

Evaluating the Influence of Different Levels of Multicultural Interactions, in a Work and Social Context, on Perceptions of Outstanding Leader Attributes

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ABSTRACT

This research aims to develop a deeper level of understanding of how different levels of interaction amongst different cultures in a work and social context plays a role in perceiving culturally endorsed leadership attributes (CLTs). With the rapid developments in international trade, internet technology, cross-border travel and communication, business transactions across country borders have rapidly become significant contributors to the world economy. Consequently, managing diverse teams and working with colleagues and/or clients from other countries is a challenge to operating in this global business world.

A quantitative analysis was done by considering low, medium and high work and social multi-cultural diversity interactions as the exploratory variables and perceptions of outstanding leader attributes as the dependant variable. This study of 269 leaders in a South African Multinational company found that different levels of multicultural interactions in the social context (described by friendships, relationships, family history and education) yielded significant differences in the perceptions of outstanding leader attributes. No significant differences in these perceptions were found for the different levels of multicultural interactions in the work context (described by international assignments and work diversity initiatives). Based on intergroup theory, this suggests that greater cognitive formations results through cross-cultural engagement in the social context than in the workplace. That is, culturally diverse social group memberships are able to condition member perceptions, transfer ideologies, and have a greater impact than culturally diverse groups in the organisational context.

It was also found that the senior employees in this organisation (by age and tenure) showed a negative correlation to social multicultural interactions, but a positive correlation to work multicultural interactions. These relationships with tenure indicate the influence of organisational culture on cross-cultural cognitive formations. A synergistic relationship was evident between the work and social contexts, suggesting that inter-cultural activity in one context influences activity in the other context.

Keywords:

Global leaders

Leadership development

Cultural diversity

Social Multicultural interactions

Workplace diversity management

DECLARATION

I declare that this research project is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorisation and consent to carry out this research.

Farida Khan

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I pray you will always strive for knowledge and use it to benefit yourselves and the lives of
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Your world's will be rich in diversity and culture; so learn with your eyes, listen with your
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1 PROBLEM FORMULATION

“O mankind! We created you from a single (pair) of a male and a female, and made you into nations and tribes, that you may know each another. Verily, the most honoured of you in the sight of God, is (he who is) the most righteous of you. And God has full knowledge and is well acquainted (with all things)”

— Holy Qur’an, Chapter 49, Verse 13

1.1 *Introduction*

1.1.1 *Research Title*

Evaluating the influence of different levels of multicultural interactions, in a work and social context, on perceptions of outstanding leader attributes

1.1.2 *The requirement for Global Leader competence*

With the rapid developments in international trade, internet technology, cross-border travel and communication, country borders today have become “fluid”. Global business transactions have since become a significant contributor to the world economy (Alon and Higgins, 2005). Whilst globalization and international trade presents a world of opportunity it is also fraught with many challenges (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta, 2004, p. 10). Consequently, it has upset the “traditional” business rules (Mendenhall, Black, Jensen and Gregerson, 2003) and thus requires a new set of tools to effect delivery. This dynamic global environment has reshaped the way in which business is conducted, and success determined (Caligiuri and Tarique, 2009).

One of the criteria for a company's global success is having leaders who are able to effectively steer and lead through this complex, ambiguous, unstable environment (ibid.; Mendenhall et al. 2003). Mendenhall et al. (2003) further point out that to develop and implement global strategic initiatives requires executives with global mindsets, global competencies and global experiences. Suutari (2002) reported a shortage of global leaders in the corporate world with only 8% of Fortune 500 companies having comprehensive global leadership programmes. Manning (2003) reported that 85% of the Fortune 500 companies surveyed did not have an adequate number of global leaders. Effective global leadership will result in building successful multinational corporations (MNCs) abroad and boosting the home- and host-country economies. The importance of effective global leadership keeps academics and researchers interested in developing global leaders (Caligiuri and Tarique, 2009).

1.1.3 Managing Diversity in the workplace as a norm rather than an exception

Managing diverse teams and working with colleagues and/or clients from other countries is quickly becoming routine business practice in the global business landscape.

One of the top concerns of the future cited in the Price Waterhouse Coopers' 10th Annual Global CEO Survey, which polls over a 1000 Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) in more than 50 countries, was "managing diverse cultures" (Caligiuri, Tarique and Jacobs, 2009). The survey further indicated that a significant number of CEOs reported that their organizations are challenged by cultural barriers such as cultural issues/conflicts, conflicting regulatory requirements, unexpected costs, stakeholder opposition, and inadequate leadership to manage this increasingly complex environment (ibid.).

Therefore the concern expressed by Caligiuri et al. (2009) that there may be an insufficient supply of culturally effective individuals filling leadership pipelines today is a serious and valid one.

1.2 Research Problem

This research aims to develop a deeper level of understanding of how interaction amongst different cultures in a work and social context plays a role in perceiving culturally endorsed leadership attributes (CLTs).

This research will therefore evaluate if statistical differences exist in the perceptions of these outstanding leader attributes resulting from:

- Different levels of multicultural exposure in the work environment.
- Different levels of multicultural exposure in the social environment.
- The combination of high (or medium) work and social multicultural exposure against low (or medium) work and social multicultural exposure.

The research will further aim to describe the demographic relationships with Work Diversity Interactions and Social Diversity Interactions against the six CLTs.

1.3 Research Motivation

1.3.1 Current research

Research on effectiveness of global leadership is vast and broad. Caligiuri et al. (2009) provides a review of the quantitative research on work and non-work attributes leading to global leader effectiveness. Other research includes exploring predictors such as emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence, organisation culture (Kwantes and Boglarsky, 2007), personality traits (Caligiuri et al. 2009; Caligiuri and Tarique, 2009; Mol, Born, Willemssen and Van der Molen, 2005) multi-linguistic skills (Caligiuri and Tarique, 2009), international exposure (Caligiuri and Tarique, 2009), and national culture (Brock, Shenkar, Shoham and Siscovick, 2008) on the effectiveness of global leader activities or attributes.

There is a limited amount of research on correlating diverse multicultural experiences to perceived leader effectiveness or leadership attributes. Caligiuri & Tarique (2009) have found that high multicultural contact results in greater effectiveness in global leader activities. However their research can be considered to have three major limitations. Firstly, the researchers evaluated leader effectiveness in global activities through leader self assessment. This offers room for social desirability bias, where the leaders wish to create a favourable impression through their answers. Secondly, the study did not differentiate between effectiveness and ineffectiveness in the tested cross-cultural experiences. Hence, although the study tested frequency of cross-cultural contact, it did not test for quality of cross-cultural experiences. Thirdly, the researchers did not treat the work and social cross-cultural interactions separately, but rather evaluated these interactions in its totality. Therefore, it is not apparent in which context the cross-cultural interactions have taken place and whether these interactions were a result of mandatory job requirements or own leader preferences.

