	the person most personally involved and affected by the outcome
			2.5	3.3	3.2	
			4.3	4.5	4.5	the person with the "right" nationality
			4.2	4.5	4.4	
			4.2	4.2	4.0	the people who have taken them in the past.
			4.1	4.1	4.0	

Country-means of: 1='yes, I definitely agree' 2='yes, I tend to agree' 3='I am undecided' 4='no, I tend to disagree' 5='no, I definitely disagree'
'✓' indicates a significant difference ($\alpha=5\%$) between national 'N' and international 'I' teams/settings

Table V.3: French, British and German perceptions of the difference between nationally homogenous versus heterogenous teams in respect of decision-making

To sum up, Section V.1 provides evidence that within bi- or international (in contrast to national) teamwork, French managers are significantly less satisfied with the opportunities to take on responsibility and that their British and German colleagues are significantly less satisfied with their participation in decisions relating to their work.

All three nationalities declare that the need for a more participative style is smaller within the international team.

At the same time a significant difference between the most preferred decision-making style of, on one hand, the international and, on the other hand, the national setting cannot be detected.

V.2. Co-operation

Co-operation within nationally heterogeneous management teams is influenced by the different styles of French, British and German managers.

Specifically, the French style is characterized by strict rules and impersonality, conformity within hierarchies, stratification (Crozier, 1964) and clearly defined roles (Phillips, 1992).

The British approach is a more collective one (Hofstede, 1984) with less rigid stratification and more flexibly applied rules (see Lammers & Hickson, 1979), only moderately exercised planning and control (Granick, 1962; Lane, 1989) and with a 'love' for committees (Phillips, 1992).

The German managers, however, may be used to more centralized control (Lane, 1989).

The reader is also referred to Chapter IV Section 2 for additional aspects that differentiate French, British and German approaches to co-operation (summary in IV.8.2.).

V.2.A. Teamwork

There are many different reasons for forming a group or a team; among them are:

- "teams make wider distribution of work possible;
- groups can usually generate more information;
- group techniques, such as 'brainstorming', can generate more ideas, which are generally of a higher quality;
- groups are generally better at objectively evaluating ideas, and identifying mistakes;
- teams provide access to a greater variety of expertise and experience;
- being part of a group decision can enhance an individual's commitment and motivation" (Phillips, 1992:103-4).

Barham & Oates (1991:81) predict that the "...international manager will increasingly find him or herself working in multinational teams" and Phillips (1992:ix) emphasizes that teamwork "...continues to be the keystone of quality, which in turn is the bridge to increased efficiency, creativity and innovation in business operations". "International teamwork represents the challenge of the future. The capability to switch international teams with underlying communication problems into high performing teams which fully tap the creative potential of their diversity, is a prime source of competitive advantage" (Phillips, 1992:ix).

According to the British managers, international teamwork is conducted for different reasons than national teamwork (see Table V.4). For them, bi-/international teamwork (as opposed to national teamwork) occurs significantly more because of requirements by higher authorities and because of specifications by the formal system. Also it occurs significantly less because of personal reasons (collaboration being personally satisfying, stimulating or challenging) and significantly less because of task-related reasons (people's joint contribution is needed to make progress in the task).

The British notice that international teamwork is practised less often than national teamwork.

F_N ↔ F_I	B_N ↔ B_I	D_N ↔ D_I	F: \bar{X}_N	B: \bar{X}_N	D: \bar{X}_N	Statement
						<u>Teamwork occurs when...</u>
	✓		3.7 3.4	3.6 3.2	3.5 3.5	it is required by higher authority
			3.1 2.8	3.1 3.2	3.2 3.3	people believe they can use each other for personal advantage
	✓		3.6 3.3	3.1 2.7	3.0 3.2	co-ordination and exchange are specified by the formal system
	✓		1.7 1.6	1.9 2.1	1.6 1.7	people's joint contribution is needed to make progress in the task
	✓		1.7 1.8	1.7 2.0	2.4 2.3	the collaboration is personally satisfying, stimulating or challenging.
	✓		3.9 4.2	3.8 3.4	4.4 4.3	Teamwork is practised seldom.

Country-means of: 1 = 'yes, I definitely agree' 2 = 'yes, I tend to agree' 3 = 'I am undecided' 4 = 'no, I tend to disagree' 5 = 'no, I definitely disagree'
 '✓' indicates a significant difference ($\alpha=5\%$) between national 'N' and international 'I' teamwork

Table V.4: French, British and German perceptions of the differences between nationally homogenous versus heterogenous teamwork

For the French colleagues there are no significant differences between the reasons for practising international and national teamwork (see Table V.4).

Non-significant differences ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) do occur in the following items: international (as opposed to national) teamwork occurs more often as a result of the requirements of higher authorities and because co-ordination and exchange are specified by the formal system. At the same time, however, it is also practised more often due to personal reasons (people believe they can use each other for personal advantage).

Task related reasons (people's joint contribution is needed to make progress in the task) do neither increase nor decrease the practice of international (vis-à-vis national)

teamwork.

The French colleagues seem to practice international teamwork slightly more often than national teamwork.

Table V.4 shows that German managers declare hardly any differences (let alone significant ones) between the causes that lead to the occurrence of international versus national teamwork. The sole exception is that international teamwork occurs to a slightly lesser extent because of formal reasons (co-ordination and exchange being specified by the formal system).

The German respondents practice bi-/international teamwork as often as national teamwork.

V.2.B. Team assessment

International and national teams are assessed differently by each of the three nationalities (see Table V.5).

For the French managers, diversity within international teams is significantly harder to manage than within national teams. This is probably one of the reasons why diversity is (significantly) more frequently ignored than managed. The French also dispute significantly more strongly that the members of bi-/international teams have equal power. Members of bi-/international teams do to a significantly lesser degree (than those of national teams) maintain adequate standards of performance.

Non-significant differences ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) exist - from the point of view of French managers - between bi-/international and national teams in the sense that the former has slightly greater diversity of opinions, it would be slightly more effective in the total absence of diversity and its members less constrained by rules/regulations in accomplishing their tasks.

There are no real differences ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) in respect to: the friendliness/co-operativeness of interpersonal relations, the task related nature of selection for the team, the use of

material and human resources, the orientation along clear overall goals, the extent to which external feedback is given, the team members' encouragement of one another's best efforts and the effectiveness of working as a team.

F_N ↔ F_I	B_N ↔ B_I	D_N ↔ D_I	F: ↔ X_N	B: ↔ X_I	D: ↔ X_N	Statement
	✓		2.0 2.1	1.9 2.3	2.2 2.0	Interpersonal relations in my team/task force is friendly and co-operative.
			3.4 3.6	3.5 3.5	3.7 3.8	There is little diversity of opinion in my team.
✓	✓		2.7 3.1	2.5 2.9	2.9 3.3	The diversity that exists is relatively easy to manage.
	✓		4.3 4.1	4.2 4.0	3.8 3.9	The team would be more effective in total absence of diversity.
✓	✓		3.8 3.3	3.7 3.6	3.9 4.3	Diversity in my team is more frequently ignored than managed.
			2.1 2.1	2.3 2.5	2.1 2.2	The members of task forces are selected for task-related abilities.
			2.4 2.5	2.5 2.7	2.3 2.4	My group makes effective use of resources (material+human).
✓	✓		3.0 3.4	3.3 3.8	2.8 2.7	The members of my group have about equal power.
			2.1 2.2	2.3 2.5	2.2 2.4	My group can orientate itself along clear overall goals.
	✓		2.2 2.3	2.7 2.7	2.2 2.1	My group usually gets external feedback.
Table continued on next page						

Country-means of: 1='yes,I definitely agree' 2='yes,I tend to agree' 3='I am undecided' 4='no,I tend to disagree' 5='no,I definitely disagree'
'✓' indicates a significant difference ($\alpha=5\%$) between national 'N' and international 'I' teams/settings

Table V.5: French, British and German perceptions of the assessment differences between nationally homogenous versus heterogenous teams (continued on next page)

F_N \leftrightarrow F_I	B_N \leftrightarrow B_I	D_N \leftrightarrow D_I	$F:$ \bar{X}_N	$B:$ \bar{X}_N	$D:$ \bar{X}_N	Statement
						Table continued from previous page
	✓		2.4 2.5	2.4 2.8	2.7 2.5	The members of my group encourage one another's best efforts, reinforcing successful behaviour.
			2.4 2.5	2.3 2.4	2.2 2.1	The members work effectively as a team.
✓			2.4 2.7	2.2 2.3	2.2 2.2	The members maintain adequate standards of performance.
			2.6 3.0	2.8 3.2	2.9 2.5	The members do not feel constrained by rules/regulations in accomplishing their tasks.

Country-means of: 1 = 'yes, I definitely agree' 2 = 'yes, I tend to agree' 3 = 'I am undecided' 4 = 'no, I tend to disagree' 5 = 'no, I definitely disagree'
 '✓' indicates a significant difference ($\alpha=5\%$) between national 'N' and international 'I' teams/settings

Table V.5: French, British and German perceptions of the assessment differences between nationally homogenous versus heterogenous teams (continued from previous page)

Table V.5 shows that for the British managers there are significant differences between bi-/international and national teams in the sense that the former involves less friendly and co-operative interpersonal relations, finds it harder to manage diversity, more effectiveness in the total absence of diversity, less equality of power among team members, worse orientation along clear overall goals and less encouragement of one another's best efforts.

Non-significant differences ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) between international and national teams exist in respect to team input (for international teams, members are selected to a lesser degree for task related abilities and the use of material and human resources is less effective) and in terms of feeling constrained by rules/regulations (stronger within international teams).

Between international and national teams there are, according to the responses of the

British managers, no differences regarding: the extent of diversity within the teams, the extent to which diversity is ignored rather than managed, the extent to which external feedback is given, the effectiveness of the work within a team and the maintaining of adequate standards of performance among team members.

Table V.5 shows that the German managers assess bi-/international teams (as opposed to national ones) significantly different in regard to the extent to which diversity is ignored rather than managed (within international teams less often ignored and more often managed). The German colleagues note non-significant differences ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) between bi-/international and national teams in the sense that the former involves: more friendliness and co-operativeness of interpersonal relations within the teams/task forces, harder to manage diversity, worse orientation along clear overall goals, greater encouragement of one another's best efforts (therefore reinforcing successful behaviour) and less constraint by rules/regulations when accomplishing the tasks.

It appears that for German managers national heterogeneity improves the team, especially also on some aspects where German managers score more negatively than their British and French colleagues (Chapter IV discovered significantly less encouragement of team members' best efforts within German teams).

No real differences ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) between bi-/international and national task forces exist in respect to: the diversity of opinion within the team, the state of effectiveness in terms of the total absence of diversity, the extent of task relatedness for which members are selected for the team, the effective use of human and material resources, the extent to which team members have equal power, the extent to which external feedback is given, the effectiveness of work within a team and the extent to which team members maintain adequate standards of performance.

To sum up from Table V.4 and 5, the differences between nationally heterogenous and nationally homogenous teams can be described as follows: according to the British managers, bi-/international teamwork occurs significantly less frequently and if it occurs, then it does so significantly more out of being required by higher authorities or it being specified by the formal system. It occurs significantly less often for personal reasons.

French and German colleagues specify no significant differences for the occurrence of international teamwork.

For the French, the international team results in it becoming significantly more difficult to manage diversity, significantly more diversity is ignored, there exists significantly less equal power among team members and significantly less adequate performance by members.

The British describe bi-/international (as opposed to national) teams as having significantly less friendly and co-operative interpersonal relations, significantly more difficult to manage diversity, significantly more effectiveness in the case of total absence of diversity, significantly less equal power among team members, significantly worse orientation along clear overall goals and significantly less encouragement of one another's best efforts.

And, finally, for the German managers nationally heterogenous (vis-à-vis homogenous) teams mean that diversity is significantly less easily ignored.

Nancy Adler (1991:106-7) summarises the perception and management of the impact of cultural diversity in Table V.6.

Type of Organization	Perception What is the perceived impact of cultural diversity on the organization ?	Strategy How should the impact of cultural diversity on the organization be managed ?	Most likely Outcomes What can be expected with this perception and this strategy ?
Parochial Our way is the only way.	No impact: Cultural diversity is seen as having no impact on the organization.	Ignore differences: Ignore the impact of cultural diversity on the organization.	Problems: Problems will occur but they will not be attributed to culture.
Ethnocentric Our way is the best way.	Negative impact: Cultural diversity will cause problems for the organizations.	Minimize differences: Minimize the source and the impact of cultural diversity on the organization. If possible, select a monocultural workforce.	Some problems and few advantages: Problems will be reduced as diversity is decreased while the possibility of creating advantages will be ignored or eliminated. Problems will be attributed to culture.
Synergistic Creative combinations of our way and their way may be the best way.	Potential negative and positive impacts: Cultural diversity can simultaneously lead to problems and advantages for the organization.	Manage differences: Train organization members to recognize cultural differences and use them to create advantages for the organization.	Some problems and many advantages: Advantages to the organization from cultural diversity will be recognized and realized. Some problems will continue to occur which will need to be managed.

Table V.6: Perception and management of the impact of cultural diversity

There are no objective measures of the efficiency of either the bi-/international nor of the national teams. However, Nancy Adler (1991) quotes several studies predicting culturally diverse teams as either highly ineffective or highly effective whereas culturally homogeneous teams have average effectiveness.

According to Adler (1991:134-5), effectiveness within multi-cultural teams can be assumed to be supported if (1) the tasks are of an innovative nature (as opposed to routine), (2) diversity exists at an early stage (as opposed to later) so that different views can result in alternative approaches, (3) members are selected for task-related abilities (and not on the basis of ethnicity), (4) there is mutual respect (and not ethnocentrism), (5) equal power (no cultural dominance) exists, (6) superordinate goals (not individual ones) exist, and (7) feedback is external (as opposed to complete autonomy).

Among the bi-/international management teams, French and German managers state more strongly that they select team members for task-related abilities. "To maximise team effectiveness, members should be selected to be homogeneous in ability levels (thus facilitating accurate communication) and heterogeneous in attitudes (thus ensuring a wide range of solutions to problems" (Triandis et al., 1965:34). The conditions of equal power among team members seem to be best fulfilled by German and worst fulfilled by British managers. Also both French and German managers affirm more strongly than their British counterparts that they can orientate themselves along clear overall goals and that they usually get external feedback. And, finally, German managers stress more strongly than their British or French counterparts that diversity is managed rather than ignored. The evaluation of Adler's conditions for effective multicultural teamwork therefore creates expectations that those bi-/international teams described by the German managers within Germany perform most efficiently and those described by the British sample within Britain seem worst equipped for efficient teamwork.

Since "...highly productive and less productive teams differ in how they manage their diversity, not, as is commonly believed, in the presence or absence of diversity" (Adler, 1991:134), these expectations can potentially be slightly offset (British state that the existing diversity is slightly easier to manage).

V.3. Mutual exchange of information

F_N \leftrightarrow F_I	B_N \leftrightarrow B_I	D_N \leftrightarrow D_I	$F:$ \bar{X}_N \bar{X}_I	$B:$ \bar{X}_N \bar{X}_I	$D:$ \bar{X}_N \bar{X}_I	Statement
	✓		2.5 2.7	2.4 3.3	2.4 2.4	Openness is practised very successfully.
			2.8 3.1	3.7 3.7	3.0 3.1	I am satisfied with the present state of organizational communication.
✓	✓		2.1 2.6	2.2 2.5	1.8 2.1	Communication between myself and subordinates is adequate.
			2.3 2.6	2.7 2.7	2.1 2.1	Communication between myself and peers is adequate.
✓			2.3 2.7	2.9 3.0	2.7 2.6	Communication between myself and superiors is adequate.
			2.2 2.4	2.6 2.7	1.9 2.0	There is enough written communication in 'the company'.
			2.8 3.0	3.4 3.3	2.9 3.0	There is enough oral communication in 'the company'.
	✓	✓	2.6 2.3	2.0 2.2	3.5 2.4	English as the main company language would improve overall communication.
	✓	✓	3.0 2.6	2.8 2.5	3.4 2.9	There is too much misperception of facts.
✓	✓		3.3 2.8	2.9 2.6	3.3 2.9	There is too much misinterpretation ! (Please specify)
			3.2 2.9	2.8 2.6	3.1 3.0	There is a lot of misjudgment ! (Please specify)

Country-means of: 1='yes, I definitely agree' 2='yes, I tend to agree' 3='I am undecided' 4='no, I tend to disagree' 5='no, I definitely disagree'
'✓' indicates a significant difference ($\alpha=5\%$) between national 'N' and international 'I' teams/settings

Table V.7: French, British and German perceptions of the differences between nationally homogenous versus heterogenous teams in respect of mutual exchange of information

Cross-cultural management's failure or success crucially depends on the quality of communication between the actors¹⁰⁶. Without the necessary rate or scale of mutual exchange of information, team members will become alienated.

"Cross-cultural communication occurs when a person from one culture sends a message to a person from another culture. Cross-cultural miscommunication occurs when the person from the second culture does not receive the sender's intended message. The greater the differences between the sender's and the receiver's culture, the greater the chance for cross-cultural miscommunication" (Adler, 1991:66).

Table V.7 shows that all three nationalities evaluate communication to be worse within bi- and international teams. According to Siemens managers, communication problems can be due to "overestimation of understanding of English [by] non-native speaker partners, failure to clarify meaning of terms and the cultural 'bias' in their underlining concepts, [the] 'shutter down' phenomenon when communication in other than native tongue becomes too strenuous, differing styles and attitudes regarding teamwork (e.g. brainstorming versus progressive logical argument, confrontation versus consensus) and culturally influenced weighting of factors in problem solving processes (selective perception)." However, in five out of eleven items from Table V.7, none of the teams show significant differences at all and generally only nine out of thirty-three items show statistical significance.

Misperception of facts¹⁰⁷, misinterpretation¹⁰⁸ and misjudgment are to an increasing degree subject to cultural conditioning.

¹⁰⁶ This has been specially emphasized for the European management context by Albrecht (1986) and van Dijck (1990).

¹⁰⁷ Misperception of facts is "...the process by which each individual selects, organizes, and evaluates stimuli from the external environment to provide meaningful experiences for himself or herself" (Adler, 1991:68).

¹⁰⁸ Interpretation is "...the process of making sense out of perceptions...[it]...occurs when an individual gives meaning to observations and their relationships" (Adler, 1991:70).

Adler (1991) mentions two forms of misinterpretation. The first of them is categorization: "...cross-cultural miscategorization occurs when I use my home country categories to make sense out of foreign situations" (Adler, 1991:71). And the second is stereotyping. "We have found that to every set of negative stereotypes distinguishing the British and French there corresponds a particular values divergence that, when recognized, can prove an extraordinary resource. To illustrate: The French, in describing the British as 'perfidious,' 'hypocritical,' and 'vague,' are in fact describing the Englishman's typical lack of a general model or theory and his preference for a more pragmatic, evolutionary approach. This fact is hard for the Frenchman to believe, let alone accept as a viable alternative, until, working alongside one another, the Frenchman comes to see that there is usually no ulterior motive behind the Englishman's vagueness but rather a capacity to think aloud and adapt to circumstances. For this part, the Englishman comes to see that, far from being 'distant,' 'superior,' or 'out of touch with reality,' the Frenchman's concern for a general model or theory is what lends vision, focus, and cohesion to an enterprise or project, as well as leadership as much needed authority"¹⁰⁹.

Adler (1991:71) also provides several conditions under which stereotyping can be helpful:

- "Consciously held. The person should be aware that he or she is describing a group norm rather than the characteristics of a specified individual.
- Descriptive rather than evaluative. The stereotype should describe what people from this group will probably be like and not evaluate those people as good or bad.
- Accurate. The stereotype should accurately describe the norm for the group to which the person belongs.
- The first best guess about a group prior to having direct information about the specific person or persons involved.
- Modified, based on further observation and experience with the actual people and situations."

¹⁰⁹ Adler (1991:71-2) quotes Gancel and Ratiu (1984).

There are several sources of misinterpretation. One of them is the lack of cultural self-awareness, others are subconscious cultural blinders, projected (but not actual) similarity and parochialism ('there is only one way') (Adler, 1991:75-82).

Misjudgment involves a high degree of subjectivity and is thus very influenced by cultural heterogeneity within bi- and international teams.

In regard to mutual exchange of information within nationally heterogeneous management teams, the British managers can potentially be disturbed by the French habit of isolation caused by the immense distance between hierarchies (see Crozier, 1964) and the importance of observing official communication channels within German companies (see Ruedi & Lawrence, 1970).

In Chapter IV, Section 3 details were listed of the differences in regard to mutual exchange of information between the French, British and German managers within national teams (summary in IV.8.3.).

As one would expect, there are some differences between bi-/international and national teams in respect to mutual exchange of information.

The French state, that within bi-/international teams there is significantly less adequate downward (with subordinates) and significantly less adequate upward (with superiors) communication. The French managers also affirm significantly more strongly that too much misinterpretation exists.

Non-significant differences ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) between bi-/international and national teams include all the remaining aspects within Table V.7 and they characterize international teams as follows: openness is practised less successfully, there is less satisfaction with the state of organizational communication, there is less adequate lateral (with peers) communication and less written and oral communication and there is stronger affirmation that there is too much misperception of facts and a lot of misjudgment. The French also

affirm more strongly that English¹¹⁰ as the main language within international teams would improve communication.

What is being misinterpreted and misjudged ?

A lot of misinterpretation is stated by the French respondents in regard to the organization (paths of decision-making; functions within the organization; proceedings + instructions abroad), the people (customers; management techniques + leadership styles; culture; values), the tasks (priorities; importance of tasks; schedules) and the language (translations; technical reports + memos).

The French managers have mentioned numerous areas within which there is a lot of misjudgment. These are: the market (foreign markets + their potential; foreign customer demand; prices), the people (methods of colleagues; priorities of clients; values + objectives; evaluation of people + employees + colleagues), the tasks (time necessary to define a reasonable course of work; logistics) and finally the technical side (launch of product; preparation prior to production; specifications of the materials; local norms + regulations).

Within Table V.7 the British colleagues state that openness is practised significantly less successfully and that there is significantly greater misperception of facts within nationally heterogenous (vis-à-vis homogenous) teams.

For them, non-significant differences ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) include (and describe bi-/international teams): less adequate downward communication and stronger confirmation that there is too much misinterpretation of facts and a lot of misjudgment.

The British sample is the only one that states that English as main language would to a lesser extent improve communication within bi-/international (as opposed to national) teams.

For the British there are no real differences ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) between nationally heterogenous versus homogenous teams in respect to: the satisfaction with organizational

¹¹⁰ Harris and Moran (1989:45-8) have published a comprehensive list of guidelines for English as a foreign language. They also provide practical hints for successful negotiation within Chapter 3 of their book.

communication, lateral and upward communication and the state of written and oral communication.

Where do British managers notice a lot of misinterpretation and misjudgment ?