Considering the scope of the current research literature outlined above and the limitations highlighted of Caligiuri and Tarique's (2009) study, the high level primary aims of this study therefore seek to examine:

- The nature of multicultural experiences in the work and social environments on forming perceptions of leadership attributes; and
- The different intergroup interactions and learning that occurs in cross-cultural leadership development.

1.3.2 Implications for South Africa

With country borders opening up for South Africa following its entry into democracy, there is an increasing interest for local businesses to access new markets by expanding their operations globally. While this presents an array of opportunities, it also brings with it many challenges of working internationally. One particular issue is that individuals are now exposed to working in a multicultural environment, of which they were previously shielded from by the country's apartheid history. This international engagement requires that South Africans reposition any historic cultural biases to embrace diversity for personal, social and economic value creation. Hence, knowing how to effectively work across different cultures and understanding multicultural experiences will be beneficial to South African leaders.

South Africa makes for an excellent location to conduct this study, for two main reasons. Firstly, during South Africa's history of apartheid rule cultural groups were largely segregated by race. The onset of democracy in 1994 changed the business and later, social environment to an inclusive one, encouraging integration across ethnically diverse groups. In the business environment this was made mandatory through the diversity initiatives of Employment Equity (EE) and Black Economic Empowerment.

Secondly, South Africa is a country rich in diversity, so much so that the GLOBE study across 62 countries (House and Hanges, 2004, p. 97) refers to South Africa as a multicultural society. The GLOBE study had subsequently differentiated their sampling across the country in two groups - the indigenous Black population and the Caucasian (White) population (ibid.). Therefore, the country's rich cultural diversity presents a good platform to be constantly engaging across cultures. Thus South Africa can be considered a microcosm of the multicultural dynamics of the global business landscape. This therefore can be a potential training ground for international positions, by creating the environment to up skill candidates on working across cultures. In addition, the cross-cultural experiences specifically tested in this research can be considered as inexpensive means relative to other didactic and experiential learning that is undertaken in preparation of global leadership positions; more so because diversity management initiatives are required by organisations to meet government legislation on Employment Equity targets in South Africa.

1.3.3 Academic case for the study

This research adds to the field of global leadership development studies. Specifically this research examines how different levels of cross-cultural experiences, in both the work and social (personal) context, contribute to perceptions of outstanding leader attributes.

The results of this research can:-

- Assist organisations and academic institutions in designing personalised programmes for the rapid up skill of candidates with high potential for international leadership positions;
- Assist Executive Management and Human Resources personnel in selecting employees for international leadership positions;

- Enable organisations to strategically review and reposition their diversity management interventions as an instrument to global leader development; and
- Provide insight to individuals and/or leaders on mechanisms for shedding cultural stereotypes and biases, and being effective in multicultural environments.

1.4 The Research Scope

The research scope was confined to a large South African multinational company that has offices and/or operations in Europe, Asia, North America, and Africa. Sample selection was limited to senior and middle management who were more likely to have been involved in the organisation's diversity management interventions than lower level employees. Further, due to their rank in the organisation, these employees are likely to be in strategic leadership positions in the near future.

2 THEORY AND LITERATURE REVIEW

“A leader is best when people barely know he exists, when his work is done, his aim fulfilled, they will say: *We did it ourselves.*”

— Lao Tse

The theory reviewed in this chapter outlines the key themes and constructs of this research, namely “Leadership” in the context of “multicultural exposure”. The elements comprising the latter fall into two subcategories namely ‘Work Diversity Interaction’ and ‘Social Diversity Interaction’, and will also be discussed. This chapter concludes with a diagram summarising the themes under the constructs and the subsequent relationship between the constructs.

2.1 Leadership

2.1.1 Leadership styles and the influence of Culture

Leadership as a construct, topic of discussion and/or research is very broad and can be explained in various ways. Leadership has been an area of study for much of the 20th century, yet there lacks a universal consensus on a definition for leadership (Dorfman and House, 2004, p. 54). Alon and Higgins (2005) describe leadership as the ability to turn vision into reality. The GLOBE definition of organisational leadership, that is adopted for this research, is “the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute towards the effectiveness and success of the organisation” (Dorfman and House, 2004, p. 56). Historically, leadership studies tended to focus on personality traits, behavioural styles and the power and influence of successful leaders (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano and Dennison, 2003). This coincided with the

era of leadership that impressed their will to achieve results, followed by an era of persuasion. The focus of leadership studies later shifted towards the role of followers and the nature of the context of leadership (Bolden et al. 2003). That is, a shift to situational, transactional and transformational leadership styles. Each of these leadership styles expresses different definitions and attributes of leadership. Smith and Bond (1993) cited in Dorfman and House (2004, p. 54) suggest that the vast range of definitions for leadership that exist are acceptable as they direct leadership research in focussed areas. Lord and Hall (1992) cited in Future Research Direction (2000) state that social perceptiveness and behavioural flexibility may be more critical determinants of leadership than a single leadership style that is broadly applied.

This research therefore focussed on six styles of leadership, namely, Charismatic/Value-based leadership, Team-Oriented Leadership, Participative Leadership, Autonomous Leadership, Humane-Oriented Leadership and Self-Protective Leadership. These were described by House and Javidan (2004, p. 14) and Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck (2004, p. 675) as culturally endorsed leadership styles (CLTs), in the 2004 GLOBE study.

These leadership styles are briefly described below as:

- Charismatic/ Value Based Leadership is the ability to inspire and motivate; it includes six discernable subcategories of being a visionary, inspirational, self-sacrifice, integrity, decisiveness, and performance orientation attributes.
- Team-Oriented Leadership is the ability to build a common purpose and goal and emphasise team building. It includes five subcategories of collaborative team orientation, team integrator, diplomatic, malevolent, and administratively competent traits.
- Participative Leadership refers to the degree of managers involving others in decisions making and implementation. It includes the subcategories of reverse-scored non-participative and autocratic behaviour.

- Humane-Oriented Leadership reflects supportive and considerate leadership behaviours that include compassion, generosity, modesty and humane orientation.
- Self-Protective Leadership ensures the safety and security of the self or group member. This includes five subcategories of self-centred, status consciousness, conflict inducer, face-saver, and procedural qualities.
- Autonomous Leadership is characterised by individualistic and independent behaviour.

The selection of these leadership styles are underpinned by Implicit Leadership Theory (ILT) that states that individuals hold a set of beliefs (perceptions) of the attributes, personalities, skills and behaviours that contributes to outstanding leadership (House and Javidan, 2004, p. 16). While perceptions of leadership may not necessarily be the reality, however, they are used by the perceivers to evaluate and thus distinguish leaders from non-leaders or effective and ineffective leadership (Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla and Dorfman, 1999). Further, it has been documented that behaviour is driven by perceptions of reality (Mor Barak, Cherin and Berkman, 1998). It is also believed that due to social desirability bias, individuals will be reluctant to admit to negative qualities and behaviours (Zigmund, 2009, p. 183); however these qualities will reveal themselves through the selection of preferences that result from evaluating “perceptions”. This research has therefore selected the dependant variable as “perceptions of outstanding leader attributes”.

Graen, Hui, Wakabayashi, and Wang (1997) cited in Dickson, Den Hartog and Mitchelson (2003) point out that cross-cultural research is often focused on comparisons between groups and with etics and emics as the focal points. The researchers explain that ‘emic’ refers to things that are unique to cultures whilst ‘etics’ are universal to all cultures. The GLOBE study has demonstrated how perceptions of outstanding leader attributes vary in different cultures and concluded the existence of culturally-based shared concepts of leadership attributes, termed

culturally endorsed implicit theories of leadership. The study was conducted across 62 different cultures, and later grouped into regional clusters. The study identified 21 “first-order” primary leadership dimensions that are considered universally desirable leadership attributes. These were then consolidated into the six second-order global leadership dimensions, termed culturally endorsed leadership dimensions (CLTs) that were mentioned above. Dorfman et al. (2004, p. 673) argue that the GLOBE CLT profiles are culturally defined prototypes and explain important societal cultural differences in how leaders are viewed. The GLOBE results are discussed below at a societal level, for each of the six CLTs. A seven-point Likert scale was used to rate the items and ranged from a low of “this behaviour or characteristic greatly inhibits a person from being an outstanding leader” to a high of “this behaviour or characteristic contributes greatly to a person being an outstanding leader”.

Charismatic/Value-based leadership was universally reported to contribute to outstanding leadership with the societal mean range of 4.5 – 6.5 on the seven-point scale. Team-Oriented leadership and Participative leadership contributed to outstanding leadership with the societal mean range of 4.7 – 6.2 and 4.5 – 6.1 respectively. There were meaningful differences reported amongst countries and clusters for Participative leadership. Humane-Oriented leadership was reported to be neutral in some societies and to moderately contribute to outstanding leadership in other societies. The societal mean range was 3.8 – 5.6. Autonomous leadership was reported as ranging from inhibiting to slightly contributing, with a societal mean range of 2.3 – 4.7. Self-protective leadership is reported to inhibit outstanding leadership with a societal mean range of 2.5 – 4.6. Other findings of GLOBE include the above CLT scores on a regional cluster basis, the identification of universally undesirable attributes, and culturally contingent attributes (that is, culture specific).

2.2 The Global Perspective of Leadership

While trade across national borders continue to increase, it becomes increasingly important that leaders are able to understand and adapt to their new environments when operating in a foreign country. Laurent (1983) and Trompenaars (1993) cited in Dorfman et al. (2004, p. 52) have argued that diverse organisational practices exist worldwide, and that while practices may be effective and applicable in one country it may have the opposite effect in another country. This was confirmed by the GLOBE study, which identified culturally congruent leadership attributes, that is, attributes that are desirable in some cultures but undesirable in others. This provides support for Caligiuri et al. (2009) who argue that not everyone with a proven record of success in a domestic context will have what it takes to be successful in an international context, even while doing the same job in the new context. Cook and Nkomo (2006, p. 87) emphasise the importance of the *context* (situation) in understanding leadership and its effectiveness and also point out that culture is an important element of context. Different approaches to leadership are required in different contexts (ibid.).

To understand the global perspective of leadership, a deeper understanding of the definition of the global leader is required.

2.2.1 Global Leader: Definition

While Spreitzer, McCall, and Mahoney (1997) offer a simplistic definition of global leaders, as “executives who are in jobs with some international scope”, Suutari (2002) offers a holistic view as “global integration activities in global organisations”. Caligiuri (2006) suggests that although there will be some overlap with expatriate assignments and global leader activities due to its cross-cultural nature, the global leader can also be located domestically but operate with

international business requirements. This therefore extends the definition of the ‘global leader’ beyond just the ‘expatriate’ and extends the literature research from ‘expatriate’ dynamics to ‘global leader’ dynamics.

Caligiuri and Di Santo (2001) focuses on the activity of the global leader as effectively managing in the complex, dynamic and uncertain global environment. Ali and Camp (1996) argue that global managers seek to process, integrate and co-ordinate ideas to create a synergistic and responsive system that enhances global understanding and interaction. Bartlett and Ghoshal (1992) offer further perspectives on global leader activities, namely, expanding the business into new foreign markets, developing global strategies, managing and motivating geographically dispersed and diverse teams.

For this research, the researcher has integrated the above definitions, and provides the preferred definition of the global leader as:

“Leaders who manage international operations, develop global business strategies, work with and manage geographically dispersed and culturally diverse teams, and maybe located domestically and/or internationally.”

Considering the strategic importance of these activities, having internationally competent managers are key for global business success. Consequently, successful global leaders become a competitive advantage for multinational firms (Caligiuri, 2006). It is with this foresight that Rosen and Digh (2001) point out that “global literacy” is the new leadership competence that is required for business success.

2.2.2 Global leader competencies for success

Rosen and Digh (2001) cited in describe “global literacy” as “seeing, thinking, acting and mobilising in culturally mindful ways”. As a predictor for success in the global environment, the

same researchers cite valuing of multicultural experiences and competencies. Javidan and House (2001) argue that it is a necessity of global managers to be sensitive to cultural differences or to have cultural acumen. Tung (1981) cited in Liu and Lee (2008) reports that since the dimensions comprising the performance construct differs for expatriate positions and domestic positions, expatriate employees need a somewhat different set of skills and abilities to accomplish the same job they performed successfully in the domestic environment.

Researchers have investigated a broad range of characteristics needed in international business operations. Caligiuri (2006) described some global task-specific knowledge, skills and abilities, and personality characteristics (KSAOs) that should constitute global leader competence, together with a list of training and development interventions to build these KSAOs. This is discussed further in the next section below. Ali and Masters (1988) have found that the most frequently mentioned qualities required for international assignments are managerial and technical competence, experience, ability to make decisions in an atmosphere of risk and ambiguity, understanding of the businesses' long-term strategy, ability to adopt different points of view, and cross-cultural awareness.

Ali and Camp (1996) therefore recommend that managers today need to be global in their orientations and spirit. While this does not mean knowing the historical and cultural detail of other nations, it advocates a rudimentary understanding of global events and/or being attentive to other culture's concerns and beliefs.