For them a lot of misinterpretation arises with people (each other's situations + problems + priorities + points of view; mentality + background of others; educational + cultural background; intentions), with the language (reports prepared for foreign nationals; reports of what was discussed and agreed; technical reports; definitions i.e. shall/must/would/could/should; seriousness of problems are under-/overstated due to language abilities of originators), with the market (statistics + trends; client requirements; order schedules; sales procedures) and with tasks (rules framed nationally and then applied internationally; accounting guidelines; international rules for transferees).

For the British respondents, misjudgment occurs mainly in regard to people (personality; character; strength-weakness; mentality; motives; standards regarding timeliness + accuracy; reactions of staff + unions; what good management + training + planning + communication is all about), which results in behaviour being out of its cultural context. But there is also misjudgment in respect to the market (requirements + size + trends + structure + operation; the role of the local company (Landesgesellschaft); customer demand and what he/she will pay) and to technical aspects (e.g. lead times to produce a product).

The German sample, when comparing nationally heterogenous with nationally homogenous management teams within Table V.7, state significant differences in terms of the following aspects: in bi-/international teams downward communication is less adequate, English as main language would improve communication and also that there is too much misperception of facts and too much misinterpretation.

The German managers specify no real differences ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) between the two forms of teams in respect to all other aspects of Table V.7: the successfulness of practising openness, the satisfaction with organizational communication, downward, lateral and upward communication, the state of oral communication and also in respect to misjudgment.

What is being misinterpreted and misjudged ?

From the point of view of German managers a lot of misinterpretation clusters roughly equally around such areas as the organization (spheres of responsibility; organizational procedures; intra-organizational co-ordination), language (word-for-word translations; definitions + texts + descriptions; commercial expressions; 'small talk' + idioms; because of missing information, speculation increases), technical aspects (production + performance data; technical correlations and the technical run of events; requirements + specifications abroad), people (socio-cultural context + facts; client behaviour; patterns of thinking), the market (economic data; international production strategies; national regulations; targets) and finally around tasks (carrying out of proceedings).

Misjudgment occurs - according to the German managers - less in regard to technical (standards + capacities) and human aspects (customers' values; reactions and impacts on opposite side) but is stressed more strongly regarding commercial issues (competition + competitor reactions; speed of reaction; market forecast + development + penetration; requirements of customers + customer benefits; distribution + availability of products; demand + potential future demand; cost targets + obtainable prices; invitations to bid; difficulties at the pit-face; political issues within international firms and organizations).

It is possible to summarize the significant differences between nationally heterogenous and nationally homogenous teams in respect to mutual exchange of information as follows (see Table V.7): for the French managers, bi-/international teams involve significantly less adequate downward and upward communication and significantly more misinterpretation. The British describe bi-/international teams as involving significantly less successful practice of openness and significantly more misperception of facts. And the German colleagues describe it as consisting of significantly less adequate downward communication, a significant improvement of communication if English is used as main language and significantly more misperception of facts and misinterpretation.

V.4. Satisfaction in the company

F_N \leftrightarrow F_I	B_N \leftrightarrow B_I	D_N \leftrightarrow D_I	$F:$ \bar{X}_N	$B:$ \bar{X}_N	$D:$ \bar{X}_N	Statement
						I am satisfied with...
✓			1.6 2.0	2.5 2.7	2.1 2.1	the challenge my work poses and the personal sense of accomplishment I get from it
	✓		2.0 2.2	2.5 2.8	2.1 2.1	the extent to which people I work with mutually co-operate
		✓	2.4 2.4	3.3 3.4	1.9 2.3	the training possibilities I get for my tasks
			2.7 2.5	2.9 2.9	2.4 2.4	the recognition I get when doing a good job
			2.8 2.5	2.6 2.6	2.1 2.4	my physical working conditions (work space etc.)
			1.9 2.1	2.2 2.5	1.8 1.9	the freedom I have to adopt my own approach to the job
			1.7 2.0	1.9 2.1	2.1 2.3	the working relationships with subordinates
			2.0 2.2	2.3 2.2	1.9 2.0	the working relationships with peers
			2.2 2.2	2.6 2.6	2.2 2.5	the working relationships with superiors
			2.4 2.6	2.9 2.9	2.1 2.2	the possibility for self-development within my job
✓			2.7 3.0	3.3 3.2	2.1 2.3	the organizational objectives and targets I get
			2.6 2.9	3.2 3.1	2.4 2.4	the extent to which fair distribution (equality of chances) is exercised.

Country-means of: 1='yes,I definitely agree' 2='yes,I tend to agree' 3='I am undecided' 4='no,I tend to disagree' 5='no,I definitely disagree'
'✓' indicates a significant difference ($\alpha=5\%$) between national 'N' and international 'I' teams/settings

Table V.8: French, British and German perceptions of the differences between nationally homogenous versus heterogenous teams in respect of satisfaction

In Chapter IV Section 4 two studies were mentioned (Heller & Wilpert 1981; Hofstede 1984) that have measured French, British and German management satisfaction. However, no research came to our attention that has measured satisfaction in bi- and international versus national teams.

The need for the best possible human relations within the company is especially emphasized for the European management context by Thurley & Wirdenius (1989:98).

Satisfaction within nationally heterogeneous management teams, especially expectations of what the company offers and the working relationships with superiors, peers and subordinates is influenced by the collectiveness of a country (IDV of B:89; F:71; D:67) and its uncertainty avoidance (UAI of F:85; D:65; B:35) according to Hofstede (1984). The different management styles may have an impact on the working relationships.

The French are used to taking rules seriously, having distance between hierarchies and high conformity within hierarchies (Crozier, 1964).

The British managers are more flexible with rules (see Lammers & Hickson, 1979), risk-aversive (Granick, 1962), manage in a more generalist, humanitarian, person-driven way (Barsoux & Lawrence, 1990), focus on interpersonal relationships as priority and have a short term orientation (Ebster-Grosz and Pugh, 1992).

And the German team members are more methodic, systematic, pragmatic, logical and rational (Breuer & de Bartha, 1993a), they exercise permanent mutual power control (Ruedi & Lawrence, 1970), they are specialised, often engineer dominated, less bureaucratic, give less importance to seniority (Lawrence, 1980), use modern management styles that demonstrate trust and give leeway (Simon, 1992), focus on work relationships as priority and are committed to long term stable goals (Ebster-Grosz and Pugh, 1992). Also, the relationships between the German and British managers can be burdened by their different approaches to business outlined in Chapter II (business relationships, social relationships, corporate intercultural relations).

Furthermore, Chapter IV, Section 4 offers details of the differences in regard to satisfaction between French, British and German managers (summary in IV.8.4.).

Generally, as Table V.8 shows, there are only a few significant differences between satisfaction within nationally heterogenous versus satisfaction within nationally homogenous management teams. Overall there is no real difference ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) between the two satisfaction levels as the following average scores illustrate (calculated manually from Table V.8):

	F	B	D
Average satisfaction score for national teamwork	2.3	2.7	2.1
average satisfaction score for internat. teamwork	2.4	2.8	2.2

According to Table V.8, the French managers state two (British one and German one) significant differences between bi-/international and national teams: the former involves significantly less satisfaction with the challenge the work poses and the personal sense of accomplishment one gets from it and it also incorporates significantly less satisfaction with the organizational objectives and targets.

The French respondents also state the following non-significant differences ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) within bi-/international teams there is less satisfaction: with mutual co-operation, with the freedom to adopt a personal approach to the job, with the working relationships with subordinates and peers, with the possibility for self-development and also with the extent to which fair distribution (equality of chances) is exercised.

Similar satisfaction scores ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) between these two forms of teams - from the point of view of the French colleagues - exist in respect to the training possibilities for the job and regarding working relationships with superiors.

However, in contrast to both the British and German colleagues, French managers also state two non-significant differences, where the satisfaction levels are actually higher for bi-/international than for national teams. The French are more satisfied with international teams regarding the recognition they get when doing a good job and they are also more satisfied with the physical working conditions (work space etc.).

Regarding satisfaction, their British colleagues have only reported one significant difference between nationally heterogenous versus homogenous teams: they are less satisfied with the extent of mutual co-operation within international teams (see Table V.8).

Non-significant differences ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) are reported by the British respondents in regard to the following aspects: within bi-/international (as opposed to national) teams there is less satisfaction with the challenge the work poses and the personal sense of accomplishment coming from it, with the freedom to adopt a personal approach to the job and with working relationships with subordinates.

Similar satisfaction levels ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) between the two forms of teams are stated by the British in regard to: the training possibilities, the recognition from doing a good job, the physical working conditions, the lateral and upward working relationships, the possibilities for self-development within the job, the received organizational objectives and targets and also in regard to the extent to which fair distribution is exercised.

German managers also (like the British) only report one significant difference : within bi-/international teams there is less satisfaction in regard to the training possibilities (see Table V.8).

Non-significant differences ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) between bi-/international and national teams include the following (all describe the international work mode): less satisfaction with the physical working conditions, with downward and upward working relationships and with the received organizational objectives and targets.

And, finally, similar satisfaction levels ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) are reported by the German managers regarding: the challenge/personal sense of accomplishment, the mutual co-operation, the recognition from doing a good job, the freedom to adopt a personal approach, lateral working relationships, the possibility for self-development within the job and also to the extent to which fair distribution is exercised.

By way of a summary it can therefore be noted that, when it comes to satisfaction (see Table V.8), the following significant differences between nationally heterogenous and nationally homogenous management teams are reported: significantly less satisfaction with the challenge/personal sense of accomplishment and with the received organizational objectives and targets by the French; significantly less satisfaction regarding mutual co-operation by the British and, finally, significantly less satisfaction with the training possibilities by the German managers.

V.5. Skill utilization

Heller & Wilpert (1981) frequently mention the lack of research in the field of skill under-utilization¹¹¹. They have found extensive confirmation for under-utilization. Those groups that are especially affected are young managers (age under 40), managers with high education, and managers from Germany (as opposed to France)¹¹². The industrial sector also plays a role (e.g. public transport and packaging report specially high under-utilization)¹¹³.

See Chapter IV, Section 5 for further differences between the skill utilization of French, British and German national management teams (summary in IV.8.5.).

Also "skill under-utilization is consistently correlated with low influence...[which decreases organizational effectiveness¹¹⁴]...and low satisfaction with leadership and participation. Correlations are in the range 0.35 to 0.48. In the two British companies the correlations are stronger, varying between 0.62 and 0.67. We interpret the results as follows: employee competence tends to be underestimated and this has a negative effect on satisfaction. Employees feel particularly strongly about under-utilization if their superior does not ask for their opinion, pays little attention to their ideas and suggestions and makes changes in the work without consulting them; in other words when their influence is low" (Heller et al., 1988:213-4).

But furthermore: we are unaware of any research examining the extent of under-utilization within nationally heterogeneous management teams.

¹¹¹ Heller & Wilpert (1981:140, see footnote 101; 1981:141; 1981:39 etc.)

¹¹² Heller & Wilpert (1981:120 and 1981:117).

¹¹³ Heller & Wilpert (1981:118).

¹¹⁴ Heller (1992, Chapter 5)

Generally Table V.9 shows that there are a large number of significant differences as to the abilities and skills that the respondents have the opportunity to use when working within bi-/international as opposed to national teams. Table V.9 lists sixteen different abilities; and for none of them do any of the three nationalities confirm a higher utilization opportunity when working in the bi-/international mode.

According to the French respondents, bi-/international (as opposed to national) teams offer significantly less opportunities to use (ranking according to size of score-difference $|d\bar{X}|$): feeling of responsibility, showing others how to do a job, verbal ability, ability to organize one's job, initiative, practical work experience, ability to work by oneself, being decisive, intelligence, adaptability/flexibility, capacity to look ahead, capacity to solve problems at work and - finally - understanding of people.

International teams also give less opportunity to use the capacity to develop new ideas. And in respect to the opportunities to use co-operativeness and the ability to be accurate in the work, there is similarity between the two forms of teams.

However, in spite of the long list of abilities that international teams give less opportunity to apply, French managers see no difference in the degree of under-utilization of their skills when working in bi-/international teams rather than national ones.

The British colleagues state that international (as opposed to national) teams offer significantly less opportunities to use (ranking according to size of score-difference $|d\bar{X}|$): the ability to show others how to do a job, initiative, capacity to develop new ideas, ability to organize one's job, decisiveness, adaptability/flexibility, responsibility, understanding of people, verbal ability, co-operativeness, capacity to solve problems at work, ability to work by oneself and the capacity to look ahead (see Table V.9).

F_N \leftrightarrow F_I	B_N \leftrightarrow B_I	D_N \leftrightarrow D_I	$F:$ \bar{X}_N \bar{X}_I	$B:$ \bar{X}_N \bar{X}_I	$D:$ \bar{X}_N \bar{X}_I	Statement
						My job gives me the <u>opportunity to use the following:</u>
✓	✓		1.6 2.0	1.7 2.3	1.8 1.8	initiative
✓	✓		1.8 2.3	1.8 2.3	1.8 2.0	verbal ability
✓			1.7 2.1	1.8 2.0	1.6 1.8	practical work experience
	✓		2.0 2.3	2.2 2.8	1.9 2.0	capacity to develop new ideas
	✓		2.1 2.1	1.9 2.4	1.6 1.8	co-operativeness
✓	✓		1.7 2.2	1.7 2.3	1.7 1.9	ability to organise my job
✓	✓		2.2 2.6	1.9 2.3	3.1 3.1	ability to work on my own
✓	✓		2.0 2.4	1.9 2.5	2.3 2.5	being decisive
Table continued on next page						

Country-means of: 1 = 'yes, I definitely agree' 2 = 'yes, I tend to agree' 3 = 'I am undecided' 4 = 'no, I tend to disagree' 5 = 'no, I definitely disagree'
 '✓' indicates a significant difference ($\alpha=5\%$) between national 'N' and international 'I' teams/settings

Table V.9: French, British and German perceptions of the differences between nationally homogenous versus heterogenous teams in respect of skill utilization (table continued on next page)

F_N \leftrightarrow F_I	B_N \leftrightarrow B_I	D_N \leftrightarrow D_I	$F:$ \bar{X}_N	$B:$ \bar{X}_N	$D:$ \bar{X}_N	Statement
						Table continued from previous page
						My job gives me the <u>opportunity to use the following:</u>
✓			1.7 2.1	1.7 1.9	1.7 1.8	intelligence
✓	✓		1.8 2.2	1.7 2.3	1.8 1.8	adaptability/flexibility
✓	✓		2.1 2.7	1.9 2.7	2.7 3.0	showing others how to do a job
	✓		1.9 1.8	1.8 1.9	2.0 2.1	being accurate in the work
✓	✓		1.9 2.3	2.3 2.7	2.2 2.4	capacity to look ahead
✓	✓		1.8 2.1	1.7 2.2	1.9 2.1	capacity to solve problems at work
✓	✓		1.4 2.1	1.9 2.5	1.9 2.0	feeling of responsibility
✓	✓		1.7 3.5 3.4	1.6 3.3 3.2	1.7 3.5 3.6	understanding of people.
			3.5 3.4	3.3 3.2	3.5 3.6	Most often I feel that my skills are under-utilized.

Country-means of: 1 = 'yes, I definitely agree' 2 = 'yes, I tend to agree' 3 = 'I am undecided' 4 = 'no, I tend to disagree' 5 = 'no, I definitely disagree'
 '✓' indicates a significant difference ($\alpha=5\%$) between national 'N' and international 'I' teams/settings

Table V.9: French, British and German perceptions of the differences between nationally homogenous versus heterogenous teams in respect of skill utilization (table continued from previous page)

Non-significant differences ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) are stated by the British in respect to the opportunity to apply intelligence and practical work experience.

Also similarities ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) exist between the two forms of teams regarding the opportunities of being accurate in the work.

The British - just as the French colleagues - state no difference in regard to the extent of under-utilization of their skills between bi-/international and national teamwork.

In view of the extremely long list of items that French and British managers have outlined as significantly different¹¹⁵ in regard to ability/skill utilization (see Table V.9), it is very remarkable that their German colleagues only state one single aspect: within bi-/international teams there are significantly less opportunities to be accurate in their work. The German managers however see the following non-significant ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) differences between international and national teams: the former gives less opportunity to show others how to do a job and to use verbal ability, practical work experience, co-operativeness, the ability to organize one's job, decisiveness, the capacity to look ahead and to solve problems at work and the understanding of people.

Finally, similarity ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) between the two forms of teams exist - according to German managers - in respect to the opportunities to use: intelligence, adaptability/flexibility, responsibility, initiative, capacity to develop new ideas and the ability to work by oneself.

As with their French and British colleagues, the Germans see no difference between international and national teams regarding the extent of under-utilization of their skills.

In Chapter IV we distinguished the national samples by the following abilities:

French managers for their capacity to look ahead and British colleagues for their ability to understand people, their decisiveness, their ability to show others how to do a job, their ability to work by themselves and their ability to be accurate in the work.

Both French and British managers have in Table V.9 stated significantly less opportunities

¹¹⁵ Siemens managers have commented on these differences in regard to poor skill utilization within bi-/international teamwork between German on one side and French/British colleagues on the other side as follows: "It could be that French/British feel less comfortable in new and developing areas of globalization and internationalization, and therefore find it more difficult to look over their own fence. [Also] management training in skills is a particular focus in German corporations (ca. 85-90% of managers go through skills training as compared with ca. 15% of British managers - figure stems from second half of the 80's)."

for the use of these separately distinguishing abilities within international teams (exception: the British do not note significantly less opportunities of being accurate in the work).

The German managers are primarily set apart for their frequent use of abilities like co-operativeness, adaptability/flexibility and their capacity to develop new ideas. For neither of these abilities have they here noticed significantly less opportunities under the bi-/international working mode.

V.6. Conflicts

Conflicts within nationally heterogeneous management teams can stem from a variety of sources. Different personality factors, values, reliance on rules and procedures and conflict resolution strategies characterize the three nationalities that form the bi- or international teams. Masculine societies (such as Britain and Germany) prefer to fight conflicts out whereas feminine ones instead seek compromise and negotiation (Hofstede, 1984).

The French managers are used to distance between hierarchies and stratification (Crozier, 1964).

The British have less conflict and are less stratified (see Lammers & Hickson, 1979), open conflict is seen as ungentlemanly (Barsoux & Lawrence, 1990), their management style is generalist, humanitarian, person-driven and their strategies develop intuitively (Barsoux & Lawrence, 1990).

The German management style, however, is logical, rational, methodic, systematic and pragmatic (Breuer & de Bartha, 1993a), less bureaucratic, specialised, not markedly authoritarian (Lawrence, 1980) nor modern in management style (Simon, 1992).

See Chapter IV, Section 6 for further sources for conflict and different conflict resolution strategies between French, British and German national management teams.

Regarding conflicts, neither the French nor German management notice any significant difference between nationally heterogeneous versus homogenous teams (see Table V.10).

F_N \leftrightarrow F_I	B_N \leftrightarrow B_I	D_N \leftrightarrow D_I	$F:$ \bar{X}_N	$B:$ \bar{X}_N	$D:$ \bar{X}_N	Statement
						<u>Conflicts...</u>
			3.5	3.4	3.6	often come up with people outside 'the company' (customers/suppliers)
			3.5	3.6	3.4	
			2.5	2.4	2.3	are more frequently found within the organization
			2.6	2.4	2.5	
			2.7	2.8	2.9	often cause disturbances
			2.7	2.7	2.8	
✓			2.7	3.0	2.3	are mainly of operational focus (how operations should be/are performed)
✓			2.8	2.7	2.2	
			2.5	2.6	3.0	arise mainly from differences between individual and departmental interests
			2.6	2.7	3.0	
			2.6	3.3	2.9	occur mainly because of differences in understanding due to personality factors
			2.7	3.1	2.8	
			2.9	3.2	3.3	occur mainly because of lack of team-spirit and sense of co-operation
			3.2	2.9	3.3	
			2.9	2.9	3.5	occur mainly because of people's different values (value systems/value patterns)
			2.5	2.9	3.3	
			3.4	3.1	3.7	are controlled by the intervention of higher authority
			3.2	3.0	3.7	
✓			3.3	3.3	3.5	are suppressed by reference to rules, procedures and definitions of responsibility
✓			3.3	2.8	3.4	
			2.6	2.8	2.6	are resolved through full discussion of the merits of the work issues involved
			2.6	2.9	2.5	
			3.4	3.0	2.9	can often not be resolved because of time pressure.
			3.4	3.0	2.8	

Country-means of: 1 = 'yes, I definitely agree' 2 = 'yes, I tend to agree' 3 = 'I am undecided' 4 = 'no, I tend to disagree' 5 = 'no, I definitely disagree'
 '✓' indicates a significant difference ($\alpha=5\%$) between national 'N' and international 'I' teams/settings

Table V.10: French, British and German perceptions of the differences between nationally homogenous versus heterogenous teams in respect of conflicts

The French state non-significant differences ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) between the two forms of teams in the sense that within international teams conflicts have different origins (more because of lack of team spirit and sense of co-operation and more because of people's different values) and are slightly more often controlled by the intervention of a higher authority. Similarity ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) between the two forms of teams exist for the French regarding the number of conflicts from outside versus inside the organization, the disturbances they cause, the frequency of them being of an operational origin/of distributive type (stemming from differences between individual versus departmental interests)/of perceptual type (occurring because of differences in understanding due to personality factors)¹¹⁶ and finally also regarding conflict resolution (suppression by reference to rules/resolved through full discussion/left unresolved).

Table V.10 shows that the British state that conflicts within international teams are significantly more of an operational nature (how operations should be/are performed) and are also significantly more often suppressed by reference to rules, procedures and definitions of responsibility).

Apart from this, conflicts within international teams come up less often with people outside the company and occur more often because of differences in understanding (due to personality factors) and because of lack of team spirit and sense of co-operation.

Similarity ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) between the two forms is attributed in regard to the extent to which conflicts are found within the company, the extent of disturbance they cause, the extent to which they occur out of differences between individual and departmental interests and because of people's different values and also in regard to the three remaining statements of conflict resolution (controlled by intervention/resolved by full discussion/left unresolved).

German managers state three non-significant differences ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) between the two forms of teams when it comes to conflicts: within international teams conflicts come up more often with people outside the company and are also more often found within the

¹¹⁶ Terminology from Heller et al. (1988:83)

organization and they occur more often because of people's different values.

From the point of view of the German respondents, conflicts do, however, not cause more disturbances, they do not have different origins (exception: more conflicts because of people's different values) and there is also similarity in respect to conflict resolution (four last statements of Table V.10).

Summarising the findings in regard to conflicts (see Table V.10), it can be concluded that only the British (and not the French or German) colleagues have noticed significant differences between the two forms of teams. British managers state that within international teams vis-à-vis national teams, conflicts are significantly more often of an operational origin (how operations should be/are performed) and they are also significantly more often suppressed by reference to rules, procedures and definitions of responsibility.