Ali and Camp (1996) continue to explain that general cultural knowledge coupled with ethnocentrism, cultural prejudice, arrogance, and pre-judgement will be a hindrance to a manager's progress in the local and global environment. While expatriation success is cited as the most expensive staffing strategy for MNCs (Caligiuri and Tarique, 2009; Liu and Lee, 2008)

global leader ineffectiveness will have such dire consequences for the MNC that it requires significant attention. Further, since economic competition is no longer limited locally in sovereign states, but among regional blocs, cross-cultural integration becomes the norm rather than the exception (Ali and Camp, 1996).

2.2.3 *Developing the Global Leader*

Stroh and Caligiuri (1998) cited in Caligiuri (2006) report that developing leadership cross-cultural competence were among the top five organisation-wide practices affecting the effectiveness of multinational corporations. A positive correlation was found between the firms' financial performance and the firm's ability to successfully develop global leadership capabilities (Caligiuri and Tarique, 2009)

Caligiuri, Lazarova, and Tarique (2005) cited in Caligiuri (2006) report that the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAOs) needed to perform the activities of global leaders can be developed through training and development interventions such as formal education, individualised coaching/mentoring, immersion programmes, and developmental assignments. Caligiuri (2006) has categorised these training and development interventions into: (i) didactic learning programmes, (ii) experiential opportunities, and (iii) intensive experiences.

Didactic learning opportunities for developing KSAOs for global competence includes cross-cultural training, diversity training, and language training. Generic cross-cultural training is thought to help individuals cope with the uncertainties of working with diverse cultures (Early, 1987, cited in Caligiuri, 2006) and form realistic expectations for their cross-cultural interactions and experiences (Caligiuri, 2006). Black and Mendenhall (1990) cited in Caligiuri (2006) suggests that culture-specific cross-cultural training will facilitate culturally appropriate behaviour and cohesive diverse working teams.

The outcomes of cross-cultural training, is intended to attune individuals to group-based differences and negative stereotyping and prejudice (Cox, 1993, and Ferdman and Broady, 1996, cited in Caligiuri 2006). Noe (2004) points out that diversity training mechanisms should improve intercultural interaction as it is intended to help employees successfully work with diverse working teams in the organisation ensuring task completion when working in diverse teams. Examples of these formal programmes are self-study courses, in-house or on-site company seminars offered by subject matter experts, off-site courses offered by academic institutions and company-sponsored management development programmes (Gupta and Govindarajan, 2002; Noe, 2004).

Caligiuri (2006) described experiential opportunities as the second level of intervention. These include coaching, mentoring and immersion programmes. These are effective interventions for improving skills and abilities; however, they are labour, cost, and time intensive interventions (ibid.).

Intensive cultural experiences, such as rotational programmes dedicated for leader development, were described as the third level of culturalisation, although these are also reported to be costly (ibid.). The exposure to different cultures that occurs at this level will therefore increase awareness of existing cultural beliefs, similarities and differences.

The individuals' KSAOs can affect the extent to which a training or development experience is effective (ibid.). Extensive research has concluded that well-adjusted and high-performing international assignees tend to share certain personality traits (refer to Caligiuri et al. 2009 for a review). Researchers have also demonstrated that specific personality characteristics (example openness) have enabled international assignees to be open and receptive to learning the norms

of new cultures, to initiate contact with host nationals and to gather cultural information (refer to Caligiuri et al. 2009 for a review).

Caligiuri and DiSanto (2001) found that knowledge and abilities changed with developmental international placement, but personality characteristics did not change. Personality characteristics therefore have high immutability, that is, it is very difficult to develop and change, and hence Caligiuri (2006) suggests that the level three intervention of intensive experience be used as a means of developing the global leader. “Life-changing experiences” and salient non-work cultural experiences, such as marrying a person of a different culture, are examples of developmental initiatives that will effect personality changes for leader development (ibid.).

It is from the above research on cross-cultural learning mechanisms that has led the researcher to consider the differentiation between work and non-work (social) related mechanisms as the constructs for this research.

2.3 Cross-cultural interactions

Multiculturalism, as defined in Caligiuri et al. (2009), refer to the extent to which employees, customers, suppliers and clients are from diverse cultural backgrounds and must coordinate the activities of people from diverse cultures to be effective.

From intergroup theory, the way in which the social reality is perceived is determined by various group memberships (Alderfer, 1987 cited in Mor Barak et al. 1998). Alderfer, Tucker, Morgan and Drasgow (1983) distinguish between identity groups and organisation groups by clarifying that the former includes race, ethnicity, gender, age and family, whilst the latter includes primary

tasks in the work environment that are similar in nature. Diversity management in the workplace can be considered an extension of the latter organisational group. Wharton, 1992 cited in Mor Barak, et al. 1998, point out that the organisation's demographic characteristics help shape the meanings that employees attach to their identity group memberships at work. Bornman (1999) and Booyesen and Nkomo (2005) cited in Booyesen (2007b) have found that race is the most salient identity categorisation in the South African workplace.

Alderfer et al. (1983) and Booyesen (2007b) point out that individuals will subscribe to all their identity and organisation groups simultaneously, however, the prevailing group that will be represented results from the intergroup context in which events occur. This intergroup context results from other individuals that are present in the group and representing their own groups, the group physical and psychological boundaries, power differences, affective patterns, cognitive formations and leadership behavior (ibid.). Cognitive formations are described as groups developing their own social categories, conditioning their members' perceptions of subjective and objective phenomena and thereby transferring sets of ideologies to explain the nature of experiences encountered by members and to influence relations with other groups (ibid.). It follows then that individual perceptions of the organisational climate, policies and leadership attributes, to name a few, will be affected by identity group memberships.

Pettigrew and Tropps (2000) conclude that people are more comfortable interacting with members of their own familiarity groups than with members from other groups. The reasons for this behaviour are that it facilitates ease of communication, improving the predictability of behaviour and of nurturing trust and reciprocity (ibid.). Soldan (2009) cites a study by Pelled, Ledford and Mohran (1999) that revealed that individuals different in gender, race, or age feel uncomfortable with others. Mor Barak, et al. (1998) who found that the level of comfort associated with diversity differs in the organisation by an individual's gender and ethnicity.

Larkey (1996) adds that members of an organisation in a culturally-diverse setting often experience difficulties in diversity-related interaction.

This social-psychological perspective is relevant in this research as it demonstrates how membership to identity groups shape perceptions and behaviours in different settings.

Mor Barak et al. (1998) refer to the overall diversity in the work environment as having two dimensions; a personal dimension comprised of individual's views and prejudices that influences attitude and behaviour and the organisational dimension that comprises of policies and procedures relating to the promotion of women and minority groups.

It can be argued that diversity in personal/social interactions is adopted by choice whilst initiatives in organisational diversity management are pre-empted and required by the organisation. It follows then that those engaged in high social diversity interactions will have social categories that are inclusive of diverse cultures, race and ethnicities. The organisational dimension of diversity was investigated by assessing the level of activity in workplace diversity initiatives. To investigate the personal dimension of diversity, the researcher has delved into assessing the level of diversity in social interactions and its resulting forming of perceptions on outstanding leader attributes. This therefore presents a view of the impact of the different types of intergroup interactions that occur in these two contexts and the resulting social reality that is created.

Societal and organisational cultural values and practices influence the process by which people share common beliefs about leaders (Dorfman et al. 2004, pp. 671-672). Due to the socialisation and self-categorisation that results from intergroup and social identity theory, over time members will develop leadership prototypes that traverses between cultures. Hall and Lord (1995) point out that at a group level, members of the same group will demonstrate

agreement or homogeneity amongst themselves in some characteristic that is relevant to leadership perceptions. The group can be viewed as a single, whole entity with respect to the specific characteristics being studied, with an expected variation in these characteristics amongst different groups (ibid.). Based on this, for this research, one's level of activity in the organisational and personal dimensions of diversity will be categorised as low, medium and high; and the perceptions of leadership characteristics will be studied for each of these groups.

2.4 Diversity experiences in the work environment

2.4.1 International work experience

Previous international experience has been found to facilitate the individual's ability to function and work effectively in a foreign country (examples in Selmer, 2002; Tung, 1998, Spreitzer et al. 1997). Takeuchi et al. (2005) cited in Caligiuri et al. (2009) found support for the moderating effects of past international experiences on the relationship between current assignment tenure and general work adjustment as well as specific work adjustment. However Caligiuri et al. (2009) make a generalisation that "individuals who have been in other cultures prior to a work assignment tend to adjust to the assignment better". The same researchers conclude that the greater contact of international assignees with host nationals and the host culture, the greater will be their cross-cultural adjustment, provided that the experience does not reinforce old stereotypes or foster negative, unrealistic expectations of the foreign culture (see Caligiuri et al. 2009 for a review). Bochner, Hutnik and Furnham (1986) cited in Caligiuri et al. (2009) report that based on social learning theory, greater contact of international assignees with the host country nationals and culture will result in greater cross-cultural adjustment. Similarly, Searl and Ward (1990) cited in Caligiuri et al. (2009) found that the international assignee's ability to learn culturally appropriate social skills and behaviors greatly improves with friendships with host

nationals. However, Ali and Camp (1996) suggest that although many people have worked in other countries, they did not understand the cultures nor speak the native language. Hence, in-country experiences may not adequately sensitize people to cultural differences, and will therefore be inadequate by itself for developing global leader qualities (ibid.). It must be noted that in-country exposure facilitates cross-cultural adjustment, if sufficient integration occurs with host nationals and culture. Otherwise, it will not aid in sensitising to cultural differences.

2.4.2 Diversity management in the workplace

Diversity is multidimensional by definition and varies depending on context and country. In South Africa, the definition of diversity is limited to racial, gender and physical disability categorisation (Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998, 2004). Its broader definition includes other factors like culture, age, national origin, sexual orientation, generation, social class, family, religion, professional, political and other personal affiliations (Dreaschlin, 2007; Carrell and Mann, 1995). According to Triandis (1976) cited in Capehart (2003) culturally diverse groups share a subjective culture that represents their worldview. Cox (1994) cited in Capehart (2003) suggests that different worldviews include beliefs, values, norms and attitudes.

For the purposes of this research multiculturalism and cultural diversity will be defined as:

“the racial differences between individuals and their resulting attitudes, beliefs and values that comprise their worldview”.

Individual development initiatives include diversity awareness workshops, sensitivity training for employees (Hoobler, Basadur and Lemmon, 2007). Diversity training is designed to improve intercultural interactions (Noe, 2004), help employees successfully work in diverse teams (Capehart, 2003), reduce own stereotyping and prejudice (Hoobler et al. 2007; Cox, 1994, cited in Capehart (2003); Friedman and Broady, 1996, cited in Caligiuri, 2006) and increase

sensitivity towards other cultures (Hoobler et al. 2007). Many companies take diversity to a higher level by creating greater development opportunities and increasing the availability of mentoring programs for high-potential minority employees (ibid.).

Glastra, Meerman, Schedler and de Vries (2000) argue that while organisations have requested for short duration diversity training, the nature of this training remains abstract and far from the actual discourse. It is therefore difficult to contextualise and apply any diversity learning's in their daily work environment (Kessels, 1996 cited in Glastra et al. 2000).

Glastra et al. (2000) recommends on-the-job training and learning and cites Lodewijks (1993) in that this will create "powerful learning environments". This becomes an internal training environment through working with a diverse work force, broad tasks and delegating responsibilities. This will therefore create the environment for multicultural interactions and reflections on diversity issues and other cultures.

Glastra et al. (2000) suggest that adopting organisational interventions like mentoring and having diversity councils enhance the development of minority groups and promote fair treatment in the workplace. The positive side of having a mentor is that it has the potential to result in mutual counselling and coaching (Kram and Hall, 1996, cited in Glastra et al. 2000). The social network, albeit a formal one, are important for task completion and facilitating vertical and horizontal mobility (Glastra et al. 2000). The diversity councils would incorporate representatives from different ethnic groups to monitor the progress and problems of the company's diversity programmes with an attempt at bridging the gaps. Glastra et al. (2000) cites Meerman (1999) who demonstrated that such councils become a starting point for transforming the organisational agenda.

Oetzel (1998, 2001) cited in Dreachslin (2007) reports that strong group processing skills and group interdependence are important features to performance amongst diverse groups. Shieh, Wang and Wang (2009) point out that the aim of cross-cultural management is to enable employees to adapt in a multicultural organisation and for expatriates to learn local cultures and environments rapidly. Dreachslin (2007) is of the view that diversity initiatives that are appropriately leveraged can improve group performance. Booysen (2007a) cites Ngambi's (2002) study that demonstrates that in South Africa, with the legacy of apartheid still entrenched in the minds of both leadership, management and the workers, most organisations still have a long way to go towards promoting the "business case" argument of diversity and further promoting a paradigm for valuing diversity. This has severe implications for corporates' competitiveness at a national level in an emerging economy and for those organisations with growth ambitions at an international level.

2.5 Diversity in the Social and Personal Context

Ali and Camp (1996) however, challenge the concept of cross-cultural training and report that in itself it is not enough for building the skill set and qualities required in a global manager, and that a large portion of these training programmes are ineffective. The reasons cited are that trainers may lack adequate skill and/or the required perspectives; and these skills cannot be taught over a few days (ibid.). The programme's success is largely dependant on the trainee who must have an openness to learn and espouse the new knowledge gained. Hence, learning and adopting global qualities is a continuous process with a commitment and willingness to learn that must be developed over a period of time. In line with that rationale, Glastra et al. (2000) specify that external training in diversity is only relevant if it taps into the ongoing learning process.