V.7. Standardization

"The main dilemma which those who manage across culture confront is the extent to which they should centralise, thereby imposing on foreign cultures rules and procedures that might affront them, or decentralise, thereby letting each culture go its own way without having any centrally viable ideas about improvement since the 'better way' is a local, not a global pathway. If you radically decentralise you have to ask whether the HQ can add value at all, or whether companies acting in several nations are worthwhile" (Trompenaars, 1993:167).

Van Dijck (1990) notices, that generally, using the McKinsey Consulting Group 7s-Model, the hard s's (strategy, formal structure, control and information systems) have a universal organizational applicability. But the soft s's are culturally specific (patterns of leadership, human resource practices, organizational values, processes of communication and co-operation) (van Dijck, 1990:478). He argues that within an ideal-type European approach to management it is important to share the same corporate commitment and identity, human resource policies, mission and strategies across borders (van Dijck, 1990:475-6 and

478).

Olie (1990) states that successful mergers and acquisitions require, among others, common management tasks and goals (Olie, 1990:206).

Thurley & Wirdenius (1989) argue similarly: "...managerial legitimacy can only be created and maintained if the objectives of the organization continue to command the support of the various interest groups within it. Such a consensus has to be continually fought for: it will be eroded over time if there are not adjustments to the demands of new interest groups" (Thurley & Wirdenius, 1989:100).

Laurent (1986:100-1) poses many interesting questions regarding the 'infant' field of international human resource management asking: "...how much consistency and which similarity in policies and practices should be developed ? How much variety and differentiation and what adaption should be encouraged ? Which policies should be universal and global ? Which ones should be local ? Which HRM practices should be designed at the center ? Locally ? By international teams ? Which processes can be invented to reach agreement on objectives and allow variable paths to achieve them ? Which passports should key managers have in the headquarter organization and in the main subsidiaries ? Home office nationals ? Country nationals ? Third nationals ? How much and which expatriation should occur ? How to manage the whole expatriation process ? How to properly assess management potential when judgment criteria differ from country to country ? How to orchestrate the management of careers internationally?"

According to Hofstede (1984), the request for more centralization will mainly come from the managers of cultures with high power distances, which points to the French managers. Section 7 of Chapter IV states the different opinions about the adequacy of standardization within the national setting (summary in IV.8.7.).

F_N \leftrightarrow F_I	B_N \leftrightarrow B_I	D_N \leftrightarrow D_I	$F:$ \bar{X}_N \bar{X}_I	$B:$ \bar{X}_N \bar{X}_I	$D:$ \bar{X}_N \bar{X}_I	Statement
						There is <u>not adequate standardization</u> regarding...
			3.5	3.0	3.2	the technical specifications and quality of the products
			3.5	3.1	3.0	
			3.4	3.1	3.3	the product design
			3.3	3.3	3.0	
✓			3.0	2.9	3.2	work processes (content of work, procedures to be followed)
✓			3.4	3.1	3.1	
			2.9	3.0	3.5	corporate culture
			3.4	3.1	3.5	
			3.1	3.1	3.5	operational tasks
			3.3	3.1	3.6	
			3.2	2.9	3.4	corporate goals
			3.4	3.1	3.3	
			3.2	3.0	3.5	corporate identity.
			3.5	3.2	3.3	

Country-means of: 1 = 'yes, I definitely agree' 2 = 'yes, I tend to agree' 3 = 'I am undecided' 4 = 'no, I tend to disagree' 5 = 'no, I definitely disagree'
 '✓' indicates a significant difference ($\alpha=5\%$) between national 'N' and international 'I' teams/settings

Table V.11: French, British and German perceptions of the differences between nationally homogenous versus heterogenous teams/settings in respect of standardization

From Table V.11 we see that only the French respondents (and not the British or German colleagues) state significant differences in regard to the adequacy of standardization. They notice that there is significantly more adequate standardization internationally (than nationally) in respect to both work processes (content of work, procedures to be followed) as also to corporate culture.

Non-significant differences ($|d\bar{X}| > .1$) between the international and the national setting is noted for the following aspects: there is more adequate standardization internationally

in regard to operational tasks, corporate goals and corporate identity.

Also similarity ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) exists regarding product design and the technical specifications and quality of the products.

The British note more adequate standardization internationally (vis-à-vis nationally) in respect to product design, work processes and corporate goals and identity.

Standardization of operational tasks, corporate culture and the technical specifications/quality of the products are similar ($|d\bar{X}| \leq .1$) internationally and nationally.

The German respondents find the standardization of the corporate identity, product design and the technical specifications/quality of the products internationally less adequate (internationally less adequacy of standardization does not occur among the French and British respondents).

Similarly adequate is the standardization internationally and nationally in regard to work processes, corporate culture, operational tasks and corporate goals.

To summarise, only the French (and not the British or German) managers find the standardization of work processes and corporate culture internationally significantly more adequate than it is nationally.

V.8. Summary of the comparison between nationally heterogenous and nationally homogenous teams/settings and test of the hypotheses

Below only those statements for which there are significant ($\alpha = .05$) differences between bi- or international and national teamwork/settings are listed. The comparison is of a relative nature and readers are referred to the tables in Section V.1 to V.7 for an indication of the absolute scores of the country responses. The differences are ranked according to their size, the biggest difference being mentioned first.

V.8.1. In respect to participation in decision-making, bi- or international (as opposed to national) teams lead, from the point of view of:

French managers:

- to significantly less satisfaction with the opportunities to take on responsibility
- to the view that increased participation results in
 - significantly worse knowledge of what is going on in the company
 - significantly less job satisfaction
 - people getting significantly less say in company/departmental policy making

British managers:

- to significantly less satisfaction with participation in decisions related to their work
- to the view that increased participation results in
 - significantly less influence on day-to-day matters
 - significantly more tension
 - significantly worse utilization of people's abilities and experiences

German managers:

- to significantly less satisfaction with participation in work-related decisions

Hypothesis 1 (that within bi-/international management teams (a) satisfaction with

participation is significantly lower and (b) the positive effects of participation are generally significantly less clear) can be confirmed by the French, British and German managers in part (a) (on one in five items per country).

The German managers cannot, but both the French and British managers can confirm several aspects of part (b) (both state three out of twelve differences as significant).

Hypothesis 2 (that there is a significant difference between the most preferred decision-making style of bi-/international versus national management teams) cannot be confirmed by either of the three nationalities.

V.8.2. In respect to co-operation, bi- or international (in contrast to national) teams are characterized by, from the point of view of:

French managers:

- diversity is ignored significantly more often (as opposed to managed)
- significantly more difficult to manage diversity
- significantly less equal power among team members
- significantly less adequate standards of performance among team members

the British respondents:

- the fact that teamwork occurs significantly more often because it is required by higher authority
- the fact that teamwork occurs significantly more often because of the reason that co-ordination and exchange are specified by the formal system
- the fact that teamwork is practised significantly less often
- the fact that teamwork occurs significantly less because of personal reasons (collaboration is personally satisfying, stimulating or challenging)
- the fact that teamwork occurs significantly less for reasons that people's joint contribution is needed to make progress in the task
- significantly less equal power among team members
- significantly less friendly and co-operative interpersonal relations
- significantly more difficult to manage diversity
- significantly worse encouragement of one another's best efforts
- significantly more effectiveness in the case of total absence of diversity
- significantly worse orientation along clear overall goals

the German colleagues:

- diversity is ignored significantly less often

Hypothesis 3 (that the reason for the formation of bi-/international teams is significantly more often due to company policy than personal choice) can be confirmed by the British managers but neither by the French nor by the German colleagues (the British also state that bi-/international teamwork occurs less often than national teamwork).

Hypothesis 4 (that dysfunctional results will occur significantly more frequently in bi-/international teams than in nationally homogeneous teams) can be confirmed by the British and the French, but not by the German managers (the French state four and the British six out of fourteen differences as statistically significant). The German managers even state that diversity is less ignored within bi-/international teams.

V.8.3. In respect to mutual exchange of information, the bi- or international (in contrast to national) element of teams lead, from the point of view of:

French managers:

- to significantly less adequate downward communication (with subordinates)
- to significantly more misinterpretation
- to significantly less adequate upward communication (with superiors)

British managers:

- to significantly less successfully practised openness
- to significantly more misperception of facts

German managers:

- to significantly more misperception of facts
- to significantly more misinterpretation
- to significantly less adequate downward communication (with subordinates)
- and to the opinion that English as main language would significantly improve communication

Hypothesis 5 (that there is significantly less adequate exchange of information between management groups composed of two or more nationalities) can only be partly confirmed in as much as

- all three nationalities notice significantly more misinterpretation and/or misperception of facts within bi-/international teams
- the French notice significantly less adequate upward and both the French and the German managers state significantly less adequate downward communication
- and the British generally find, that openness is practised significantly less successfully within bi-/international teams.

Out of eleven items in Table V.7, the French state three (27 %), the British two (18 %) and the German managers state four (36 %) differences as statistically significant.

V.8.4. In respect to satisfaction, the work within bi- or international (in contrast to national) teams involves from the point of view of:

French managers:

- significantly less satisfaction with the challenge the work poses and the personal sense of accomplishment stemming from it
- significantly less satisfaction with the received organizational objectives and targets

British managers:

- significantly less satisfaction with the extent to which colleagues mutually co-operate

German managers:

- significantly less satisfaction with the training possibilities

Generally, hypothesis 6 (that the degree of satisfaction is significantly lower when interaction takes place between colleagues of two or more nationalities) cannot be confirmed for the three nationalities (the three countries together state only four out of thirty-six potential differences as statistically significant; = 11 %).

While being expected, this result is remarkable particularly in light of the many reasons that could impinge on the working relationships between managers of different nationalities (see Section V.4.).

Apart from this, however, each nationality notices one or two disadvantages when working within bi-/international teams: the French notice significantly less satisfaction with the work challenge and with organizational objectives and targets; the British managers state significantly less satisfaction with the extent to which colleagues co-operate and German managers notice significantly less satisfaction with the training possibilities.

V.8.5. In respect to skill utilization, the work within bi- or international (in contrast to national) teams involves from the point of view of:

French managers:

- significantly less opportunity to feel responsible
- significantly less opportunity to show others how to do a job
- significantly less opportunity to use verbal ability
- significantly less opportunity to use the ability to organise the job
- significantly less opportunity to use initiative
- significantly less opportunity to use practical work experience
- significantly less opportunity to use the ability to work by oneself
- significantly less opportunity to be decisive
- significantly less opportunity to use intelligence
- significantly less opportunity to use adaptability/flexibility
- significantly less opportunity to use the capacity to look ahead
- significantly less opportunity to use the capacity to solve problems at work
- significantly less opportunity to use the ability to understand people

British managers:

- significantly less opportunity to show others how to do a job
- significantly less opportunity to use initiative
- significantly less opportunity to use the capacity to develop new ideas
- significantly less opportunity to use the ability to organize the job
- significantly less opportunity to be decisive
- significantly less opportunity to use adaptability/flexibility
- significantly less opportunity to feel responsible
- significantly less opportunity to use the ability to understand people
- significantly less opportunity to use verbal ability
- significantly less opportunity to use co-operativeness
- significantly less opportunity to use the capacity to solve problems at work
- significantly less opportunity to use the ability to work by oneself
- significantly less opportunity to use the capacity to look ahead

German managers:

- significantly less opportunity to be accurate in the work

Therefore, hypothesis 7 (that skills are significantly less well utilized when people of two or more nationalities interact) can definitely be confirmed for French and British managers but not for German managers.

The proportion of statistically significant differences from Table V.9 is 76 % for both the French and British and 6 % for the German managers.

V.8.6. In respect to conflicts, the work in bi- or international (in contrast to national) teams involves from the point of view of:

British managers:

- that conflicts are significantly more suppressed by reference to rules, procedures and definitions of responsibility
- and that conflicts are significantly more of an operational origin (how operations should be/are performed)

For both French and German managers there are no significant differences between conflict within bi-/international vis-à-vis conflict in national teams.

This means that hypothesis 8 (that conflicts occur significantly more often within bi-/international settings and they also have different origin) cannot be confirmed for French

and German managers at all.

The British managers report no significant differences regarding the occurrence of conflicts within bi-/international versus national management teams which means that the first part of hypothesis 8 cannot be confirmed for British managers either.

The British do, however, state a different conflict origin (significantly more of operational focus), hence they confirm the latter part of hypothesis 8 (the British also notice significant differences regarding conflict resolution since they state that conflicts are significantly more suppressed by reference to rules, procedures and definitions of responsibility).

V.8.7. In respect to standardization, the bi- or international (in contrast to national) setting means that the:

French managers:

- find the existing standardization regarding corporate culture significantly more adequate
- find the standardization regarding work processes (content of work, procedures to be followed) significantly more adequate

This means that internationally there is no significant need for further standardization of the technical specifications/quality and design of the products, the work processes, operational tasks and the corporate culture, goals and identity.

V.9. Principal component analysis

The principal component analysis is used as a tool to group together statements that differentiate nationally heterogenous versus nationally homogenous teams. Section 1 to 8 of this chapter has provided us with a large number of significant differences between the two forms of teams. This method has two disadvantages: the first is the number of significant differences (there are 70 !), which makes the presentation of the results more difficult. Also, the more explaining variables we obtain, the less it is assured that all of them are individually necessary to explain the differences between national and bi-/international teams. One of the main problems within social science is to unfold from a large number of potential variables a small number of mutually independent factors (Backhaus et al., 1990:68).

The second disadvantage is that we have so far relied on the statistical procedure of significance tests only, which compare the differences between the average responses on items relating to national with the respective average responses on items relating to bi-/international teams. The tables within Section V.1 to 7 do, however, also state many non-significant differences, where the differences between the average country responses for national and the respective for bi-/international teams is often as substantial (or even bigger) than for those items for which there exists a statistically significant difference. As an alternative procedure we therefore conduct a principal component analysis. It analyses the correlations between responses (= variables) in order to unfold mutually independent principal components/factors that explain the differences between national and bi-/international teams.

Section 4 of Chapter III has outlined the technical procedure for this non-standard principal component analysis (the traditional method of principal component analysis is unsuitable for the novel questionnaire design used in this project).

Many researchers in the field of cross-cultural management list and use only the first three or four variables/questions, whose variance was best explained by the principal component (the term factor is used synonymously). However, we do list all the questions involved in and grouped together into the factors. This gives the reader the opportunity to have

a full picture of what the factor consists of (which is important when giving it a name) and it also gives full information on exactly which questions the managers answered in equally positive, negative or 'neutral' ways.

In order to be able to determine, what trends each principal component displays for the comparison of the six different situations (three different national teams versus three different bi-/international teams), it is necessary to conduct the following two procedures of analysis.

Procedures of analysis

Responses of the factors

In the following, the means of each country's responses (on the statements grouped in the tables) will be listed for bi-/international and for national teams. They are calculated manually by weighting each statement equally (see Tables A.V.4 to 7 in Appendix). In other words, the weighting indicated by the factor loadings within the tables is not taken account of. A second shortcoming is, that the arithmetic means are calculated from scores with only one decimal place, which makes finer differentiation impossible.

Scores on the factors

Therefore it is necessary to use a second method. The country scores for each of the six situations are calculated on the basis of the formula mentioned in Section 4 of Chapter III. The results of both procedures are visible in the graphs below: the former procedure's results are shown in Figures V.1, 3, 5 and 7, whereas reference is made to the second procedure with Figures V.2, 4, 6 and 8. Factors F1 to F4 are analyzed accordingly.

Comparison between response and score

While the second method (scores) provides the exact results, the first one (response) is used to indicate trends and provides a means to review the results of the second. However, it withholds information since individual factor loadings are not taken into account. It must be stressed again, that the two graphs are not directly comparable, but

they offer similar information.

How to interpret the responses and scores (Figures V.1 to 8)

The responses in Figures V.1, 3, 5 and 7 show the average response of each management contingent for bi-/international and for national teams on a Likert-type scale from 1 ('yes, I definitely agree') to 5 ('no, I definitely disagree').

The scores in Figures V.2, 4, 6 and 8 mean the following: zero in these figures is the weighted average score for the six situations (in which the managers find themselves). It is the average of all participating managers.

The values within these figures are likely to be between -1 and +1, this is because the mean is zero and the standard deviation is 1.

Normally, -1 means one standard deviation in the negative direction on the factor and +1 means one standard deviation in the positive direction on the factor. However, since the Likert-type responses display a small value for an affirmative response and a high value for a negative response, this scale is inverted: -1 within Figures V.2, 4, 6 and 8 means one standard deviation in the positive direction on the factor and 1 means one standard deviation in the negative direction on the factor.

In order to meaningfully question these values, we need to get an impression of the standard error. The standard error is defined as the (within group) standard deviation divided by the square root of n (n=number of managers of this group). The French managers have a sample size of 53 (B:54; D:70) and therefore the standard error of the mean for the French is 0.14, for the British 0.14 and for the Germans 0.12. Values above the standard error are interesting.

The subdivision of the questionnaire, which is also used in Chapter IV and Sections 1 to 8 of Chapter V has been modified for the purpose of the principal component analysis. The mental subdivision (as opposed to one done on mathematical/statistical grounds) is conducted with the aim of positioning related matters into the same area. The area SATISFACTION thus consists of 'satisfaction with participation' (Table V.1), 'satisfaction with decision-making' (Table V.3) and 'satisfaction in the company' (Table V.8). The area INTERACTION includes 'effects of participation' (Table V.2), 'teamwork' (Table V.4), 'team assessment' (Table V.5) and 'mutual exchange of information' (Table V.7).

And the two remaining areas SKILL UTILIZATION and CONFLICTS each incorporate the group of statements with the same name in the questionnaire (Table V.9 and Table V.10).

Overview over the Factors

	KMO	explained % of variance	used in further analysis	name of factor
SATISFACTION (23 variables)	.95	1. Factor: 84.8 2. Factor: 5.1	yes no ¹¹⁷	F1
INTERACTION (44 variables)	.95	1. Factor: 76.0 2. Factor: 8.8 3. Factor: 6.6	yes no ¹¹⁸ yes	F2 F3
SKILL UTILIZATION (17 variables)	.94	1. Factor: 88.0	yes	F4
CONFLICTS (12 var.)	.94	1. Factor: 86.4	no ¹¹⁹	

¹¹⁷ This factor measures satisfaction with decision-making based on situationally relevant conditions including nationality, power + authority, habit, personal involvement, job description criteria and sapiential considerations. Since several contrasting items are included (which makes a positive or negative swing on this factor difficult to interpret) and since it only explains 5.1 % of the total variance within the area SATISFACTION, it will not be included in further analysis.

¹¹⁸ This factor describes dysfunctions related to teams but includes also items on the appropriateness of participation and reasons for the occurrence of teamwork (personal + formal). Its interpretation makes little sense and it is not included. This is in spite of the fact that it explains a bigger percentage of variance than F3 (but statistical measures should not have priority over the meaningful interpretation of a factor).

¹¹⁹ This factor groups 12 items about the reasons for conflicts, their consequences and the resolving of conflicts. Factually it does not make sense, because it contains at the same time all the reasons for the occurrence of conflicts (see Table V.10) and all strategies for their resolution. It does not offer a choice or different factor loadings for contrasting items. This is due to the fact that the responses on these items are very similar for both forms of teams and from the point of view of all

This overview describes the 4 areas and the factors that were extracted within each of them. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy is listed first (values all 'marvellous'; see Section 4 of Chapter III) and the next column contains the percentage of the total variance (of the responses) that is attributed to each factor. It must be noted, that for each area a separate principal component analysis was conducted, which means that these values refer only to the variance of all the responses within each area. To clarify: the first factor F1 therefore explains 85 per cent of the total variance of all responses within the area SATISFACTION. The third column shows whether the factor is being used in the following analysis and the last column displays factor names.

three nationalities. A comparison between the six situations makes little sense and is therefore not included in the further analysis, as the following statistics confirm:

	F-INT	F-NAT	B-INT	B-NAT	D-INT	D-NAT
response	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0
score	-0.04	-0.08	-0.04	0.06	0.04	0.06

V.9.1.Satisfaction

fl ¹²⁰	F1 ⇒ Satisfaction with the work, especially working relationships and my consultation in the job
	I am satisfied with...
.88	the working relationships with superiors
.87	the challenge my work poses and the personal sense of accomplishment I get from it
.87	the way my immediate superior asks for my opinion on matters related to my work
.85	my participation in decisions relating to my work
.85	the possibility for self-development within my job
.85	the way I am consulted by my immediate superior when changes in my work occur
.83	the way my immediate superior pays attention to my ideas and suggestions.
.82	the working relationships with subordinates
.82	my opportunities to take on responsibility
.82	the extent to which people I work with mutually co-operate
.81	the working relationships with peers
.80	the organizational objectives and targets I get
.80	the extent to which fair distribution (equality of chances) is exercised
.78	the recognition I get when doing a good job
.77	the freedom I have to adopt my own approach to the job
.76	the training possibilities I get for my tasks.

Table V.12: Items that Factor F1 consists of

Table V.12 shows that F1 covers satisfaction with the work (challenge it poses; possibility for self-development; opportunities to take on responsibility; organizational objectives and targets; recognition; training possibilities), especially working relationships (with superiors, subordinates and peers; mutual co-operation among colleagues; extent of fair distribution among colleagues) and the level to which team members are consulted in the job (his/her input: superior asks for opinion; consultation when changes occur; attention

¹²⁰ Factor loadings (fl) indicate the weight each item (variable) assigns to the factor (principal component).

If not otherwise stated, these factor loadings refer to the rotated factor matrix of the SPSS packages. Each variable (item) is only listed once in spite of the fact that it also marginally influences another factor within the same area (SATISFACTION and INTERACTION possess several factors).

paid to ideas and suggestions; participation when deciding on work related matters; freedom to adopt a personal approach).

The short description listed in the first row of the table does not, as is often the case with the names of extracted factors, represent all the statements in the second row of the table and it also creates expectations of more issues than are actually covered (e.g. the word 'work' is a very wide expression). That is why the factors are referred to as F1, F2, F3 and F4.

When examining Section 1 to 7 of this chapter and also Chapter IV we recognize that seven (15 %) statistically significant team differences (between bi-/international and national) and sixteen (33 %) statistically significant country differences (France versus Britain; France versus Germany; Britain versus Germany) have been grouped together in this factor F1.

Comparing the responses on F1 in Figure V.1 shows that:

- French managers have less satisfaction (F1) within bi-/inter-national teams than within national teams
- same result for British managers
- same result for German managers

- for national teams: German managers express greatest and British colleagues least satisfaction
- same trend for bi-/international teams

The evaluation of the scores on F1 in Figure V.2 reveals that:

- the bi-/international element within teams reduces the satisfaction with the work (especially working relationships and the consultation in the job) for all nationalities
- the British managers working in bi-/international teams are most unsatisfied of all with the work (especially working relationships and consultation in the job)
- working within national teams, German managers are the most satisfied of all with the work (especially working relationships and consultation in the job)
- the difference between the bi-/international and the national element in regard to satisfaction with the work (especially working relationships and consultation in the job) is biggest with the British and smallest with the Germans

F1 = Satisfaction with the work, especially working relationships and my consultation in the job

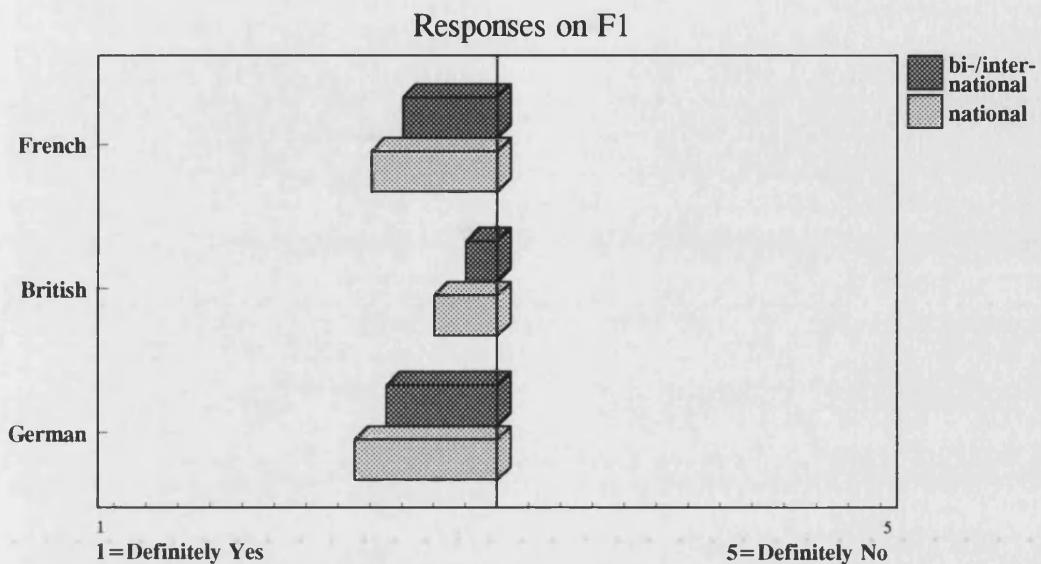


Figure V.1: French, British and German responses on F1

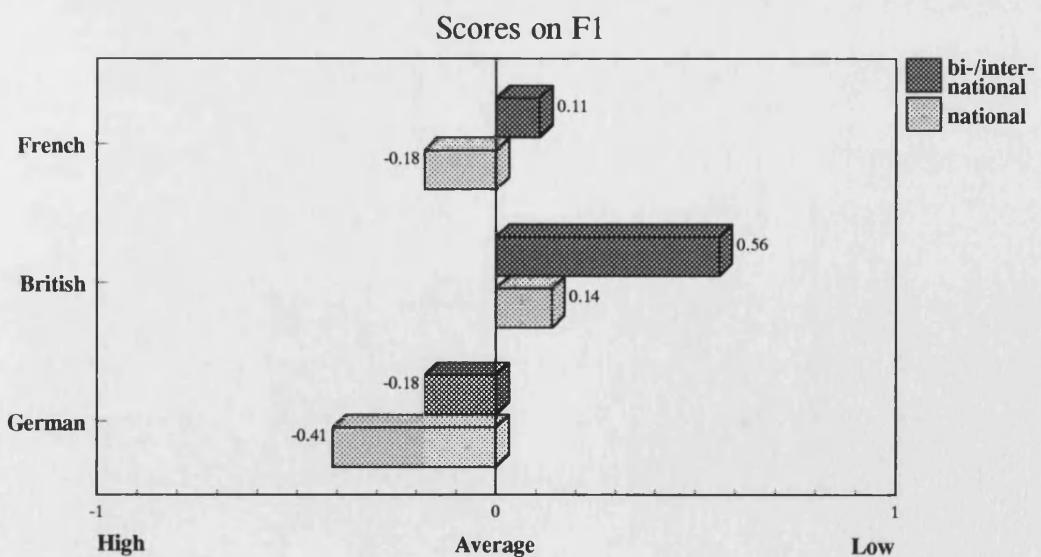


Figure V.2: French, British and German scores on F1

V.9.2. Interaction

fl	F2 ⇒ Team effectiveness in terms of interaction, particularly communication, goals and performance.
.93	The members work effectively as a team.
.87	My group makes effective use of resources (material + human).
.86	My group can orientate itself along clear overall goals.
.86	Openness is practised very successfully.
.85	Communication between myself and peers is adequate.
.85	I am satisfied with the present state of organizational communication.
.84	The members of my group encourage one another's best efforts, reinforcing successful behaviour.
.84	Communication between myself and superiors is adequate.
.84	Communication between myself and subordinates is adequate.
.84	Interpersonal relations in my team/task force is friendly and co-operative.
.83	The members maintain adequate standards of performance.
.79	The diversity that exists is relatively easy to manage.
.78	There is enough oral communication in 'the company'.
.76	The members of task forces are selected for task-related abilities.
.76	The members do not feel constrained by rules and regulations in accomplishing their tasks.
.74	The members of my group have about equal power.
.73	My group usually gets external feedback.
.66	Teamwork occurs when people's joint contribution is needed to make progress in the task.
.65	There is enough written communication in 'the company'.
.65	There is little diversity of opinion in my team.

Table V.13: Items that Factor F2 consists of

F2 groups together statements about the effectiveness of team interaction (effective work; encouragement of one another's best efforts, reinforcing successful behaviour; friendly and co-operative interpersonal relations; easy to manage diversity; little diversity of opinion; equal power distribution within the team), communication (openness practised successfully; adequate communication with peers, superiors and subordinates; satisfaction with organizational communication; enough oral and written communication), goals (orientation along clear overall goals; not feeling constrained by rules and regulations) and performance (adequate standards of performance; evaluation by external feedback;

effective use of human and material resources; task related reasons for conducting teamwork; task related selection criteria when joining the team).

Also, 13 (22 %) statistically significant team differences (between bi-/international and national; see Section V.1 to V.7) and 13 statistically significant country differences (France versus Britain; France versus Germany; Britain versus Germany; see Chapter IV) have been grouped together in this factor.

Comparing the responses on F2 in Figure V.3 shows that:

- French managers state less effectiveness within bi-/international teams (vis-à-vis national teams)
- same result for British managers
- same result for German managers

- national teams: similar levels of effectiveness perceived by French and German managers, lowest level of effectiveness noticed by British colleagues
- for bi-/international teams: highest levels of effectiveness noticed by German, lowest levels stated by British managers

Examining the scores on F2 in Figure V.4 uncovers the following:

- the difference between the six situations in regard to team effectiveness (in terms of interaction, particularly communication, goals and performance) is not very big (differences between scores on F2 smaller than the respective ones on F1; some do not exceed the standard errors of 0.14 for the French, 0.14 for the British and 0.12 for the Germans)

- for both French and British managers the bi-/international element within teams reduces team effectiveness (in terms of interaction, particularly communication, goals and performance) considerably; this is not the case for the Germans (where there is practically no perceived difference between bi-/international and national teams in this respect)
- bi-/international teams are perceived as having the lowest effectiveness (in terms of interaction, particularly communication, goals and performance) by the British managers and the highest by the German managers
- the biggest reduction in team effectiveness (in terms of interaction, particularly communication, goals and performance) as a result of a bi- or international element is noticed by the British managers and the smallest by their German colleagues

F2 = Team effectiveness in terms of interaction, particularly communication, goals and performance

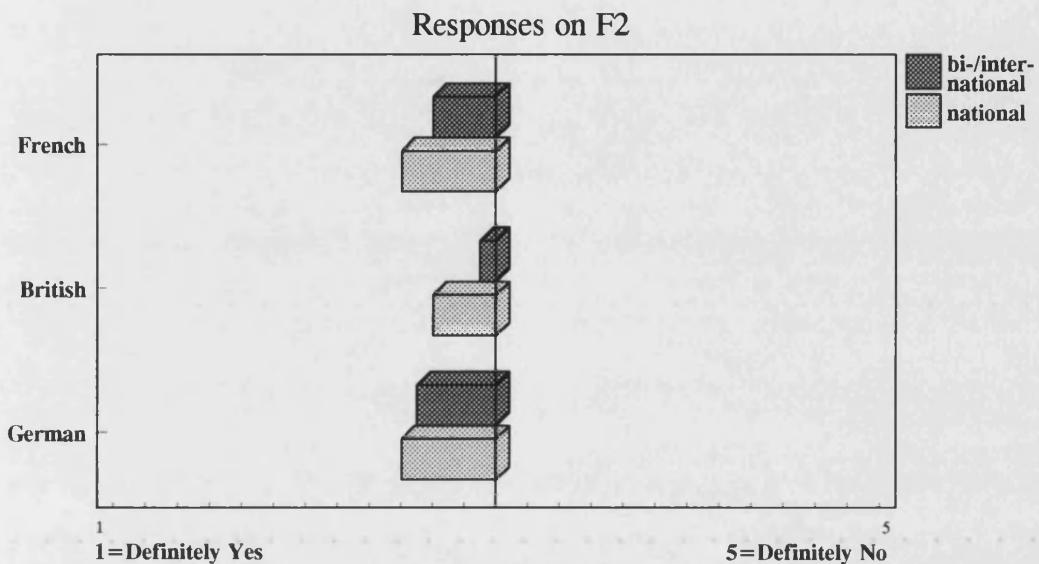


Figure V.3: French, British and German responses on F2

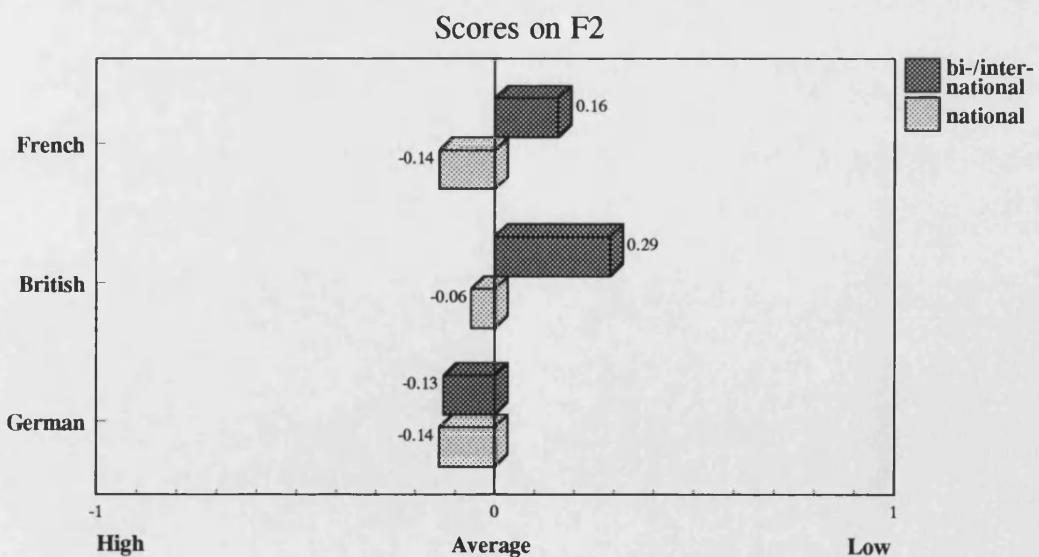


Figure V.4: French, British and German scores on F2

fl	F3 ⇒ More participation leads to, among others, better decisions, improved ability utilization and job satisfaction.
.87	Because of more participation...
.87	in general the quality of decisions is better
.86	people's abilities and experiences are better utilised
.84	I have more job satisfaction
.82	I know better what is going on in the company
.81	there is a better atmosphere in the department
.80	people are getting more say in company/departmental policy making
.80	I have more influence on day-to-day matters
.79	people have gained greater independence and responsibility
.78	I accept decisions more easily
.58	worker's interests are better looked after
	Teamwork occurs when the collaboration is personally satisfying, stimulating or challenging.

Table V.14: Items that Factor F3 consists of

Affirmative responses (low country means) to F3 reveal the opinions, that more participation leads to better decisions (better quality of decisions), improved ability utilization and job satisfaction (personal satisfaction, stimulation and challenge) and other aspects (better knowledge of what is going on; better atmosphere; more say, influence, independence and responsibility; better acceptance of decisions; better looking after of worker's interests). In other words, more participation leads to a range of generally valued consequences and is therefore viewed positively.

Also, 6 (18 %) statistically significant team differences (between bi-/international and national; see Section V.1 to V.7) and 9 (27 %) statistically significant country differences (France versus Britain; France versus Germany; Britain versus Germany; see Chapter IV) have been grouped together in this factor.

Comparing the responses on F3 in Figure V.5 reveals the following:

- French managers rather reject more participation within bi-/international teams
- same result for British managers
- no statement possible for German managers

- more participation for the national team viewed most positively by the French and least positively by the British managers
- more participation for the bi-/international team viewed most positively by the German and least positively by the British respondents

Examining the scores on F3 in Figure V.6 reveals the following:

- very strong disagreement on the statement that more participation leads to, among others, better decisions, improved ability utilization and job satisfaction within bi-/international teams comes from the British managers

- within bi-/international teamwork the British (as opposed to the French and Germans) see more participation most negatively and the Germans see more participation most positively

- within national teamwork, more participation is looked upon most favourably by the French and least favourably by the British

- German managers find more participation more favourable for bi-/international than for national teamwork

F3 = More participation leads to, among others, better decisions, improved ability utilization and job satisfaction

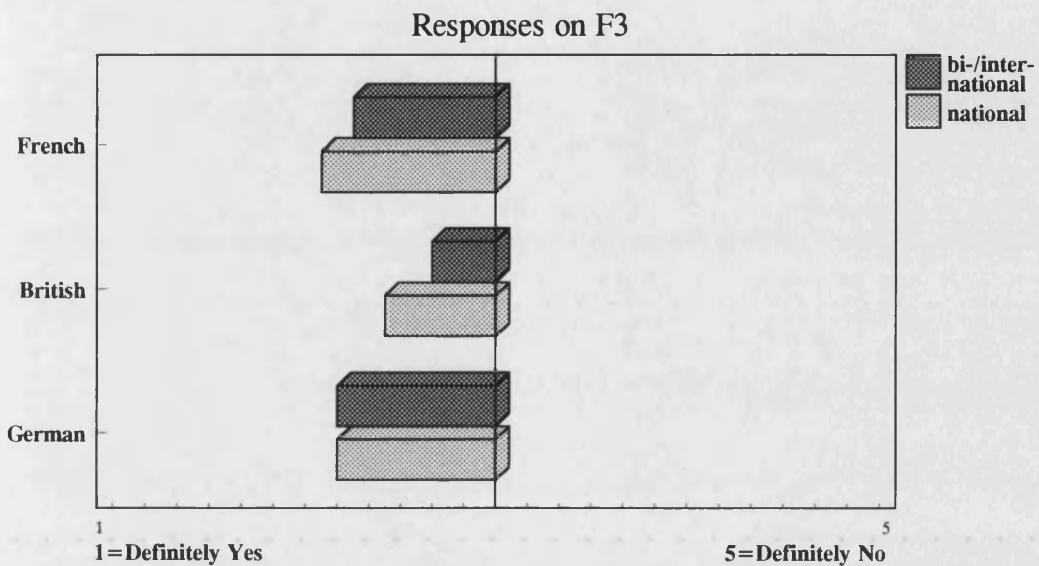


Figure V.5: French, British and German responses on F3

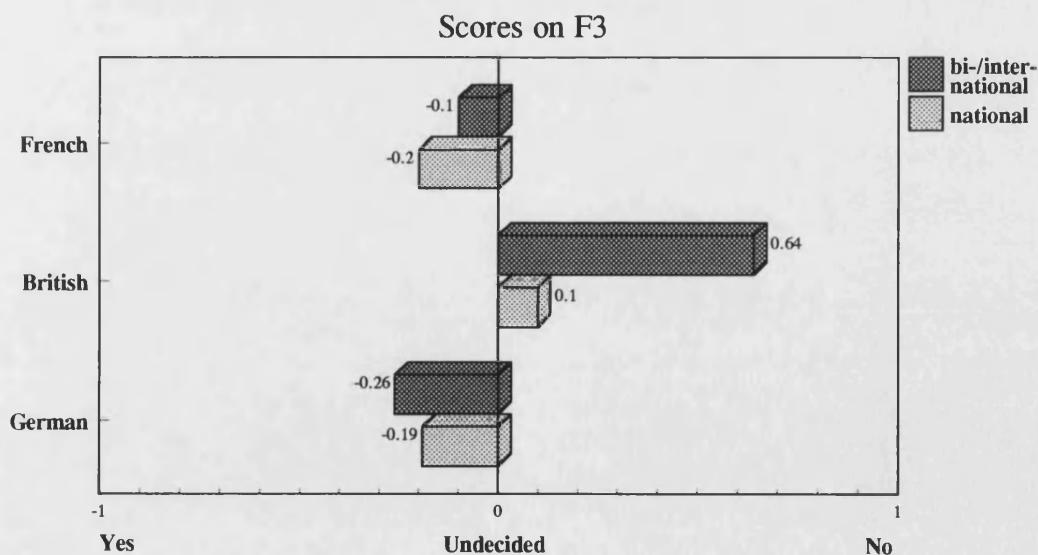


Figure V.6: French, British and German scores on F3

V.9.3. Competence utilization

fl ¹²¹	F4 ⇒ Opportunity to use competence.
	My job gives me the opportunity to use the following:
.97	feeling of responsibility
.97	being decisive
.96	verbal ability
.96	ability to organise my job
.96	showing others how to do a job
.96	capacity to solve problems at work
.96	capacity to develop new ideas
.95	adaptability/flexibility
.95	practical work experience
.95	initiative
.94	intelligence
.94	understanding of people
.94	co-operativeness
.94	capacity to look ahead
.92	being accurate in the work
.89	ability to work on my own.
.77	Most often I feel that my skills are under-utilized.

Table V.15: Items that Factor F4 consists of

F4 groups together sixteen different competencies (see table above). These competencies are impressive due to the very similar factor loadings they assign to F4.

There is an apparent contradiction in this factor or rather the way the respondents have answered its statements. The more the managers state that they have the opportunity to use the above listed abilities, the more they find that their abilities are under-utilized (both factor loadings positive). There are some potential explanations for this. One of them is connected with the shortcomings of doing field research with a questionnaire: the respondents rush through the questionnaire and possibly overlook the "*under*"-utilization within that question. Hence, the question is answered incorrectly, which in turn speaks in favour of always conducting such statistical procedures as factor analyses on questionnaire output. The results of a factor analysis are not based on the answers to a single statement (variable) but on the answers on many (grouped, clustered) statements.

Another potential explanation is that people see the chance that the above listed skills are used but

¹²¹ Unrotated factor matrix (one factor solutions cannot be rotated). This results in smaller absolute factor loadings.

they do not use their personal skills (divergence between list of skills and personal skills). This explanation is quite unlikely or far-fetched since the above list should cover a majority of the skills used by internationally operating managers.

Factor F4 groups 25 (49 %) statistically significant team differences (between bi-/international and national; see Section V.1 to V.7) and 7 (14 %) statistically significant country differences (France versus Britain; France versus Germany; Britain versus Germany; see Chapter IV).

From a value-comparison of the responses on F4 in Figure V.7 the following trends are obvious:

- French managers notice worse opportunities to use competencies within bi-/international teams (vis-à-vis national ones)
- same result for British managers
- same result for German colleagues

- for national teams: both French and British managers equally notice more scope for competence utilization than German managers
- German managers notice most, British notice fewest opportunities to use competencies within bi-/international teams

The scores on F4 in Figure V.8 reveal that:

- within bi-/international teams, the opportunities to use competence is viewed least positively by the British and as most positively by the Germans
- within national teams, the opportunity to use competence is viewed as worst by the German and as best by the British
- the perceived differences regarding opportunities to use competence within bi-/international teams versus national teams is biggest for the British and smallest for the German managers
- while the British managers report substantial differences between the two forms of teams in regard to F4, both the French and German managers report differences that remain below their respective standard errors of the scores

F4 = Opportunity to use competence

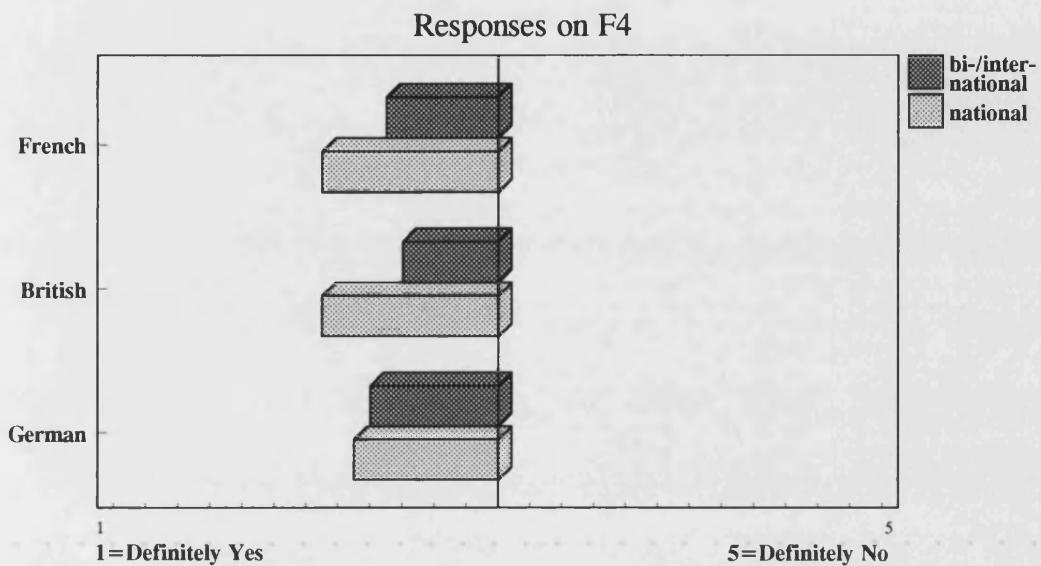


Figure V.7: French, British and German responses on F4

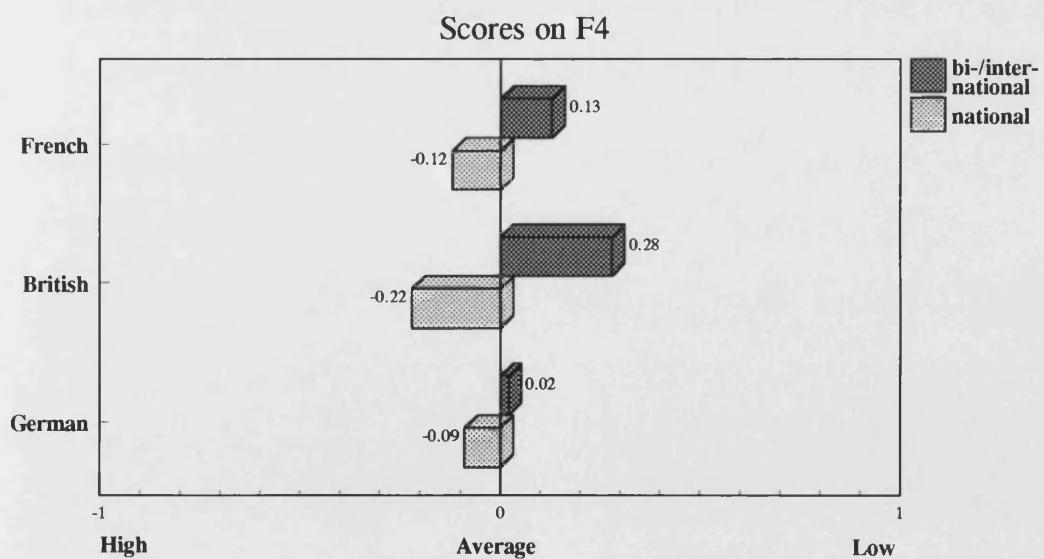


Figure V.8: French, British and German scores on F4

Summary

The chapter describes the differences between working in bi-/international versus national management teams. This is done with two different approaches: firstly we have conducted statistical significance tests (similar to the analysis within Chapter IV) and these results are summarised in Section 8. The second approach is to conduct a Principal Component Analysis in order to develop underlying differentiating patterns between nationally heterogeneous versus nationally homogeneous teams. This technique develops the four following principal components/factors:

F1 \Rightarrow Satisfaction with the work, especially working relationships and my consultation in the job

F2 \Rightarrow Team effectiveness in terms of interaction, particularly communication, goals and performance

F3 \Rightarrow More participation leads to, among others, better decisions, improved ability utilization and job satisfaction

and F4 \Rightarrow Opportunity to use competence.