Significant intercultural experiences, albeit in one's personal or professional life, enables one to learn the nuances of behaviour that is expected in another culture compared to one's own, thus aiding in better understanding of own cultural values, assumptions (Caligiuri and Tarique, 2009) and negative behaviours and their mitigation (Dreachslin, 2007). Being sensitive to these characteristics within oneself and the norms of behaviour in other cultures, enables the development of intercultural competence important for success in global leadership activities (Caligiuri et al. 2009; Dreachslin, 2007)

Caligiuri and Tarique (2009) found evidence suggesting that family diversity predicted global leadership effectiveness. This type of diversity was defined in terms of the individual's country of birth relative to the national backgrounds of his/her parent. The assertion thus, is that intercultural experiences that will aid in preparing for effective global leaders need not happen solely in the workplace. These interactions may have occurred in childhood or early adulthood, as a consequence of being a member of a multicultural household (Caligiuri and Tarique, 2009).

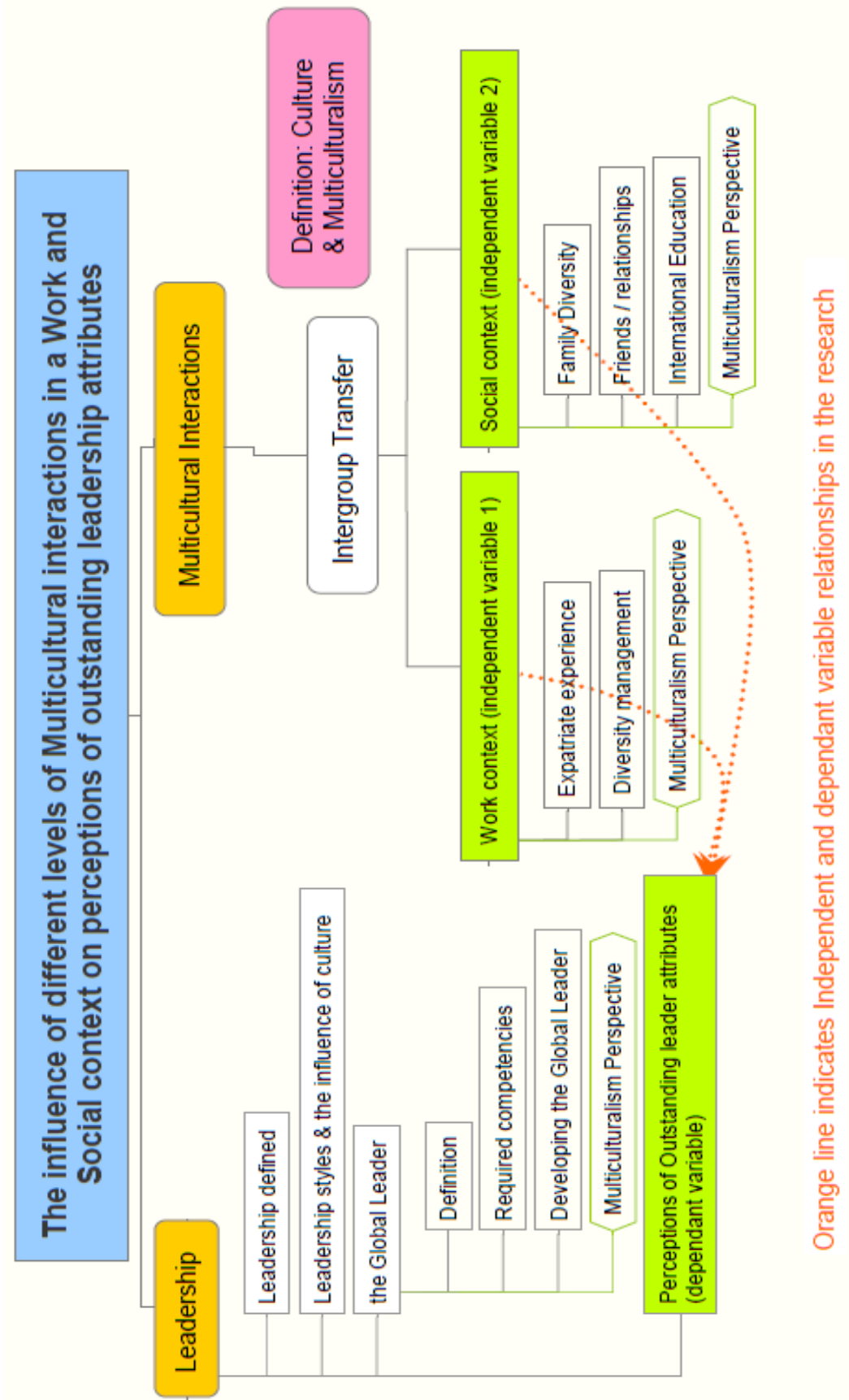
International travel or living experiences in childhood has also been researched as another non-work predictor for international success (Cottrell and Useem, 1993, cited in Caligiuri et al. 2009). The theoretical evidence supporting this is that with extensive early international experiences, individuals are more likely to have learning or information processing advantages that would facilitate the learning of new behaviours and skills through experience, observations and forming new cognitive maps about other cultures (see Caligiuri et al. 2009 for a review of related research). Caligiuri et al. (2009) suggest that these candidates with greater international experience, including experience from childhood, may be more effective in the cross-cultural context; and assessing these experiences can add to the body of knowledge in predicting success in foreign assignments.

Kanter (1977) and Lincoln and Miller (1979) cited in Mor Barak et al. (1998) indicated that interpersonal similarities increases ease of communication, improves behaviour predictability and fosters trust and reciprocity in relationships. Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) cited in Rose-Redwood, (2010) report that the evidence is “reasonably clear and consistent” that having friends of other race/ethnicity and being a member of inter-racial friendship groups have significant and positive net effects on racial-ethnic attitudes and values. Aberson, Shoemaker and Tomolillo, (2004) cited studies where intergroup friendship were found to reduce bias toward ethnic minorities. The same researchers present their own results where interethnic friendships with African Americans and Latinos reduce unconscious biases towards the same groups. Kao and Joyner (2004) found that not all racial interactions are the same and that the frequency of shared activities with friends indicates the intimacy with said group of friends, which in the particular study indicated racially homophilous groups.

2.6 Summary of literature study

This literature study has highlighted that working in a global environment requires the leader having openness to significant intercultural interactions and experiences. It has been shown that these interactions can occur in the work environment through formal training and diversity programmes, and in the social context through family history, education, childhood travel, and relationships. This and the relationship between the constructs are described by Figure 1 below. The findings of the literature study were used to develop the research instrument for evaluating the levels of Work and Social Diversity Interactions.