The differences between the work in nationally heterogeneous and nationally homogeneous teams will be summarized in the section **Concluding Remarks (Chapter VI)**, where the two techniques of analysis are combined.

CHAPTER VI:

Concluding Remarks

How does the bi-/international element within management teams or task forces affect decision-making, co-operation, mutual exchange of information, satisfaction, skill utilization, conflicts and standardization (of products, tasks, goals, corporate identity and culture) ?

This is the initial question with which we examined teams consisting of a mixture of French, British and/or German managers and contrasted these with nationally homogeneous teams.

The literature does not shed enough light on this problem: cross-national management studies of either a more quantitative or a more qualitative nature (as reviewed in Chapter I) identify differences between French, British and German approaches to management within their national context only and therefore only allow us to understand each manager's respective initial situation (point of departure) within nationally heterogeneous teams (leading to potentially centrifugal or centripetal forces).

We suggest a different approach to judge what happens when different management styles interact and challenge each other: *Social Cross-National Management* (see Table I.1).

The research tools (novel questionnaire design) and methods of evaluation (parametric and non-parametric tests; modified principal component analysis with cross-scoring of both forms of teams in every composition) are presented in Chapter III.

Chapter IV offers empirical evidence for significant differences between the French, British and German management styles (see summary in Section IV.8) and in some fields (effects of more participation, decision-making, teamwork occurrence, satisfaction, conflicts) this material extends the literature presented in Chapter I. At other times the literature (Ch.I) can help to explain new findings (skill utilization, satisfaction with participation, mutual exchange of information).

Within Chapter V, which assesses the differences between nationally heterogeneous and nationally homogeneous teams, we present empirical material for significant differences between the two forms of teams (see Sections V.1 to 7) and can therefore comment on

the working hypotheses that have been suggested (see Section V.8). In addition to significance tests, an alternative statistical procedure was carried out and it develops four underlying principal components (F1 to F4) that differentiate between the two forms of teams (see Section V.9).

The following findings have policy implications:

- Within nationally heterogeneous teams (vis-à-vis homogeneous teams) satisfaction with participation is significantly lower (see Table V.1).
- Leaving aside satisfaction with participation the degree of satisfaction within the bi-/ international team is also lower in general, but this less frequently (11 % of the items in Table V.8) reaches significance.
- Satisfaction with the work, especially working relationships and the consultation in the job (F1) is reduced by the bi-/international element within teams from the point of view of all three nationalities; it is reduced most strongly for the British and least strongly for the German managers (see Figure V.2). This means, that within bi-/international teams satisfaction is smallest among British and highest for German managers.
- At times (see Table V.2), the positive effects of participation are significantly less clear within nationally heterogeneous (vis-à-vis homogeneous) teams (French and British managers affirm this, German colleagues disagree).
- The view that more participation leads to, among others, better decisions, improved ability utilization and job satisfaction (F3) is demonstrated more strongly for bi-/international teams than for national teams by the German managers but this is reversed by the French and very strongly by the British managers (see Figure V.6).

Within nationally heterogeneous (vis-à-vis homogeneous) teams:

- dysfunctional results (see Table V.5) occur significantly more frequently (British and French affirm this, German managers do not)
- there is sometimes significantly less adequate exchange of information (see Table V.7)

- skills are significantly less well utilized (strongly affirmed by French and British managers, but not by German colleagues, see Table V.9).
- The opportunity to use competence (F4) within bi-/international teams is seen to be lowest by the British and highest by the German managers (see Figure V.8).
- Team effectiveness in terms of interaction, particularly communication, goals and performance (F2) is perceived to be lower in bi-/international teams for British and French and is perceived to be similar within both forms of teams for the German managers (see Figure V.4).
- Within nationally heterogeneous (vis-à-vis homogeneous) teams conflicts do not occur significantly more often but only for the British do they have different origins (significance), as Table V.10 shows.
- Within nationally heterogeneous (vis-à-vis homogeneous) teams the most preferred decision-making style is not significantly different (see Table V.3).
- Bi-/international teams are formed significantly more often out of company policy than personal choice for the British, but this is neither confirmed by the French nor the German colleagues (see Table V.4).
- International companies working with mixed nationality teams could be expected to place considerable interest upon standardizing technical specifications, design + quality of products, work processes, operational tasks and corporate goals, identity and culture. However, our findings show that the existing extent of standardization is perceived to be equally adequate internationally as it is nationally (see Table V.11).

What components of attitudes are affected by these findings ? Most of the objects of investigation within Table VI.1 were already mentioned within Section 3 of Chapter II. In addition, and with similar reasoning as presented there, we see that F4 addresses conative components of attitudes (practice of skills), F1 addresses emotions and moods (affective elements) and that F2¹²² and F3¹²³ specify cognitive elements because views and opinions are expressed.

¹²² However, item 6 "I am satisfied with..." is an affective expression.

¹²³ Only on the item with the smallest factor loading do we have a conative element.

Area of investigation (Table within Chapter V)	Attitude component cogn · aff · cona	Situation within bi- /international team (vis-à-vis national one)
Satisfaction with participation (V.1)	•	significantly lower
Satisfaction within team (V.8)	•	lower, but this seldomly reaches significance
Satisfaction with the work, especially working relationships and the consultation in the job (F1; Fig.V.2)	•	reduced by all, most for British, least for German colleagues
Effects of participation (V.2)	•	positive effects at times significantly less clear
Participation leads to, among others, better decisions, improved ability utilization and job satisfaction (F3; Fig.V.6)	•	not confirmed by French and British, but by German colleagues
Dysfunctional results (V.5)	•	significantly more frequently for British and French
Exchange of information (V.7)	•	sometimes significantly less adequate
Skill utilization (V.9)	•	significantly worse
Opportunity to use competence (F4; Fig.V.8)	•	lowest for British and highest for German colleagues
Team effectiveness in terms of interaction, particularly communication, goals and performance (F2; Fig.V4)	•	lower for British and French, similar (within both forms of teams) for Germans
Conflicts (V.10)	•	don't occur significantly more often but for British they do have different origin
Decision-making (V.3)	•	no significantly different style preferred
Team formation (V.4)	•	reasons significantly different for British, but not for French/ German colleagues
Standardization (V.11)	•	equally adequate internationally as nationally

Attitude components: cogn = cognitive; aff = affective and cona = conative

Table VI.1: Combining the results of the investigation into bi-/international teams with the tricomponential cognitive - affective - conative attitude analysis model

We see from Table VI.1, that the items which have been affected by the mixed nationality element in an unfortunate manner do not confine themselves to one or two elements but address all three components of attitudes.

The set of fourteen findings about the work within bi-/international teams versus nationally homogeneous teams is one of the contributions to knowledge of this project.

The significance of this project to future research and theorising is the demonstration, that it is not sufficient to evaluate and describe national management styles within their national context if one has the goal to increase the productivity of nationally heterogeneous teams. Rather it is necessary to go to the operational interface of mixed nationality teams (*Social Cross-National Management*). Consequently, a questionnaire has been developed which tests the repercussions of the interaction of different national management styles. In order to split off many subjective elements occurring when different respondents from different countries answer the same question, it is necessary that each respondent within each country makes two distinct statements about the work within nationally heterogeneous versus homogeneous teams. This binary element within the questionnaire is essential for a direct comparison. Another significance to future research and theorising is that this project performs a modified principal component analysis technique fully capable of evaluating and capitalizing on the binary element of the questionnaire (two values for each variable) and which is reconstructible by fellow researchers setting out to investigate two or more situations along underlying and common benchmarks (principal components/factors, here F1, F2, F3 and F4).

This project is almost certainly a first attempt to research the similarities and differences of managerial attitudes derived from working in mixed nationality teams compared to homogeneous ones. There is a tendency that the heterogeneous mode of action demonstrates negative consequences which could make it less effective. If heterogeneous teams are more risky, then this is an argument for conducting less bi- or international teamwork and/or for further selection or training. But the results are complex and show that these attitudes are not uniform across nationalities. It could be that the French and the British managers feel less comfortable in new and developing areas of globalization and internationalizing than the German ones and therefore find it more difficult to look over their own fence.

The importance of national differences in managerial attitudes is stressed in this project.

The lack of clear-cut results suggests that further research is necessary to better understand and design nationally heterogeneous teams and hence increase their performance. The indecisiveness of some findings is due in part to the lack of previous work in this area, that limited samples were used and also that research methods¹²⁴ could be further enhanced.

¹²⁴ As an improvement we suggest that some of the complexities and subtleties of these results could have been better understood if techniques such as group feedback analysis (Heller, 1969) had been used. Also, in order to limit the cultural bias at an earlier stage it would be useful to have such research carried out and interpreted by the different national centres involved (Thurley, 1985:13).

Appendix

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A.III.1. QUESTIONNAIRE IN ENGLISH

You will see scales of 1 to 5 (and x) attached to almost all of the questions. They have the following meaning:

- 1.....yes, I definitely agree
- 2.....yes, I tend to agree
- 3.....I am undecided
- 4.....no, I tend to disagree
- 5.....no, I definitely disagree
- x.....not applicable

You will also find that nearly always two scales are attached to each question, one on the left and one on the right side.

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For the left side please relate your answer to the situation when you are working with people of your own nationality.

Thus, when you are asked about teamwork, the left side refers to a British manager working in a British management team (his own nationality), irrespective of where the work actually takes place. Important is only, that people of one nationality act together.

The right side relates to the situation where people are working together with colleagues of other nationalities as well.

When a British manager is asked about a task force, the right side refers to a task force consisting of a mix of British, French, German and/or other nationalities all together. Important is only, that people act in a multinational or transnational task force/group.

Example:

1 2 3 **X** 5 x

My team is the most efficient one in the company.

1 **X** 3 4 5 x

A British manager ticks 4. That means that he does not work efficiently in a team made up only of British nationals.

On the right side the same British manager ticks 2. That means he does work very efficiently in a team with other nationalities. This team could for instance consist of 3 French, 2 British and a German manager.

PERSONAL QUESTIONS

I am:

- British
- German
- French
- other nationality: _____

I will make reference to the following other nationality(-ies) when answering the questions below:

- British
- German
- French
- other nationality: _____

I have been working together with colleagues of this nationality for _____ years in _____.

I am currently acting as:

- Manager/Specialist
- Senior Manager
- General Manager/Divisional Director
- Managing Director/Chief Executive

My function (optional): _____

Working abroad: I have been working in _____ for a duration of _____ years.

1. Participation in decision-making

A. Satisfaction with participation

1 2 3 4 5 x	I am satisfied with the way my immediate superior asks for my opinion on matters related to my work.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	I am satisfied with my participation in decisions relating to my work.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	I am satisfied with the way my immediate superior pays attention to my ideas and suggestions.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	I am satisfied with my opportunities to take on responsibility.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	I am satisfied with the way I am consulted by my immediate superior when changes in my work occur.	1 2 3 4 5 x

B. Effects of participation

Because of more participation...

1 2 3 4 5 x	I know better what is going on in the company	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	I have more job satisfaction	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	I accept decisions more easily	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	I have more influence on day-to-day matters	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	worker's interests are better looked after	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	more tension occurs	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	too much time is wasted	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	in general the quality of decisions is better	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	people are getting more say in company/departmental policy making	1 2 3 4 5 x

1..yes,I definitely agree 2..yes,I tend to agree 3..I am undecided 4..no,I tend to disagree 5..no,I definitely disagree x..not applicable

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1 2 3 4 5 x	there is a better atmosphere in the department	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	people's abilities and experiences are better utilised	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	people have gained greater independence and responsibility	1 2 3 4 5 x

C. Decision-making

I am satisfied when decisions are made by...

1 2 3 4 5 x	the person with the greater authority and power	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the person whose job description carries the responsibility	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the person with most knowledge and expertise about the problem	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the person most personally involved and affected by the outcome	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the person with the "right" nationality	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the people who have taken them in the past	1 2 3 4 5 x

2. Co-operation

A. Teamwork

Teamwork occurs when...

1 2 3 4 5 x	it is required by higher authority	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	people believe they can use each other for personal advantage	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	co-ordination and exchange are specified by the formal system	1 2 3 4 5 x

1..yes,I definitely agree 2..yes,I tend to agree 3..I am undecided 4..no,I tend to disagree 5..no,I definitely disagree x..not applicable

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1 2 3 4 5 x	people's joint contribution is needed to make progress in the task	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the collaboration is personally satisfying, stimulating or challenging	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Teamwork is practised seldom.	1 2 3 4 5 x

B. Teamwork assessment

1 2 3 4 5 x	Interpersonal relations in my team/task force is friendly and co-operative.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	There is little diversity of opinion in my team.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	The diversity that exists is relatively easy to manage.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	The team would be more effective in total absence of diversity.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Diversity in my team is more frequently ignored than managed.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	The members of task forces are selected for task-related abilities.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	My group makes effective use of resources (material+human).	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	The members of my group have about equal power.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	There is national dominance within my team.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	My group can orientate itself along clear overall goals.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	My group usually gets external feedback.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	The members of my group encourage one another's best efforts, reinforcing successful behaviour.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	The members work effectively as a team.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	The members maintain adequate standards of performance.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	The members do not feel constrained by rules and regulations in accomplishing their tasks.	1 2 3 4 5 x

1..yes,I definitely agree 2..yes,I tend to agree 3..I am undecided 4..no,I tend to disagree 5..no,I definitely disagree x..not applicable

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3. Mutual exchange of information

1 2 3 4 5 x	Openness is practised very successfully.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	I am satisfied with the present state of organizational communication.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Communication between myself and subordinates is adequate.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Communication between myself and peers is adequate.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Communication between myself and superiors is adequate.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	There is enough written communication in Siemens.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	There is enough oral communication in Siemens.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	English as the main company language would improve overall communication.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	There is too much misperception of facts.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	There is too much misinterpretation ! Please specify of what (e.g.technical reports in foreign languages).	1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x	There is a lot of misjudgment ! Please specify of what (e.g. the market, customer demand).	1 2 3 4 5 x

4. Satisfaction in the company

I am satisfied with...

1 2 3 4 5 x	the challenge my work poses and the personal sense of accomplishment I get from it	1 2 3 4 5 x
-------------	--	-------------

1..yes,I definitely agree 2..yes,I tend to agree 3..I am undecided 4..no,I tend to disagree 5..no,I definitely disagree x..not applicable

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1 2 3 4 5 x	the extent to which people I work with mutually co-operate	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the training possibilities I get for my tasks	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the recognition I get when doing a good job	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	my physical working conditions (work space etc.)	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the freedom I have to adopt my own approach to the job	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the working relationships with subordinates	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the working relationships with peers	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the working relationships with superiors	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the possibility for self-development within my job	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the organizational objectives and targets I get	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the extent to which fair distribution (equality of chances) is exercised	1 2 3 4 5 x

5. Skill utilization

My job gives me the opportunity to use the following:

1 2 3 4 5 x	initiative	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	verbal ability	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	practical work experience	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	capacity to develop new ideas	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	co-operativeness	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	ability to organise my job	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	ability to work on my own	1 2 3 4 5 x

1..yes,I definitely agree 2..yes,I tend to agree 3..I am undecided 4..no,I tend to disagree 5..no,I definitely disagree x..not applicable

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1	2	3	4	5	x	being decisive	1	2	3	4	5	x
1	2	3	4	5	x	intelligence	1	2	3	4	5	x
1	2	3	4	5	x	adaptability/flexibility	1	2	3	4	5	x
1	2	3	4	5	x	showing others how to do a job	1	2	3	4	5	x
1	2	3	4	5	x	being accurate in the work	1	2	3	4	5	x
1	2	3	4	5	x	capacity to look ahead	1	2	3	4	5	x
1	2	3	4	5	x	capacity to solve problems at work	1	2	3	4	5	x
1	2	3	4	5	x	feeling of responsibility	1	2	3	4	5	x
1	2	3	4	5	x	understanding of people	1	2	3	4	5	x

6. Conflicts

Conflicts...

1	2	3	4	5	x	often come up with people outside Siemens (customers/suppliers)	1	2	3	4	5	x
1	2	3	4	5	x	are more frequently found within the organization	1	2	3	4	5	x
1	2	3	4	5	x	often cause disturbances	1	2	3	4	5	x
1	2	3	4	5	x	are mainly of operational focus (how operations should be/are performed)	1	2	3	4	5	x
1	2	3	4	5	x	arise mainly from differences between individual and departmental interests	1	2	3	4	5	x
1	2	3	4	5	x	occur mainly because of differences in understanding due to personality factors	1	2	3	4	5	x

1..yes,I definitely agree 2..yes,I tend to agree 3..I am undecided 4..no,I tend to disagree 5..no,I definitely disagree x..not applicable

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1 2 3 4 5 x	occur mainly because of lack of team-spirit and sense of co-operation	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	occur mainly because of people's different values (value systems/value patterns)	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	are controlled by the intervention of higher authority	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	are suppressed by reference to rules, procedures and definitions of responsibility	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	are resolved through full discussion of the merits of the work issues involved	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	can often not be resolved because of time pressure	1 2 3 4 5 x

7. True international convictions

The organization can cope with the complexity caused by being confronted with different nationalities. 1 2 3 4 5 x

Why is this so? _____

There is enough cross-cultural communication, exchange and learning to blend together the best from everywhere. 1 2 3 4 5 x

The employees are able to avoid stereotyping in respect to nationality. 1 2 3 4 5 x

Why is this so ? _____

1..yes,I definitely agree 2..yes,I tend to agree 3..I am undecided 4..no,I tend to disagree 5..no,I definitely disagree x..not applicable

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The strong corporate identity compensates for centrifugal forces caused by different cultural attitudes. 1 2 3 4 5 x

Is this practically the most successful way of dealing with many nationalities ? _____

Siemens-LG's, associated companies and HQ are able to pursue different market behaviour in different countries. 1 2 3 4 5 x

Human resource practices that cope with the different attitudes to work in different countries are being developed. 1 2 3 4 5 x

There is a national dominance from the HQ-country. 1 2 3 4 5 x

I find complete absence of German company practices desirable for a multinational in the electronics industry. 1 2 3 4 5 x

Siemens' "Management-by-cooperation" is as successful in international as in national settings. 1 2 3 4 5 x

The nationalities listed below are particularly suited for (e.g. Marketing):

British: _____

Germans: _____

French: _____

(other) _____ :

In filling the following functions in the case of transfer abroad special attention should be given to 1.) professional expertise or 2.) personality factors (please allocate the numbers).

Research & Development: _____ Controlling: _____

Marketing: _____ Project Management: _____

Production: _____ (other) _____ :

8. STANDARDIZATION

There is not adequate standardization regarding...

1 2 3 4 5 x	the technical specifications and quality of the products	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	the product design	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	work processes (content of work, procedures to be followed)	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	corporate culture	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	operational tasks	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	corporate goals	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	corporate identity	1 2 3 4 5 x

1..yes,I definitely agree 2..yes,I tend to agree 3..I am undecided 4..no,I tend to disagree 5..no,I definitely disagree x..not applicable

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**We are very, very grateful for your co-operation,
especially because we know that it took a long time to answer
these questions and we wish you all the best for your job !**

Do you have any more comments on this questionnaire or the issues involved ? _____

A.III.1. QUESTIONNAIRE IN GERMAN

An beiden Seiten der Fragen befinden sich jeweils Skalen von 1 bis 5 (sowie x). Diese sollen Ihnen Ihre Antwort erleichtern und bringen folgendes zum Ausdruck:

- 1.....ich stimme definitiv zu
- 2.....ich tendiere dazu, ja zu antworten
- 3.....ich weiß nicht
- 4.....ich tendiere dazu, nein zu sagen
- 5.....ich stimme definitiv nicht zu
- x.....Frage trifft nicht zu

Diese Skalen sind links und rechts angebracht.

NATIONAL

INTERNATIONAL

Die linke Seite bezieht sich auf die Situation, wenn Sie mit Kollegen/Kolleginnen eigener Nationalität zusammenarbeiten.

Wenn es z.B. um Teamwork geht, und Sie deutsche Nationalität besitzen, bezieht sich die linke Antwortspalte auf ein Team aus deutschen Managern, ganz gleich, wo dieses Team stationiert ist.

Wichtig ist nur, daß Leute einer Nationalität zusammenwirken.

Die rechte Seite bezieht sich auf die Situation, wenn Sie auch mit Kollegen/Kolleginnen anderer Nationalität zusammenarbeiten.

Wenn nach Teamwork gefragt ist und Sie deutscher Nationalität sind, antworten sie bezüglich eines internationalen Teams bitte auf der rechten Seite.

Dieses Team kann beispielsweise aus einigen Deutschen, Franzosen und Briten bestehen, ganz gleich wo es arbeitet.

Wichtig ist, daß Sie mit Leuten anderer Nationalität zusammenwirken, ob es sich nun um Untergebene, Gleichrangige oder Vorgesetzte handelt.

1 2 3 **X** 5 x

Mein Team ist das effizienteste der Firma.

1 **X** 3 4 5 x

Ein deutscher Manager kreuzt die 4 an. Das bedeutet, daß sein Team aus Deutschen nicht sehr effizient arbeitet.

Auf der rechten Seite kreuzt ein deutscher Manager die 2 an. Damit macht er deutlich, daß sein trans-/internationales Team aus vielleicht einem Deutschen und einem Franzosen tendenziell das effizienteste des Unternehmens ist.

PERSÖNLICHE FRAGEN

Ich bin: Deutscher
 Brite
 Franzose
 anderer Nationalität: _____

Ich beziehe meine Antworten auf die folgende(n) weitere(n) Nationalität(en):

 Deutsche
 Briten
 Franzosen
 andere Nationalitäten: _____

Seit ___ Jahren arbeite ich mit Kollegen dieser Nationalität in _____ zusammen.

Zur Zeit bin tätig als:

 Gruppenleiter
 Hauptgruppenleiter
 Abteilungsleiter
 Hauptabteilungsleiter
 Bereichsvorstand/LG Leitung

Meine Funktion/Abteilung (optional): _____

Auslandseinsatz(-sätze): Ich war für ___ Jahr(e) in _____

1. An Entscheidungen beteiligen

A. Zufriedenheit bei der Mitwirkung

1 2 3 4 5 x	Ich bin zufrieden mit der Art und Weise wie mich mein Vorgesetzter konsultiert.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Ich bin mit meiner Mitwirkung an der Entscheidungsfindung innerhalb meines Arbeitsgebietes zufrieden.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Ich bin damit zufrieden wie mein Vorgesetzter meinen Vorschlägen und Ideen Beachtung schenkt.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Ich bin mit meinen Möglichkeiten, Verantwortung zu übernehmen, zufrieden.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Ich bin damit zufrieden wie mich mein Vorgesetzter von Veränderungen in meinem Arbeitsgebiet unterrichtet.	1 2 3 4 5 x

B. Mitwirkung

Mehr Mitwirkung bewirkt, daß...

1 2 3 4 5 x	ich besser weiß, was im Unternehmen geschieht	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	mich meine Arbeit zufriedener macht	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	ich Entscheidungen eher akzeptiere	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	ich größeren Einfluß auf das Tagesgeschäft habe	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	die Interessen der Belegschaft besser gewahrt werden	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	mehr Spannung entsteht	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	zu viel Zeit verloren geht	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	sich die Qualität der Entscheidungen verbessert	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	die Mitarbeiter größeren Einfluß auf das Vorgehen der Firma/Abteilung haben	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	sich die Stimmung in der Abteilung verbessert	1 2 3 4 5 x

1..ich stimme definitiv zu 2..ich tendiere dazu, ja zu antw. 3..ich weiß nicht 4..ich tendiere dazu, nein zu antw. 5..ich stimme definitiv nicht zu x..Frage trifft nicht zu

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1 2 3 4 5 x Erfahrung und Fähigkeiten der Leute besser ausgenutzt werden 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x die Mitarb. mehr Unabhängigkeit und Verantwortung erhalten 1 2 3 4 5 x

C. Fällen von Entscheidungen

Ich bin zufrieden, wenn Entscheidungen gefällt werden von...

1 2 3 4 5 x der Person mit der größeren Machtbefugnis (höhere Hierarchiestufe) 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x der Person, die nach der Tätigkeitsbeschreibung verantwortlich ist 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x der Person mit dem besten Fachwissen im Problemgebiet 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x der Person, die vom Ergebnis am meisten betroffen ist 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x der Person mit der "richtigen" Nationalität 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x den Personen, die auch bisher entschieden haben 1 2 3 4 5 x

2. Zusammenarbeit aktivieren

A. Teamwork

Es wird im Team gearbeitet, wenn...

1 2 3 4 5 x dies von oben gewünscht oder verordnet wird 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x die Mitglieder der Meinung sind, daß sie persönlichen Nutzen daraus ziehen können 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Zusammenarbeit und gegenseitiger Austausch von der Firma formell vorgeschrieben ist (Organisationsaufbau) 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x die Mitwirkung verschiedener Personen notwendig ist, um in der Sache weiter zu kommen 1 2 3 4 5 x

1..ich stimme definitiv zu 2..ich tendiere dazu, ja zu antw. 3..ich weiß nicht 4..ich tendiere dazu, nein zu antw. 5..ich stimme definitiv nicht zu x..Frage trifft nicht zu

NATIONAL

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1 2 3 4 5 x die Zusammenarbeit für den einzelnen zufriedenstellend, anspornend oder herausfordernd ist. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Im Team wird nur selten gearbeitet. 1 2 3 4 5 x

B. Teamwork-Bewertung

1 2 3 4 5 x Die Beziehungen der Mitglieder meines(r) Teams/task force sind freundlich und durch Hilfsbereitschaft gekennzeichnet. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Die Ansichten der Mitglieder gehen kaum auseinander. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Die bestehende Verschiedenheit ist einfach zu managen. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Das Team würde effektiver arbeiten, wenn auseinandergehenden Meinungen nicht bestehen würden. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Divergierende Ansichten werden in meinem Team eher ignoriert als gehandhabt. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Mitglieder von task forces werden aufgabenbezogen selektiert. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Meine Gruppe nutzt Ressourcen (materiell + an Arbeitskräften) effektiv. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Die Mitglieder meiner Gruppe haben ungefähr die gleiche Macht und den gleichen Einfluß. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Meine Gruppe wird von einer Nationalität dominiert. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Meine Gruppe kann sich anhand klarer Ziele ausrichten. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Meine Gruppe bekommt normalerweise feedback von außen. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Die Mitglieder meiner Gruppe motivieren sich gegenseitig und fördern so den Erfolg. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Die Mitglieder arbeiten als Gruppe effektiv. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Die Mitglieder halten jeweils einen angemessenen Leistungsstandard. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1..ich stimme definitiv zu 2..ich tendiere dazu,ja zu aniw. 3..ich weiß nicht 4..ich tendiere dazu,nein zu aniw. 5..ich stimme definitiv nicht zu x..Frage trifft nicht zu

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1 2 3 4 5 x Die Mitglieder fühlen sich nicht durch Vorschriften eingeschränkt wenn sie ihren Aufgaben nachgehen. 1 2 3 4 5 x

3. Gegenseitig informieren

1 2 3 4 5 x Aufgeschlossenheit wird erfolgreich praktiziert. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Ich bin mit der jetzigen Kommunikation im Unternehmen zufrieden. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Die Kommunikation zwischen mir und meinen Untergeordneten ist angemessen. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Die Kommunikation zwischen mir und Gleichrangigen ist angemessen. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Die Kommunikation zwischen mir und meinen Vorgesetzten ist angemessen. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Es gibt genug schriftliche Kommunikation bei Siemens. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Es gibt genug mündliche Kommunikation bei Siemens. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Einführung von Englisch als Hauptsprache im Unternehmen würde die Kommunikation allgemein verbessern. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Es gibt zu viel an falsch wahrgenommenen Fakten. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Es gibt viele Fehlinterpretationen. Bitte geben Sie an, was falsch interpretiert wird (z.B. techn. Daten in ausländischen Sprachen). 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Vieles wird falsch eingeschätzt. Bitte geben Sie an, was falsch eingeschätzt wird (z.B. Markt, Nachfrage). 1 2 3 4 5 x

1..ich stimme definitiv zu 2..ich tendiere dazu, ja zu antw. 3..ich weiß nicht 4..ich tendiere dazu, nein zu antw. 5..ich stimme definitiv nicht zu x..Frage trifft nicht zu

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4. Zufriedenheit im Unternehmen

Ich bin zufrieden mit...

1 2 3 4 5 x	der mit meiner Arbeit verbundenen Herausforderung und Erfüllung	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	dem Ausmaß gegenseitiger Kooperation zwischen Arbeitskollegen/-innen und mir	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	den Fortbildungsmöglichkeiten innerhalb meines Tätigkeitsgebietes	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	der mir gegebenen Anerkennung für gut erledigte Arbeit	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	meinen physischen Arbeitsbedingungen (Arbeitsraum, etc.)	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	der Freiheit, die Arbeit auf eigene Art und Weise zu erledigen	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	den Arbeitsbeziehungen zu Untergebenen	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	den Arbeitsbeziehungen zu Gleichrangigen	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	den Arbeitsbeziehungen zu Vorgesetzten	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	den Möglichkeiten zur Selbstentfaltung innerhalb der Arbeit	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	den Firmenzielen, die ich zu verfolgen habe	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	dem bestehenden Ausmaß an Gleichheit (gleiche Chancen)	1 2 3 4 5 x

1..ich stimme definitiv zu 2..ich tendiere dazu, ja zu antw. 3..ich weiß nicht 4..ich tendiere dazu, nein zu antw. 5..ich stimme definitiv nicht zu x..Frage trifft nicht zu

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5. Maßarbeit bei der Aufgabenstellung

Meine Arbeit ermöglicht mir, folgendes einzubringen...

1 2 3 4 5 x	Initiative	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Ausdrucksvermögen	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	praktische Arbeitserfahrung	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Entwicklung neuer Ideen	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Zusammenarbeit mit anderen	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	meine Arbeit selbst zu organisieren	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	für mich alleine zu arbeiten	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Entscheidungen zu treffen	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Intelligenz	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Anpassungsfähigkeit/Flexibilität	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	anderen zu zeigen, wie die Arbeit erledigt werden soll	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	sorgfältig zu arbeiten	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	in die Gegenwart zu blicken	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	sich bei der Arbeit ergebende Probleme zu lösen	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Verantwortung zu empfinden	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	für andere Menschen Verständnis zu zeigen	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Ich finde, daß meine Fähigkeiten zu wenig ausgenutzt werden.	1 2 3 4 5 x

1..ich stimme definitiv zu 2..ich tendiere dazu, ja zu antw. 3..ich weiß nicht 4..ich tendiere dazu, nein zu antw. 5..ich stimme definitiv nicht zu x..Frage trifft nicht zu

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6. Konflikte

Konflikte...

1 2 3 4 5 x	entstehen häufig außerhalb von Siemens (mit Kunden/ Zulieferern)	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	entstehen häufiger innerhalb des Unternehmens	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	verursachen oft Störungen	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	entstehen aus dem Unterschied dazwischen, wie man handeln sollte und wie man sich tatsächlich verhält	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	entstehen vornehmlich aus der Verschiedenheit zwischen individuellen Interessen und Arbeitsinteressen	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	entstehen vornehmlich aus persönlichkeitsbezogenen Unterschieden	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	entstehen vornehmlich aus dem Fehlen von Teamgeist und Kooperation	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	resultieren in erster Linie aus unterschiedlichen Wertvor- stellungen der Mitarbeiter	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	werden durch Einschreiten von oben unter Kontrolle gehalten	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	werden durch Hinweise auf Regeln und Verantwortungsbereiche unterdrückt	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	werden dadurch gelöst, daß dem Problem auf den Grund gegangen wird	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	können aus Zeitdruck oft nicht gelöst werden	1 2 3 4 5 x

1..ich stimme definitiv zu 2..ich tendiere dazu, ja zu antw. 3..ich weiß nicht 4..ich tendiere dazu, nein zu antw. 5..ich stimme definitiv nicht zu x..Frage trifft nicht zu

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7. Internationalität

Das Unternehmen wird fertig mit der Vielfalt und Komplexität, die Mitarbeiter vieler Nationalitäten mit sich bringen.

1 2 3 4 5 x

Warum ?

Es gibt ausreichend inter-kulturelle Kommunikation, Austausch und Wissen um die besten Ideen, Leute und Lösungen zusammenzustellen - ganz gleich woher sie kommen.

1 2 3 4 5 x

Die Mitarbeiter können Nationalitätenklischees und -stereotypen vermeiden.

1 2 3 4 5 x

Warum ?

Die starke "corporate identity" kompensiert die durch die verschiedenen Nationalitäten verursachten Zentrifugalkräfte.

1 2 3 4 5 x

Ist dies praktisch betrachtet die beste Art, mit mehreren Nationalitäten zu verfahren ?

Siemens-LG's, andere assoziierte Unternehmen sowie das Stammhaus schaffen es jeweils, verschiedene Märkte unterschiedlich zu bearbeiten.

1 2 3 4 5 x

Es werden erfolgreiche (human resource) Verfahren entwickelt, die den je nach Land unterschiedlichen Einstellungen zur Arbeit Rechnung tragen.

1 2 3 4 5 x

Das Land in dem sich das Stammhaus befindet dominiert.

1 2 3 4 5 x

Typisch "deutsche" Unternehmensgewohnheiten sind in einem multinationalen Elektronikunternehmen nicht wünschenswert.

1 2 3 4 5 x

Siemens' "Management-by-Cooperation" ist national wie international gleich 1 2 3 4 5 x erfolgreich.

Die folgenden Nationalitäten eignen sich besonders für welche Abteilungen (z.B. Marketing, etc.)?

Deutsche: _____

Briten: _____

Franzosen: _____

(andere) _____ :

Bei Besetzung folgender Funktionen sollte man bei der Entsendung von Managern eher auf 1.) das Fachwissen bzw. 2.) die Persönlichkeit achten (Bitte tragen Sie diese beiden Zahlen unten ein).

Forschung & Entwicklung: _____

Projekt Management: _____

Marketing: _____

Kaufm. Aufgaben: _____

Fertigung: _____

(andere) _____ :

8. Standardisierung

Nicht angemessen ist der Grad der Standardisierung bezüglich...

1 2 3 4 5 x technischer Ausstattung und Qualität der Produkte 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Produktdesign 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x des Arbeitsverfahrens (Inhalt der Arbeit) 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x der Unternehmenskultur 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x der Aufgaben des Unternehmens 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x der Ziele des Unternehmens 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x der corporate identity 1 2 3 4 5 x

1..ich stimme definitiv zu 2..ich tendiere dazu, ja zu antw. 3..ich weiß nicht 4..ich tendiere dazu, nein zu antw. 5..ich stimme definitiv nicht zu x..Frage trifft nicht zu

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**WIR SIND IHNEN FÜR IHRE ZUSAMMENARBEIT SEHR, SEHR DANKBAR,
INSBESONDERE WEIL WIR WISSEN, DASS DAS AUSFÜLLEN LANGE
GEDAUERT HAT. WIR WÜNSCHEN IHNEN ALLES GUTE BEI IHRER
ARBEIT.**

Möchten Sie diesem Fragebogen oder den darin behandelten Themen noch irgend etwas hinzufügen ?

A.III.1. QUESTIONNAIRE IN FRENCH

Vous verrez l'échelle numérotée de 1 à 5 (et x) à côté de presque chaque question. Elle a la signification suivante:

- 1.....oui, je suis entièrement d'accord
- 2.....oui, je suis plutôt d'accord
- 3.....je suis indécis
- 4.....non, je ne suis pas vraiment d'accord
- 5.....non, je ne suis pas du tout d'accord
- 6.....pas applicable

Vous trouverez aussi presque toujours deux échelles numérotées de chaque côté des questions, une à gauche et une à droite.

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Pour le côté gauche votre réponse se réfère à la situation où vous travaillez avec des personnes de vos propre nationalité.

Ainsi, concernant la question du travail de groupe, le côté gauche se réfère à un administrateur français travaillant dans un groupe français (sa propre nationalité) ne tenant pas compte d'où est effectué le travail. Ce qui est important, c'est que les personnes d'une nationalité identique agissent ensemble.

Le côté droit se réfère à la situation où des personnes travaillent ensemble avec des collègues de différentes nationalités.

Quand on demande à un Français ce qu'est une force de travail, le côté droit se réfère à une force de travail consistant d'un mélange de Français, d'Allemands, d'Anglais et/ou d'autres nationalités tout ensemble. Ce qui est important c'est que les personnes agissent dans une force de travail multinational ou transnational.

1 2 3 5 x

Mon groupe est le plus efficace de la compagnie.

1 3 4 5 x

Un Français coche 4. Cela signifie qu'il ne travaille pas efficacement avec un groupe uniquement constitué de Français.

Du côté droit, le même administrateur français coche 2. Cela signifie qu'il travaille très efficacement dans un groupe constitué d'autres nationalités. Ainsi ce groupe peut par exemple être constitué de 2 Anglais, de 3 Allemands et d'un autre administrateur français.

QUESTIONS PERSONNELLES:

Je suis: français
 allemand
 britannique
 autre nationalité: _____

Je ferai référence aux nationalités suivantes en répondant aux questions ci-dessous:

[] française
[] allemande
[] britannique
[] autre nationalité: _____

J'ai travaillé avec des collègues de cette nationalité pendant ____ années en _____.

Je suis:

- [] Chef de Groupe
- [] Chef de Service
- [] Chef de Département
- [] Directeur de Division
- [] Directeur Général

Ma fonction (à option): _____

Travail à l'étranger: j'ai travaillé en _____ pendant _____ années.

1. DELEGATION DE RESPONSABILITE

A. Satisfaction avec participation

1 2 3 4 5 x	Je suis satisfait de la manière dont mes supérieurs immédiats demandent mon opinion sur des matières liées à mon travail.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Je suis satisfait par ma participation dans des décisions liées à mon travail.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Je suis satisfait de la manière dont mes supérieurs immédiats sont attentifs à mes idées et à mes suggestions.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Je suis satisfait de ma chance d'avoir des responsabilités.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Je suis satisfait de la manière dont mes supérieurs immédiats me consultent quand il y a des changements dans mon travail.	1 2 3 4 5 x

B. Effets de participation

Par plus de participation...

1 2 3 4 5 x	je connais mieux ce qui passe dans l'entreprise	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	j'ai plus de satisfaction professionnelle	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	j'accepte les décisions plus facilement	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	j'ai plus d'influence dans les affaires de tous les jours	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	les intérêts de l'employé sont mieux considérés	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	il y a trop de tension	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	il y a trop de temps perdu	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	la qualité des décisions en général est meilleure	1 2 3 4 5 x

1...entièrement d'accord 2...plutôt d'accord 3...indécis 4...pas vraiment d'accord 5...pas du tout d'accord x...pas applicable

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1 2 3 4 5 x	les personnes ont plus leur mot à dire dans l'exercice de l'entreprise/du département	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	il y a une meilleure atmosphère dans le département	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	les capacités et les expériences des personnes sont mieux utilisées	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	les personnes ont gagné plus d'indépendance et de responsabilité	1 2 3 4 5 x

C. Processus de décision

Je suis satisfait quand les décisions sont prises par...

1 2 3 4 5 x	la personne qui a le plus d'autorité et de pouvoir	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	la personne responsable en titre	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	la personne qui a le plus de compétence et de connaissance du problème	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	la personne le plus personnellement impliquée et affectée par le résultat	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	la personne avec la "juste" nationalité	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	les personnes qui les ont prises dans le passé	1 2 3 4 5 x

2. COOPERATION

A. Travail d'équipe

Le travail d'équipe se produit quand...

1 2 3 4 5 x	il est requis par une plus haute autorité	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	les personnes pensent qu'elles peuvent bénéficier l'une de l'autre pour des avantages personnels	1 2 3 4 5 x

1...entièrement d'accord 2...plutôt d'accord 3...indécis 4...pas vraiment d'accord 5...pas du tout d'accord x...pas applicable

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1 2 3 4 5 x	la coordination et l'échange sont spécifiés par la réglementation en vigueur	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	la contribution des personnes est nécessaire pour faire progresser le travail	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	la collaboration est personnellement satisfaisante, stimulante ou représentatrice d'un défi à relever	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Le travail de groupe est rarement pratiqué.	1 2 3 4 5 x

B. Evaluation du travail d'équipe

1 2 3 4 5 x	Le travail d'équipe et les relations inter-personnelles dans mon groupe de travail/force de travail sont amicales et coopératives.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Il y a peu de diversité d'opinion dans mon groupe.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	La diversité qui existe est relativement facile à maîtriser.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Le groupe de travail serait plus efficace dans l'absence totale de diversité.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	La diversité dans mon groupe est plus fréquemment ignorée que maîtrisée.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Les membres des équipes de travail sont sélectionnés pour des compétences précises.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Mon groupe fait bon usage des ressources (matérielles + humaines).	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Les membres de mon groupe ont à peu près égal pouvoir.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Il y a prédominance nationale dans mon groupe.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Mon groupe peut garder une orientation autour de principes essentiels clairement définis.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Ordinairement mon groupe reçoit un écho extérieur (feedback).	1 2 3 4 5 x

1...entièrement d'accord 2...plutôt d'accord 3...indécis 4...pas vraiment d'accord 5...pas du tout d'accord x...pas applicable

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1 2 3 4 5 x	Les membres de mon groupe encouragent les efforts de l'un et l'autre, renforçant un comportement couronné de succès.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Les membres travaillent efficacement comme groupe de travail.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Les membres du groupe maintiennent un niveau de performance adéquat.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Les membres du groupe ne se sentent pas contraints par des statuts et des règlements dans l'accomplissement de leur travaux.	1 2 3 4 5 x

3. COMMUNICATION

1 2 3 4 5 x	L'ouverture est pratiquée avec beaucoup de succès.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Je suis satisfait de l'état présent de communication organisationnelle.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	La communication entre des subordonnés et moi-même est adéquate.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	La communication entre des collaborateurs et moi-même est adéquate.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	La communication entre des supérieurs et moi-même est adéquate.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Il y a assez de communication écrite chez Siemens.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Il y a assez de communication orale chez Siemens.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	L'anglais comme langue principale dans l'entreprise améliorerait l'ensemble de la communication.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Il y a trop de fausse perception des faits.	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	Il y a trop de fausse interprétation. Spécifiez en quoi s'il-vous-plaît (par ex. rapports techniques en langues étrangères).	1 2 3 4 5 x

1...entièrement d'accord 2...plutôt d'accord 3...indécis 4...pas vraiment d'accord 5...pas du tout d'accord x...pas applicable

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1 2 3 4 5 x Il a beaucoup de jugement éronné. Spécifiez en quoi s'il-vous-plaît (ex. marché, demande du consommateur). 1 2 3 4 5 x

4. SATISFACTION DANS L'ENTREPRISE

Je suis satisfait de...

1 2 3 4 5 x du défi que représente mon travail et du sentiment d'accomplissement que j'en retire 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x de l'étendue de la coopération mutuelle des personnes avec lesquelles je travaille 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x des possibilités de formation que je retire de mes travaux 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x de la reconnaissance reçue quand je fais un bon travail 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x des conditions physiques de travail (l'espace de travail etc.) 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x de la liberté d'adopter ma propre approche du travail 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x des relations de travail avec des subordonnés 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x des relations de travail avec des collaborateurs 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x des relations de travail avec des supérieurs 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x de la possibilité de développement personnel au sein de mon travail 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x des objectifs organisationnels bien définis que je reçois 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x de la mesure dans laquelle une juste distribution est pratiquée (égalité des chances) 1 2 3 4 5 x

1...entièrement d'accord 2...plutôt d'accord 3...indécis 4...pas vraiment d'accord 5...pas du tout d'accord x...pas applicable

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5. UTILISATION DES COMPETENCES

Mon travail me procure l'occasion d'utiliser les compétences suivantes:

1 2 3 4 5 x initiative 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x habileté verbale 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x expérience pratique de travail 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x capacité de développer de nouvelles idées 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x coopération 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x capacité d'organiser mon travail 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x capacité de travailler seul 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x d'être décisif 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x intelligence 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x adaption/flexibilité 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x montrer aux autres comment faire un travail 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x être précis dans le travail 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x capacité de voir en avant 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x capacité de résoudre des problèmes au travail 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x sentiment de responsabilité 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x comprendre les gens 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x Le plus souvent j'ai l'impression que mes compétences sont sous-utilisées. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1...entièrement d'accord 2...plutôt d'accord 3...indécis 4...pas vraiment d'accord 5...pas du tout d'accord x...pas applicable

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6. CONFLITS

Conflits...