Figure 1: Scope of literature study and relationship to constructs



3 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

“I am neither especially clever nor especially gifted. I am only very, very curious”

— Albert Einstein

This chapter outlines the questions that this study aimed to answer. The research questions were focussed on gaining an understanding of different levels of diversity interactions, and of the role of the two different contexts of these interactions, namely a work and a social context. These constructs were then related to perceptions of leadership attributes. The research questions were arrived at from the literature study in Chapter 2.

In Chapter 2, it was discussed how the GLOBE study found evidence that leadership attributes varies amongst cultures and societies. This makes working across cultures particularly complex, and requires a sensitivity, awareness and openness to other cultures that is brought about by didactic training or social interactions. This research therefore sought to investigate if different levels and different contexts of cross-cultural interactions play a role in perceptions of outstanding leadership attributes. This was achieved by segmenting respondents into three groups by their level of work and social multicultural interactions and subsequently evaluating their perceptions of the six globally endorsed leadership attributes. The GLOBE study has demonstrated that these leadership attributes are associated with performing effectively in a multicultural global environment (Dorfman et al. 2004, pp. 669-719).

WDII and SDII below refer to Work Diversity Interaction Index and Social Diversity Interaction Index respectively, and are explained later in Chapter 4.5. The research hypotheses are outlined below.

3.1 Hypothesis 1

It is expected that there will be differences in one or more of the six CLTs at the different WDI levels. The first research hypothesis therefore is:

The leadership attributes of Charisma, Team-Oriented, Humane-Oriented, Participative, Self-Protected and Autonomous will be perceived differently, at the different levels of work diversity interactions.

To test this hypothesis, the following ANOVA tests will be performed:

There is a mean difference in the perceptions of the leadership attributes of Charisma, Team-Oriented, Humane-Oriented, Participative, Self-Protected and Autonomous, between W_1 , W_2 and W_3 . That is,

$$H_{1a}: \mu W_1 \text{ Charisma} = \mu W_2 \text{ Charisma} = \mu W_3 \text{ Charisma}$$

$$H_{1b}: \mu W_1 \text{ Team-Oriented} = \mu W_2 \text{ Team-Oriented} = \mu W_3 \text{ Team-Oriented}$$

$$H_{1c}: \mu W_1 \text{ Humane-Oriented} = \mu W_2 \text{ Humane-Oriented} = \mu W_3 \text{ Humane-Oriented}$$

$$H_{1d}: \mu W_1 \text{ Participative} = \mu W_2 \text{ Participative} = \mu W_3 \text{ Participative}$$

$$H_{1e}: \mu W_1 \text{ Self-Protected} = \mu W_2 \text{ Self-Protected} = \mu W_3 \text{ Self-Protected}$$

$$H_{1f}: \mu W_1 \text{ Autonomous} = \mu W_2 \text{ Autonomous} = \mu W_3 \text{ Autonomous}$$

3.2 Hypothesis 2

It is expected that there will be differences in one or more of the six CLTs at the different SDI levels. The second research hypothesis therefore is:

The leadership attributes of Charisma, Team-Oriented, Humane-Oriented, Participative, Self-Protected and Autonomous will be perceived differently, at the different levels of work and social diversity interactions.

To test this hypothesis, the following ANOVA tests will be performed:

There is a mean difference in the perceptions of the leadership attributes, Team-Oriented, Humane-Oriented, Participative, Self-Protected and Autonomous, between W_1 , W_2 and W_3 . That is,

$$H_{2a}: \mu S_1 \text{ Charisma} = \mu S_2 \text{ Charisma} = \mu S_3 \text{ Charisma}$$

$$H_{2b}: \mu S_1 \text{ Team-Oriented} = \mu S_2 \text{ Team-Oriented} = \mu S_3 \text{ Team-Oriented}$$

$$H_{2c}: \mu S_1 \text{ Humane-Oriented} = \mu S_2 \text{ Humane-Oriented} = \mu S_3 \text{ Humane-Oriented}$$

$$H_{2d}: \mu S_1 \text{ Participative} = \mu S_2 \text{ Participative} = \mu S_3 \text{ Participative}$$

$$H_{2e}: \mu S_1 \text{ Self-Protected} = \mu S_2 \text{ Self-Protected} = \mu S_3 \text{ Self-Protected}$$

$$H_{2f}: \mu S_1 \text{ Autonomous} = \mu S_2 \text{ Autonomous} = \mu S_3 \text{ Autonomous}$$

3.3 Hypothesis 3

It is expected that the different levels of Work and Social Diversity Interactions in combination with each other will impact perceptions of the leadership attributes; and as a result a high WDI-high SDI will not be equivalent to a low WDI-low SDI. The third research hypothesis states that:

There will be a difference in the combined effect of High or Medium WDI and High or Medium SDI against Low or Medium WDI and Low or Medium SDI.

To test this hypothesis, the following two sample T-tests will be performed:

- a) There is a mean difference in the perceptions of one or more of the six CLT attributes between W_3S_3 , W_3S_2 or W_2S_3 and W_1S_1 , W_1S_2 or W_2S_1 .

4 PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

“Great things are not done by impulse, but by a series of small things brought together.”

— Vincent Van Gogh

This chapter outlines the research plan for selecting the type of information required for the research instrument and the medium of field work and data analysis to answer the research questions.

4.1 *Research Design*

The fundamental difference between qualitative and quantitative research is that the former delves into the ‘what, where and when’ whilst the latter is concerned with the ‘why and how’ of human behaviour (Zigmund, 2003, pp. 110-111). This research intended to describe the extent of differences in the perceptions of outstanding leader attributes resulting from the different levels of multicultural exposure in the work and social environments. A quantitative descriptive research design was used, as it supports this type of research as explained by Zigmund (2003, p. 111).

Furthermore, quantitative design supports data gathering of many responses within a short period of time, and also considers a low budget for conducting the research (Zigmund, 2003, p. 175). Online survey dissemination was the proposed medium for gathering the data. This allows for managing a limited budget by eliminating the need to pay for return envelopes and stamps if it were emailed, or telephone costs arising from conducting telephonic interviews.

4.2 Unit of Analysis

This research assessed management's perceptions of outstanding leadership attributes, based on their multicultural experiences through their work experiences and their own social interactions.

The unit of analysis was the respondents' perception of outstanding leader attributes.

4.3 Population

The population of relevance extended to South African middle management (Level 4 and Level 5) members of a petroleum multinational company. These employees were considered to be exposed to different levels of cross-cultural exposure through:

- international work exposure, and/or
- diversity management initiatives via the member's local or global presence, and/or
- engaging in global activities via the member's local or global presence.