1 2 3 4 5 x	se présentant avec des personnes extérieures à Siemens (consommateurs, fournisseurs)	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	se trouvent plus fréquemment au sein de l'organisation	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	causent souvent des perturbations	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	sont surtout d'une origine opérationnelle (comment les opérations devraient/sont accomplies)	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	se produisent principalement à cause des différences entre les intérêts individuels et départementaux	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	se produisent principalement à cause de différences de compréhension due à la personnalité	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	se produisent principalement à cause d'un manque d'esprit de groupe et de sens de coopération	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	se produisent principalement à cause des différentes valeurs auxquelles les personnes attachent de l'importance	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	sont contrôlés par l'intervention d'une plus haute autorité	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	sont supprimés par la référence aux règlements, procédures et définitions de responsabilité	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	sont résolus par une discussion approfondie sur les mérites du travail en question	1 2 3 4 5 x
1 2 3 4 5 x	souvent ne peuvent être résolus à cause du manque de temps	1 2 3 4 5 x

1...entièrement d'accord 2...plutôt d'accord 3...indécis 4...pas vraiment d'accord 5...pas du tout d'accord x...pas applicable

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7. INTERNATIONALITE

L'organisation peut faire face à la complexité causée par la confrontation de différentes nationalités. 1 2 3 4 5 x

Pourquoi en est-il ainsi ?

Il y a assez de communication interculturelle, d'échange et de savoir pour mettre ensemble le meilleur de chaque origine. 1 2 3 4 5 x

Les employés sont capables d'éviter les clichés concernant la nationalité. 1 2 3 4 5 x

Pourquoi en est-il ainsi ?

La forte identité corporative compense les forces centrifuges causées par les différentes attitudes culturelles. 1 2 3 4 5 x

Est-ce la meilleure manière d'avoir affaire à plusieurs nationalités ?

Siemens-LG's, les compagnies associées et le siège social sont capables de poursuivre différents comportements de marché dans différents pays. 1 2 3 4 5 x

Les pratiques des ressources humaines qui s'occupent des différentes attitudes au travail dans différents pays sont en développement. 1 2 3 4 5 x

Il y a une prédominance nationale du pays du siège social. 1 2 3 4 5 x

Je trouve une complète absence de pratiques de compagnies allemandes désirables pour une multinationale dans l'industrie électronique. 1 2 3 4 5 x

Le "Management-by-cooperation" de Siemens réussit aussi bien aux niveaux internationaux que nationaux. 1 2 3 4 5 x

1...entièrement d'accord 2...plutôt d'accord 3...indécis 4...pas vraiment d'accord 5...pas du tout d'accord x...pas applicable

INTERNATIONAL

Les nationalités mentionnées ci-dessous sont particulièrement indiquées pour (ex. marketing etc.):

Français: _____

Allemands: _____

Britanniques: _____

(autre) _____ :

En remplissant les fonctions suivantes dans le cas d'un transfert à l'étranger, une attention spéciale devrait être donnée à:

1.) expertise professionnelle

2.) facteurs de personnalité.

Indiquez les numéros s'il-vous-plaît !

Recherche et développement: _____ Controlling: _____

Marketing: _____ Project Management: _____

Production: _____ (autre) _____ :

8. STANDARDISATION

Il n'y a pas de standardisation adéquate concernant...

1 2 3 4 5 x les spécifications techniques et la qualité du produit 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x la présentation du produit 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x les processus de travail (contenu du travail, procédures à suivre) 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x culture corporative 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x travaux corporatifs 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x buts corporatifs 1 2 3 4 5 x

1 2 3 4 5 x identité corporative 1 2 3 4 5 x

1...entièrement d'accord 2...plutôt d'accord 3...indécis 4...pas vraiment d'accord 5...pas du tout d'accord x...pas applicable

NATIONAL

INTERNATIONAL

**NOUS SOMMES TRES TRES RECONNAISSANTS DE VOTRE COOPERATION
SPECIALEMENT PARCE QUE NOUS SAVONS QUE VOUS AVEZ PASSE
BEAUCOUP DE TEMPS A REPONDRE A CES QUESTIONS ET
NOUS VOUS SOUHAITONS LE MEILLEUR POUR VOTRE TRAVAIL !**

Avez-vous d'autres commentaires concernant ce questionnaire ou les sujets abordés ?

A.III.2. Further details of the three management samples (as comparisons to Figures III.1 to 12 within Chapter III)

Amount of time spent abroad (considering only those questionnaires that provide information about national and bi-/international teams)

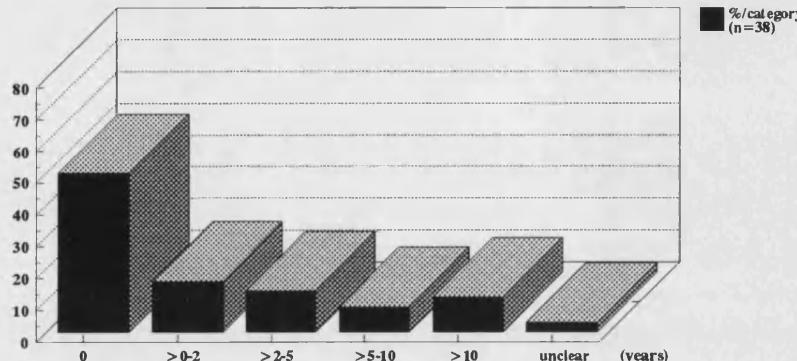


Figure A.III.1: Time spent abroad by managers from the French sample

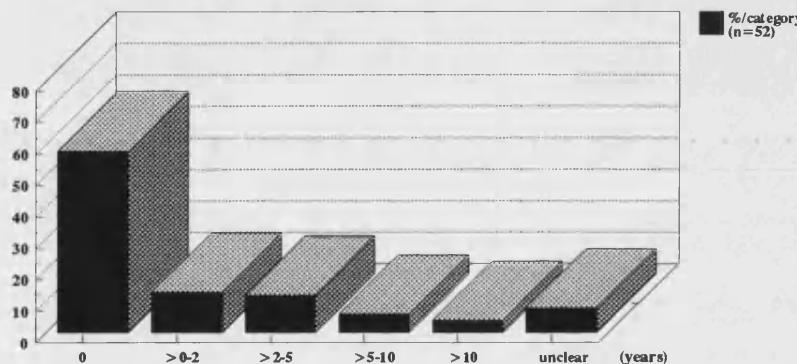


Figure A.III.2: Time spent abroad by managers from the British sample

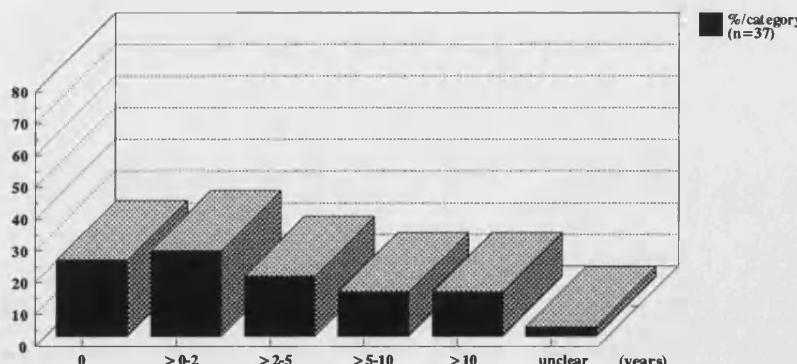


Figure A.III.3: Time spent abroad by managers from the German sample

Extent of experience with managers of another nationality (considering only those questionnaires that provide information about national and bi-/international teams)

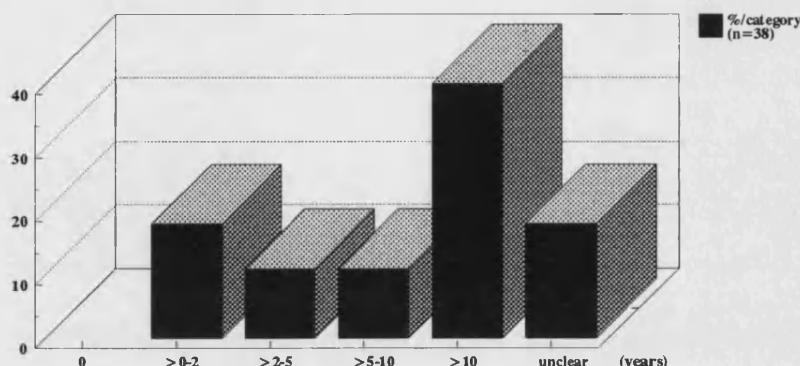


Figure A.III.4: Extent of French managers' experience with German managers

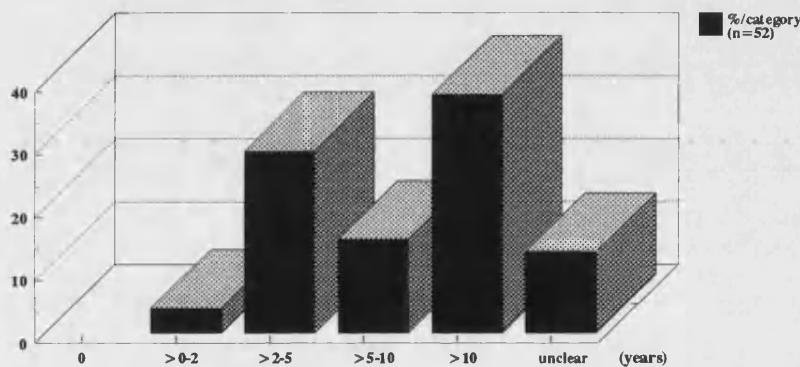


Figure A.III.5: Extent of British managers' experience with German managers

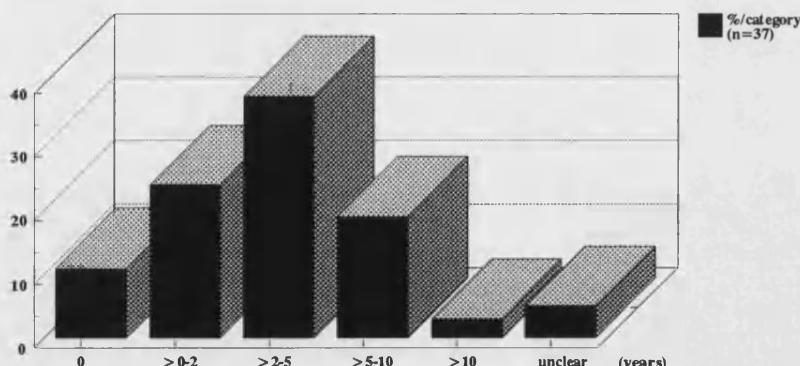


Figure A.III.6: Extent of German managers' experience with either British or French managers

Amount of time spent in target countries (considering only those questionnaires that provide information about national and bi-/international teams)

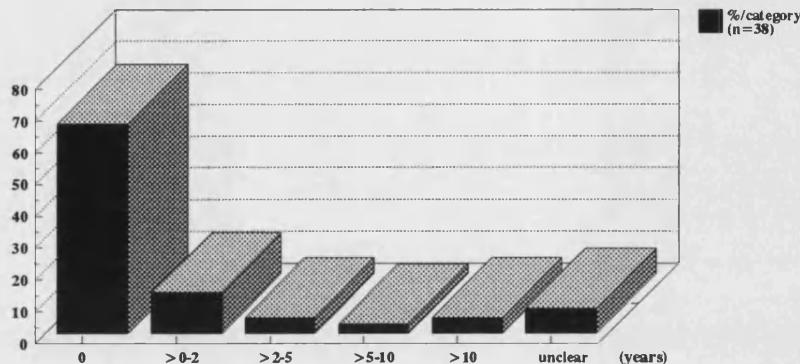


Figure A.III.7: Time French managers have spent in Germany

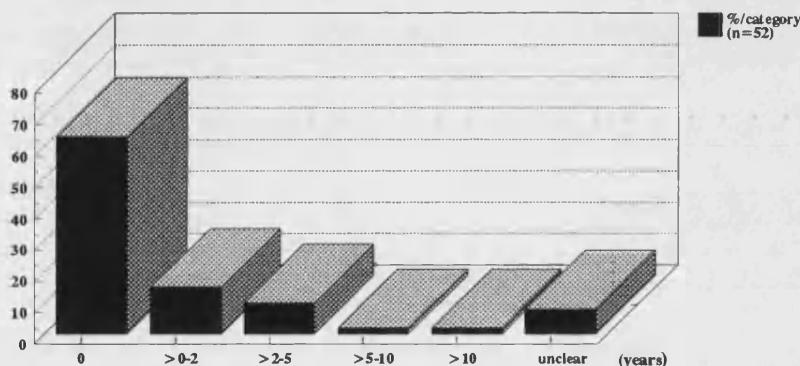


Figure A.III.8: Time British managers have spent in Germany

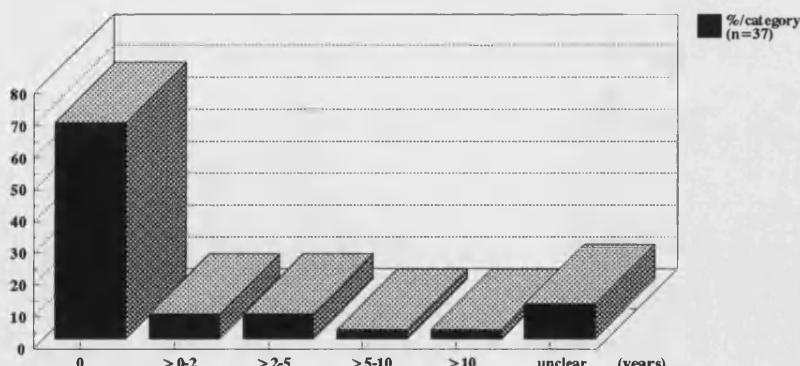


Figure A.III.9: Time German managers have spent in either Britain or France

Distribution of management levels among the three samples (considering only those q. that provide information about national and bi-/international teams)
 (Table III.1 and Figures III.10 to 12 in Chapter III show management levels)

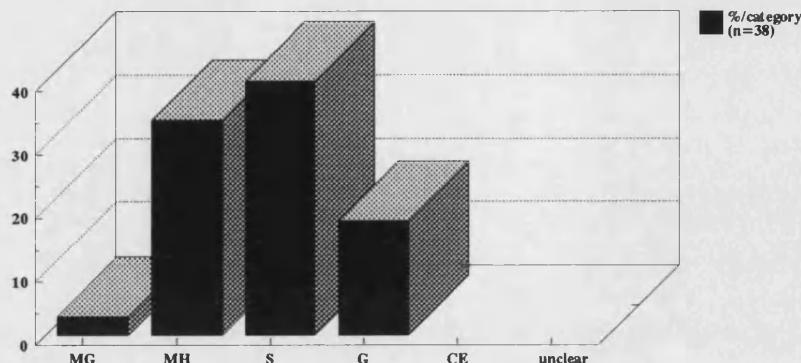


Figure A.III.10: Percentage distribution of management levels within French sample

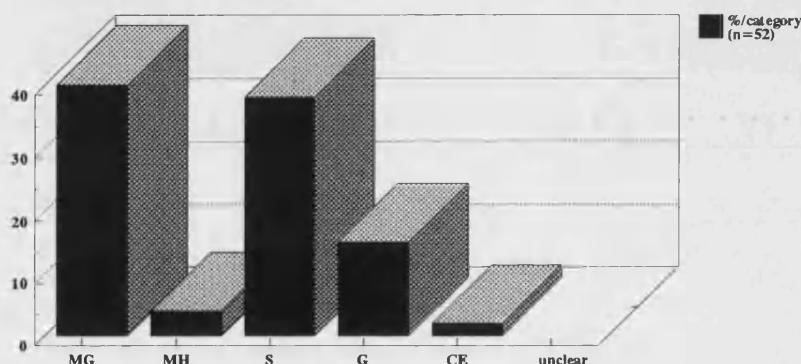


Figure A.III.11: Percentage distribution of management levels within British sample

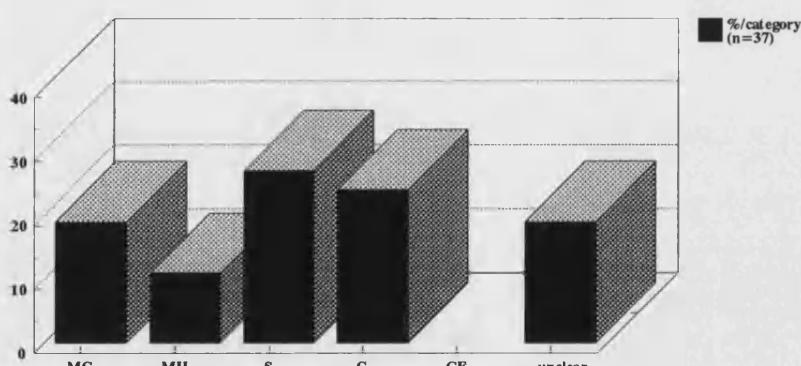


Figure A.III.12: Percentage distribution of management levels within German sample

A.IV. Statistical details of the independent t-test conducted within Chapter IV and of the Mann-Whitney test

The statistical details of (firstly) the t-test and (then) the Mann-Whitney test are listed on the following pages.

Analogous to the previous tables, the differences between French and British managers are specified first, followed by the differences between French and German and those between British and German colleagues.

T-Test

Explanatory note for Tables A.IV.1 to 3:

The first column states the number of cases (questionnaires) that were used. The second (and the third) column show the arithmetic means for both countries (the difference between these means). Standard error, t value and 2-tail probabilities (two-sided-test) are shown in the fourth, fifth and sixth column.

Table A.IV.1: These are the statistical details of the significance test ($\alpha=5\%$) between the French and the British management style (continued to next page).

n.of cases F/B	\bar{X} F/B	$d\bar{X}$	std. err. F/B	t-value	tst	Statement
48/51	1.6/2.3	.67	.13/.16	-3.30	.001	I am satisfied with my opportunities to take on responsibility.
47/52	2.1/2.7	.61	.12/.16	-3.04	.003	Because of more participation people are getting more say in company/departmental policy making.
48/52	2.4/3.0	.52	.20/.14	-2.20	.031	I am satisfied when decisions are made by the person whose job description carries the responsibility.
47/53	2.5/3.3	.81	.17/.15	-3.51	.001	I am satisfied when decisions are made by the person most personally involved and affected by the outcome.
48/52	3.8/3.2	.58	.15/.15	2.72	.008	Teamwork occurs when co-ordination and exchange are specified by the formal system.
47/53	2.9/3.7	.84	.17/.16	-3.69	.000	I am satisfied with the present state of organizational communication.
45/53	2.2/2.7	.43	.11/.14	-2.51	.014	Communication between myself and peers is adequate.
46/51	2.4/2.8	.43	.14/.15	-2.04	.044	Communication between myself and superiors is adequate.
45/53	2.9/3.4	.53	.18/.17	-2.13	.035	There is enough oral communication in 'the company'.

Table A.IV.1: These are the statistical details of the significance test ($\alpha=5\%$) between the French and the British management style (continued from previous page).

n.of cases F/B	\bar{X} F/B	$d\bar{X}$	std. err. F/B	t-value	tst	Statement
43/49	2.9/2.0	.84	.26/.16	2.77	.007	English as the main company language would improve overall communication.
38/44	3.3/2.8	.51	.18/.17	2.08	.041	There is a lot of misjudgment ! (Please specify of what...)
48/53	1.7/2.4	.75	.12/.15	-3.83	.000	I am satisfied with the challenge my work poses and the personal sense of accomplishment I get from it.
47/52	2.0/2.6	.53	.13/.15	-2.75	.007	I am satisfied with the extent to which people I work with mutually co-operate.
47/52	2.5/3.2	.66	.17/.16	-2.87	.005	I am satisfied with the training possibilities I get for my tasks.
46/53	2.4/2.8	.44	.16/.15	-2.04	.044	I am satisfied with the possibilities for self-development within my job.
46/52	2.2/1.8	.37	.13/.11	2.20	.030	My job gives me the opportunity to use co-operativeness.
47/53	2.6/3.4	.76	.15/.12	-3.94	.000	Conflicts occur mainly because of differences in understanding due to personality factors.
48/52	2.7/3.2	.50	.18/.15	-2.13	.036	Conflicts occur mainly because of lack of team-spirit and sense of co-operation.
45/52	3.5/3.0	.55	.18/.16	2.31	.023	Conflicts can often not be resolved because of time pressure.

Table A.IV.2: The statistical details of the significance test ($\alpha=5\%$) between the French and the German management style (continued on next two pages).

n.of cases F/D	\bar{X} F/D	$d\bar{X}$	std. err. F/D	t-value	tst	Statement
48/64	1.6/2.3	.73	.13/.13	-3.90	.000	I am satisfied with my opportunities to take on responsibility.
48/63	1.9/2.3	.42	.12/.14	-2.24	.027	Because of more participation I have more influence on day-to-day matters.
46/61	2.3/2.7	.44	.12/.14	-2.33	.022	Because of more participation worker's interests are better looked after.
47/62	3.7/4.3	.58	.16/.11	-2.96	.004	Because of more participation too much time is wasted.
48/62	2.4/1.9	.43	.14/.11	2.43	.017	Because of more participation people have gained greater independence and responsibility.
48/64	1.8/2.5	.68	.11/.15	-3.58	.001	I am satisfied when decisions are made by the person with most knowledge and expertise about the problem.
47/62	2.5/3.3	.80	.17/.16	-3.34	.001	I am satisfied when decisions are made by the person most personally involved and affected by the outcome.
48/62	3.8/3.2	.51	.15/.15	2.30	.023	Teamwork occurs when co-ordination and exchange are specified by the formal system.
48/61	1.8/2.6	.82	.13/.14	-4.21	.000	Teamwork occurs when the collaboration is personally satisfying, stimulating or challenging.

Table A.IV.2: The statistical details of the significance test (alpha=0.05) between the French and the German management style (continued from previous and on next page).

n.of cases F/D	\bar{X} F/D	$d\bar{X}$	std. err. F/D	t-value	tst	Statement
48/62	4.4/3.9	.48	.12/.16	2.40	.018	The team would be more effective in total absence of diversity.
47/50	2.3/1.9	.38	.14/.08	2.38	.020	Communication between myself and subordinates is adequate.
43/61	2.9/3.6	.76	.26/.16	-2.52	.014	English as the main company language would improve overall communication.
48/61	1.7/2.2	.49	.12/.12	-2.83	.006	I am satisfied with the challenge my work poses and the personal sense of accomplishment I get from it.
47/61	2.5/2.0	.49	.17/.13	2.35	.021	I am satisfied with the training possibilities I get for my tasks.
47/63	2.9/2.5	.42	.16/.14	2.02	.046	I am satisfied with the recognition I get when doing a good job.
47/62	2.8/2.3	.51	.20/.15	2.09	.039	I am satisfied with my physical working conditions (work space etc.).
46/61	3.0/2.3	.68	.16/.12	3.45	.001	I am satisfied with the organizational objectives and targets I get.
46/62	2.2/1.6	.59	.13/.08	3.77	.000	My job gives me the opportunity to use co-operativeness.
44/60	2.4/3.0	.65	.19/.17	-2.51	.014	My job gives me the opportunity to use the ability to work on my own.

Table A.IV.2: The statistical details of the significance test ($\alpha=5\%$) between the French and the German management style (continued from previous two pages).

n.of cases F/D	\bar{X} F/D	$d\bar{X}$	std. err. F/D	t-value	tst	Statement
45/59	2.2/2.8	.54	.17/.14	-2.51	.014	My job gives me the opportunity to showing others how to do a job.
46/62	2.5/3.1	.60	.17/.16	-2.57	.011	Conflicts arise mainly from differences between individual and departmental interests.
46/62	2.7/3.3	.63	.15/.13	-3.17	.002	Conflicts occur mainly because of people's different values (value systems/value patterns).
45/63	3.5/2.8	.73	.18/.14	3.32	.001	Conflicts can often not be resolved because of time pressure.
40/51	2.9/3.4	.50	.17/.15	-2.24	.028	There is not adequate standardization regarding corporate culture.
39/53	3.0/3.5	.50	.15/.14	-2.35	.021	There is not adequate standardization regarding operational tasks.

Table A.IV.3: The statistical details of the significance test ($\alpha=5\%$) between the British and the German management style (continued on next three pages).

n.of cases B/D	\bar{X} B/D	$d\bar{X}$	std. err. B/D	t-value	tst	Statement
52/65	2.5/2.1	.48	.16/.11	2.52	.013	I am satisfied with my participation in decisions relating to my work.
52/62	3.8/4.3	.41	.15/.11	-2.31	.023	Because of more participation too much time is wasted.
52/62	2.2/1.9	.34	.13/.11	2.14	.035	Because of more participation in general the quality of decisions is better.
52/63	2.2/1.7	.51	.13/.10	3.09	.003	Because of more participation people's abilities and experiences are better utilised.
52/62	2.6/1.9	.68	.15/.11	3.72	.000	Because of more participation people have gained greater independence and responsibility.
53/64	3.3/3.9	.59	.15/.13	-2.94	.004	I am satisfied when decisions are made by the person with greater authority and power.
52/64	3.0/2.5	.45	.14/.15	2.19	.031	I am satisfied when decisions are made by the person whose job description carries the responsibility.
53/64	1.7/2.5	.76	.09/.15	-4.33	.000	I am satisfied when decisions are made by the person with most knowledge and expertise about the problem.
53/63	1.9/1.5	.40	.11/.09	2.84	.005	Teamwork occurs when people's joint contribution is needed to make progress in the task.

Table A.IV.3: The statistical details of the significance test ($\alpha=5\%$) between the British and the German management style (continued from previous and on next two pages).

n.of cases B/D	\bar{X} B/D	$d\bar{X}$	std. err. B/D	t-value	tst	Statement
53/61	1.7/2.6	.88	.11/.14	-4.91	.000	Teamwork occurs when the collaboration is personally satisfying, stimulating or challenging.
53/61	3.8/4.2	.46	.18/.14	-2.04	.043	Teamwork is practised seldom.
53/63	1.9/2.3	.38	.10/.11	-2.52	.013	Interpersonal relations in my team/ task force is friendly and co-operative.
53/63	2.5/3.1	.60	.13/.14	-3.13	.002	The diversity that exists is relatively easy to manage.
52/60	2.7/2.2	.46	.17/.13	2.17	.032	My group usually gets external feedback.
53/63	3.7/3.2	.51	.16/.14	2.45	.016	I am satisfied with the present state of organizational communication.
52/50	2.2/1.9	.33	.11/.08	2.38	.019	Communication between myself and subordinates is adequate.
53/63	2.7/2.2	.50	.14/.11	2.91	.004	Communication between myself and peers is adequate.
53/63	2.6/1.9	.70	.17/.13	3.36	.001	There is enough written communication in 'the company'.
49/61	2.0/3.6	1.6	.16/.16	-6.97	.000	English as the main company language would improve overall communication.
50/63	2.8/3.2	.44	.15/.14	-2.16	.033	There is too much misperception of facts.

Table A.IV.3: The statistical details of the significance test ($\alpha=5\%$) between the British and the German management style (continued from previous two and on next page).

n.of cases B/D	\bar{X} B/D	$d\bar{X}$	std. err. B/D	t- value	tst	Statement
45/54	2.9/3.4	.53	.17/.16	-2.27	.025	There is too much misinterpretation ! (Please specify of what...)
52/61	3.2/2.0	1.2	.16/.13	5.61	.000	I am satisfied with the training possibilities I get for my tasks.
53/62	2.8/2.1	.70	.15/.13	3.63	.000	I am satisfied with the possibility for self-development within my job.
53/61	3.4/2.3	1.1	.17/.12	5.46	.000	I am satisfied with the organizational objectives and targets I get.
52/62	3.1/2.6	.48	.15/.14	2.32	.022	I am satisfied with the extent to which fair distribution (equality of chances) is exercised.
53/60	1.9/3.0	1.1	.13/.17	-5.13	.000	My job gives me the opportunity to use the ability to work on my own.
52/61	2.0/2.4	.42	.16/.14	-2.03	.045	My job gives me the opportunity to being decisive.
50/59	2.0/2.8	.78	.15/.14	-3.83	.000	My job gives me the opportunity to showing others how to do a job.
53/63	3.0/2.4	.62	.14/.13	3.23	.002	Conflicts are mainly of operational focus (how operations should be/ are performed).
52/62	2.7/3.1	.49	.15/.16	-2.23	.028	Conflicts arise mainly from differences between individual and departmental interests.

Table A.IV.3: The statistical details of the significance test ($\alpha=5\%$) between the British and the German management style (continued from previous three pages).

n.of cases B/D	\bar{X} B/D	$d\bar{X}$	std. err. B/D	t-value	tst	Statement
53/61	3.4/3.0	.41	.12/.12	2.33	.021	Conflicts occur mainly because of differences in understanding due to personality factors.
52/62	2.9/3.3	.38	.14/.13	-2.02	.046	Conflicts occur mainly because of people's different values (value systems/value patterns).
52/60	3.2/3.6	.48	.17/.13	-2.29	.024	Conflicts are controlled by the intervention of higher authority.
46/53	3.1/3.5	.46	.15/.14	-2.24	.027	There is not adequate standardization regarding operational tasks.
45/53	2.9/3.4	.52	.18/.16	-2.16	.033	There is not adequate standardization regarding corporate goals.

Mann-Whitney significance test

Significant difference between British and German responses on statement:

"I am satisfied with the recognition I get when doing a good job"

Mean Rank B/D	Cases B/D	U	W	Z	2-tailed Prob.
62.4/50.3	47/63	1155.5	2933.5	-2.0612	.0393

Significant difference between French and British responses on statement:

"Conflicts are mainly of operational focus (how operations should be/are performed)"

Mean Rank F/B	Cases F/B	U	W	Z	2-tailed Prob.
43.7/54.4	45/53	931.0	1966.0	-1.9996	.0455

A.V. Statistical details of the dependent t-test and the principal component analysis conducted within Chapter V

Explanatory note for Tables A.V.1 to 3:

The first column states the number of respondents that answered the particular question for both the national and the international setting. The second (and the third) column show the arithmetic means for national \bar{X}_N versus international \bar{X}_I teams/settings (the difference between these means: $d\bar{X}$). Standard error, t value and 2-tail probabilities (tst=two sided test) are shown in the fourth, fifth and sixth column.

Table A.V.1: These are the statistical details of the significance test between national and international teams as perceived by the French managers (continued on next two pages).

n.of cases N/I	\bar{X}_N/\bar{X}_I	d \bar{X}	std. err.	t-value	tst	Statement
32/32	1.5/2.0	.53	.149	-3.57	.001	I am satisfied with my opportunities to take on responsibility.
35/35	1.6/2.0	.34	.108	-3.17	.003	Because of more participation I know better what is going on in the company.
35/35	1.6/1.9	.23	.646	-2.09	.044	Because of more participation I have more job satisfaction.
35/35	2.1/2.4	.31	.141	-2.23	.032	Because of more participation people are getting more say in company/departmental policy making.
35/35	2.7/3.1	.49	.206	-2.35	.025	The diversity that exists is relatively easy to manage.
35/35	3.8/3.3	.54	.176	3.09	.004	Diversity in my team is more frequently ignored than managed.
34/34	3.0/3.4	.38	.174	-2.20	.035	The members of my group have about equal power.
34/34	2.4/2.7	.32	.138	-2.34	.025	The members maintain adequate standards of performance.
26/26	2.1/2.6	.54	.186	-2.90	.008	Communication between myself and subordinates is adequate.
31/31	2.3/2.7	.39	.152	-2.55	.016	Communication between myself and superiors is adequate.
33/33	3.3/2.8	.48	.190	2.55	.016	There is too much misinterpretation! (Please specify...)

Table A.V.1: These are the statistical details of the significance test between national and international teams as perceived by the French managers (continued from previous and on next page).

n of cases N/I	\bar{X}_N/\bar{X}_I	$d\bar{X}$	std. err.	t-value	tst	Statement
32/32	1.6/2.0	.38	.178	-2.10	.044	I am satisfied with the challenge my work poses and the personal sense of accomplishment I get from it.
31/31	2.7/3.0	.29	.133	-2.19	.037	I am satisfied with the organizational objectives and targets I get.
29/29	1.6/2.0	.41	.182	-2.27	.031	My job gives me the opportunity to use initiative.
30/30	1.8/2.3	.50	.213	-2.35	.026	My job gives me the opportunity to use verbal ability.
30/30	1.7/2.1	.43	.141	-3.07	.005	My job gives me the opportunity to use practical work experience.
26/26	1.7/2.2	.50	.169	-2.96	.007	My job gives me the opportunity to use the ability to organize my job.
26/26	2.2/2.6	.35	.166	-2.09	.047	My job gives me the opportunity to use the ability to work on my own.
29/29	2.0/2.4	.41	.168	-2.46	.020	My job gives me the opportunity to be decisive.
29/29	1.7/2.1	.34	.135	-2.81	.009	My job gives me the opportunity to use intelligence.
31/31	1.8/2.2	.42	.152	-2.75	.010	My job gives me the opportunity to use adaptability/flexibility.

Table A.V.1: These are the statistical details of the significance test ($\alpha=5\%$) between national and international teams as perceived by the French managers (continued from previous two pages).

n of cases N/I	\bar{X}_N/\bar{X}_I	$d\bar{X}$	std. err.	t-value	tst	Statement
27/27	2.1/2.7	.56	.216	-2.58	.016	My job gives me the opportunity to showing others how to do a job.
29/29	1.9/2.3	.34	.167	-2.07	.048	My job gives me the opportunity to use the capacity to look ahead.
28/28	1.8/2.1	.25	.111	-2.26	.032	My job gives me the opportunity to use the capacity to solve problems at work.
28/28	1.4/2.1	.64	.194	-3.32	.003	My job gives me the opportunity to use the feel responsible.
31/31	1.7/2.0	.26	.113	-2.28	.030	My job gives me the opportunity to use my understanding of people.
33/33	3.0/3.4	.40	.189	-2.08	.046	There is not adequate standardization regarding work processes (content of work, procedures to be followed).
31/31	2.9/3.4	.48	.201	-2.40	.023	There is not adequate standardization regarding corporate culture.

Table A.V.2: These are the statistical details of the significance test between national and international teams as perceived by the British managers (continued on next three pages).

n of cases N/I	\bar{X}_N/\bar{X}_I	$d\bar{X}$	std. err.	t-value	tst	Statement
41/41	2.6/3.0	.44	.207	-2.12	.040	I am satisfied with my participation in decisions relating to my work.
41/41	2.1/2.7	.56	.204	-2.75	.009	Because of more participation I have more influence on day-to-day matters.
41/41	4.1/3.7	.39	.156	2.51	.016	Because of more participation more tension occurs.
37/37	2.4/2.7	.38	.179	-2.11	.042	Because of more participation people's abilities and experiences are better utilised.
48/48	3.6/3.2	.42	.163	2.56	.014	Teamwork occurs when it is required by higher authority.
47/47	3.1/2.7	.38	.157	2.44	.018	Teamwork occurs when co-ordination and exchange are specified by the formal system.
48/48	1.9/2.1	.21	.084	-2.48	.017	Teamwork occurs when people's joint contribution is needed to make progress in the task.
48/48	1.7/2.0	.25	.105	-2.37	.022	Teamwork occurs when the collaboration is personally satisfying, stimulating or challenging.
49/49	3.8/3.4	.39	.136	2.85	.006	Teamwork is practised seldom.
45/45	1.9/2.3	.38	.116	-3.26	.002	Interpersonal relations in my team/task force is friendly and co-operative.

Table A.V.2: These are the statistical details of the significance test between national and international teams as perceived by the British managers (continued from previous and on next two pages).

n of cases N/I	\bar{X}_N/\bar{X}_I	$d\bar{X}$	std. err.	t-value	tst	Statement
45/45	2.5/2.9	.40	.186	-2.15	.037	The diversity that exists is relatively easy to manage.
45/45	4.2/4.0	.22	.100	2.22	.031	The team would be more effective in total absence of diversity.
41/41	3.3/3.8	.41	.152	-2.73	.009	The members of my group have about equal power.
44/44	2.3/2.5	.27	.132	-2.07	.044	My group can orientate itself along clear overall goals.
44/44	2.4/2.8	.39	.166	-2.32	.025	The members of my group encourage one another's best efforts, reinforcing successful behaviour.
47/47	2.4/3.3	.83	.226	-3.67	.001	Openness is practised very successfully.
47/47	2.8/2.5	.32	.113	2.40	.020	There is too much misperception of facts.
48/48	2.5/2.8	.31	.130	-2.40	.021	I am satisfied with the extent to which people I work with mutually co-operate.
43/43	1.7/2.3	.65	.182	-3.58	.001	My job gives me the opportunity to use initiative.
44/44	1.8/2.3	.43	.161	-2.69	.010	My job gives me the opportunity to use verbal ability.
44/44	2.2/2.8	.61	.190	-3.23	.002	My job gives me the opportunity to use the capacity to develop new ideas.

Table A.V.2: These are the statistical details of the significance test between national and international teams as perceived by the British managers (continued from previous two and on next page).

n of cases N/I	\bar{X}_N/\bar{X}_I	$d\bar{X}$	std. err.	t-value	tst	Statement
43/43	1.9/2.4	.47	.150	-3.10	.003	My job gives me the opportunity to use co-operativeness.
42/42	1.7/2.3	.60	.177	-3.36	.002	My job gives me the opportunity to use the ability to organise my job.
40/40	1.9/2.3	.38	.167	-2.25	.030	My job gives me the opportunity to use the ability to work on my own.
43/43	1.9/2.5	.60	.157	-3.86	.000	My job gives me the opportunity to being decisive.
42/42	1.7/2.3	.55	.161	-3.41	.001	My job gives me the opportunity to use adaptability/flexibility.
40/40	1.9/2.7	.73	.168	-4.32	.000	My job gives me the opportunity to showing others how to do a job.
44/44	2.3/2.7	.34	.152	-2.24	.030	My job gives me the opportunity to use the capacity to look ahead.
42/42	1.7/2.2	.50	.142	-3.53	.001	My job gives me the opportunity to use the capacity to solve problems at work.
42/42	1.9/2.5	.57	.149	-3.83	.000	My job gives me the opportunity to feel responsible.
42/42	1.6/2.2	.57	.141	-4.05	.000	My job gives me the opportunity to use my understanding of people.
47/47	3.0/2.7	.32	.122	2.61	.012	Conflicts are mainly of operational focus (how operations should be/are performed).

Table A.V.2: These are the statistical details of the significance test between national and international teams as perceived by the British managers (continued from previous three pages).

n of cases N/I	\bar{X}_N/\bar{X}_I	$d\bar{X}$	std. err.	t-value	tst	Statement
48/48	3.3/2.8	.54	.191	2.84	.007	Conflicts are suppressed by reference to rules, procedures and definitions of responsibility.

Table A.V.3: These are the statistical details of the significance test between national and international teams as perceived by the German managers.

n of cases N/I	\bar{X}_N/\bar{X}_I	$d\bar{X}$	std. err.	t-value	tst	Statement
30/30	1.8/2.2	.37	.148	-2.48	.019	I am satisfied with my participation in decisions relating to my work.
37/37	3.9/4.3	.32	.150	-2.16	.038	Diversity in my team is more frequently ignored than managed.
26/26	1.8/2.1	.31	.121	-2.54	.018	Communication between myself and subordinates is adequate.
36/36	3.5/2.4	1.0	.234	4.39	.000	English as the main company language would improve overall communication.
36/36	3.4/2.9	.53	.123	4.30	.000	There is too much misperception of facts.
33/33	3.3/2.9	.36	.143	2.54	.016	There is too much misinterpretation! (Please specify...)
30/30	1.9/2.3	.43	.149	-2.90	.007	I am satisfied with the training possibilities I get for my tasks.
33/33	2.0/2.1	.12	.058	-2.10	.044	My job gives me the opportunity to be accurate in the work.

Table A.V.4: Responses of French, British and German managers on the items that are covered by Factor F1 (the average of each column in row 2 is shown in the respective column in row 3, and is also visible in Figure V.1).

F: \bar{X}_N	B: \bar{X}_N	D: \bar{X}_N	F: \bar{X}_I	B: \bar{X}_I	D: \bar{X}_I
2.2	2.6	2.2	2.2	2.6	2.5
1.6	2.5	2.1	2.0	2.7	2.1
2.4	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.7	2.5
2.1	2.6	1.8	2.4	3.0	2.2
2.4	2.9	2.1	2.6	2.9	2.2
2.6	2.9	2.6	2.6	3.1	2.9
2.2	2.3	2.1	2.4	2.5	2.4
1.7	1.9	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.3
1.5	2.3	2.3	2.0	2.7	2.4
2.0	2.5	2.1	2.2	2.8	2.1
2.0	2.3	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.0
2.7	3.3	2.1	3.0	3.2	2.3
2.6	3.2	2.4	2.9	3.1	2.4
2.7	2.9	2.4	2.5	2.9	2.4
1.9	2.2	1.8	2.1	2.5	1.9
2.4	3.3	1.9	2.4	3.4	2.3
2.2	2.6	2.1	2.4	2.8	2.3

Table A.V.5: Responses of French, British and German managers on the items that are covered by Factor F2 (the average of each column in row 2 is shown in the respective column in row 3, and is also visible in Figure V.3).

F: \bar{X}_N	B: \bar{X}_N	D: \bar{X}_N	F: \bar{X}_I	B: \bar{X}_I	D: \bar{X}_I
2.4	2.3	2.2	2.5	2.4	2.1
2.4	2.5	2.3	2.5	2.7	2.4
2.1	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.5	2.4
2.5	2.4	2.4	2.7	3.3	2.4
2.3	2.7	2.1	2.6	2.7	2.1
2.8	3.7	3.0	3.1	3.7	3.1
2.4	2.4	2.7	2.5	2.8	2.5
2.3	2.9	2.7	2.7	3.0	2.6
2.1	2.2	1.8	2.6	2.5	2.1
2.0	1.9	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.0
2.4	2.2	2.2	2.7	2.3	2.2
2.7	2.5	2.9	3.1	2.9	3.3
2.8	3.4	2.9	3.0	3.3	3.0
2.1	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.5	2.2
2.6	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.2	2.5
3.0	3.3	2.8	3.4	3.8	2.7
2.2	2.7	2.2	2.3	2.7	2.1
1.7	1.9	1.6	1.6	2.1	1.7
2.2	2.6	1.9	2.4	2.7	2.0
3.4	3.5	3.7	3.6	3.5	3.8
2.4	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.9	2.5

Table A.V.6: Responses of French, British and German managers on the items that are covered by Factor F3 (the average of each column in row 2 is shown in the respective column in row 3, and is also visible in Figure V.5).

F: \bar{X}_N	B: \bar{X}_N	D: \bar{X}_N	F: \bar{X}_I	B: \bar{X}_I	D: \bar{X}_I
2.0	2.3	1.8	2.1	2.5	1.8
2.0	2.4	1.6	2.2	2.7	1.8
1.6	2.0	1.6	1.9	2.2	1.6
1.6	2.1	1.8	2.0	2.4	1.7
1.9	2.3	1.8	2.0	2.7	1.9
2.1	2.7	2.2	2.4	3.0	2.2
1.7	2.1	2.2	1.9	2.7	2.2
2.4	2.8	1.8	2.5	3.2	2.0
1.8	2.1	1.8	1.8	2.4	1.7
2.3	2.5	2.7	2.3	2.7	2.8
1.7	1.7	2.4	1.8	2.0	2.3
1.9	2.3	2.0	2.1	2.6	2.0

Table A.V.7: Responses of French, British and German managers on the items that are covered by Factor F4 (the average of each column in row 2 is shown in the respective column in row 3, and is also visible in Figure V.7).

F: \bar{X}_N	B: \bar{X}_N	D: \bar{X}_N	F: \bar{X}_I	B: \bar{X}_I	D: \bar{X}_I
1.4	1.9	1.9	2.1	2.5	2.0
2.0	1.9	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.5
1.8	1.8	1.8	2.3	2.3	2.0
1.7	1.7	1.7	2.2	2.3	1.9
2.1	1.9	2.7	2.7	2.7	3.0
1.8	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.1
2.0	2.2	1.9	2.3	2.8	2.0
1.8	1.7	1.8	2.2	2.3	1.8
1.7	1.8	1.6	2.1	2.0	1.8
1.6	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.3	1.8
1.7	1.7	1.7	2.1	1.9	1.8
1.7	1.6	1.7	2.0	2.2	1.9
2.1	1.9	1.6	2.1	2.4	1.8
1.9	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.7	2.4
1.9	1.8	2.0	1.8	1.9	2.1
2.2	1.9	3.1	2.6	2.3	3.1
3.5	3.3	3.5	3.4	3.2	3.6
1.9	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.2

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