This multinational company (MNC) was selected as it is a large South African company, listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange. This company has offices and/or production facilities in Europe, United States of America, Middle East and Asia. This therefore implies that senior employees may be exposed to customers, clients or suppliers from other countries.

The population size amounts to several thousand when spanned across all the company's strategic business units.

4.4 Sample definition, selection and size

A precise sample selection was done. The sample frame was the global outlook address book, specifically the Level 4 and Level 5 distribution groups of four business units of the organisation. This sample selection was limited to employees currently based in South Africa. These criteria were placed in an attempt to reduce the sample size. The four specific business units (BU's) were selected due to the BU's large international work portfolios and because the employees in those BU's are spread over three national geographic regions. This can be considered a convenience sample as the researcher had access to the employee database within this MNC. This sample size consisted of 350 members that were randomly selected from the sample frame.

4.5 Data gathering process

4.5.1 Research Instrument

The research instrument was an online survey. A link to a confidential web-based e-survey was sent to the participants' company email account. This provided the advantages of speed and ease of distribution; lower distribution and processing costs as data was exported in an easy-to-use Microsoft Office Excel format; and faster turnaround times for receiving feedback. The instrument was able to track the invitations responded to and the researcher subsequently sent reminder prompts to the non-respondents. The large sample size was thus easily accommodated for by this instrument.

The online survey opened with a cover letter that explained the purpose of the study, with the emphasis of voluntary participation and the maintaining of confidentiality of individual responses

(refer to Appendix I for a copy of the cover letter used). A similar cover letter was included in the body of the email sent to the selected sample. The survey then comprised of four data collection sections, namely (i) and (ii) operational definitions for the two independent variables, (iii) operational definitions for the dependent variable, and (iv) demographic profiling. A copy of the full list of questions used for the study and their relative scoring can be found in Appendix 2. The URL for the online survey tool was:

http://www.kwiksurveys.com/online-survey.php?surveyID=KOKIHH_7d07f148.

4.5.2 Construct and scales

The two primary level constructs were Leadership and Multicultural contact. The latter is the independent variable and constitutes two subcategories of “Work Diversity Interactions” (WDI) and “Social Diversity Interactions” (SDI). The independent variables will be discussed below, followed by the dependant variable.

4.5.3 Independent variables

Work Diversity Interaction

For WDI, the themes considered for the research instrument were (a) Intercultural diversity awareness initiatives (b) Intercultural diverse working relationships and (c) Effectiveness and quality of exposure. The latter theme, (c), was added to WDI only (and not SDI) as work intercultural interactions may be considered mandatory, whilst social intercultural contact may be out of personal preference and hence assumed to be effective by its presence. The activities and/or interactions considered for the two subcategories were mainly identified through the literature study, discussed in Chapter 2. Specific questions relating to the organisation’s own diversity initiative were also included. The sources used to derive the questions in this section of the instrument are indicated in Table 1 below, per theme.

Table 1: Sources used for Questionnaire construction for the sub category of Work Diversity Interactions

a. Intercultural diversity awareness initiatives	
Question 1	Soldan, 2002; Tung, 1998; Spreitzer et al. 1997; Caligiuri et al. 2009 for a review
Question 7, 11	Company-specific diversity initiatives as suggested by Hoobler, et al. 2007
Question 8	Ali & Camp, 1996; Holvino et al. 2004
b. Intercultural diverse working relationships	
Question 2	Glastra, et al. 2000
Question 4	Hoobler, et al. 2007
Question 10	Company-specific diversity initiatives as suggested by Hoobler, et al. 2007
c. Effectiveness and quality of exposure	
Question 3, 5, 6, 9, 12, 13, 14	Ali & Camp, 1996; Hoobler, et al. 2007; Holvino et al. 2004; Caligiuri et al. 2009 for a review; Noe, 2004; Cox, 1994 cited in Caligiuri, 2006

Social Diversity Interaction

For SDI, the themes considered were (a) General Intercultural contact and (b) Close Intercultural relationships. The sources used to derive the questions in this section of the instrument are indicated in Table 2 below, per theme.

Table 2: Sources used for Questionnaire construction for the sub category of Social Diversity Interactions

a. Intercultural contact	
Questions 1, 2, 6	Aberson, et al. Caligiuri, 2006; Caligiuri et al. 2009 (for a review),
b. Close Intercultural relationships	
Questions 3, 4, 5, 8	Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009; Caligiuri, 2006; Caligiuri et al. 2009 (for a review), Pettigrew & Tropps, 2000
Questions 7	Kao & Joyner, 2004

Method of Calculating the Indices

Two index measures were created for the two subcategories, namely a Work Diversity Interaction Index (WDII), and a Social Diversity Interaction Index (SDII). Each question was allocated an equivalent weighting and each answer option had a numerical score from 0 to 5, as relevant. This collectively contributed to the overall score in the respective index (numerical scores indicated in Appendix 2).

Based on the number of interactions and activities that a leader is engaged in, a score was calculated for the leader's overall level of involvement in cross-cultural activity in the work and social contexts. The scores were assigned to three strata based on the principles of quantile calculations (D'Agostino, 2004, cited in Hintze, 2007, p. 124-1). This implies that level 1 stratum refers to low diversity activity and interactions, 2 is medium or average, and 3 is a high level of diversity interactions.

4.5.4 Dependent variables

The GLOBE leadership item research instrument, "perceptions of outstanding leadership", was modified and used as the operational definition for the dependant variable. The original questionnaire and its syntax are made freely available through the GLOBE Foundation, and hence permission was not required for its use. This was sourced from the internet website at http://www.thunderbird.edu/sites/globe/globe_instruments/index.htm (accessed on March 10, 2010).

According to Hanges and Dickson (2004, p. 132), the societal-level means of the leadership item responses for Form Alpha respondents were not significantly different from those for Form Beta, and were thus combined to provide the societal mean. Hence, it is inferred that there is

no difference in these forms and they may be used independently of each other. Consequently, Form Beta questionnaire and syntax was used; specifically Chapters 2 and 4 of Form Beta.

The GLOBE leadership instrument contains 112 items of leader behavioural and trait descriptors that were reported as being consistent with previous research on implicit leadership theory (Hanges and Dickson, 2004, pp. 136-137). The items reflect a variety of skills, abilities, personality and traits that are potentially relevant to leadership emergence and effectiveness. The six global CLT scales with their subcategories are shown in Figure 2 below. The subcategories of CLT 1 – 5 are indicated in each block. However, dimension 6 (Autonomous) was described by its questionnaire items and not specific subcategories.

Figure 2: GLOBE CLT scales and subcategories

<p><i>1. Charismatic/Value-Based</i> Charismatic 1: Visionary Charismatic 2: Inspirational Charismatic 3: Self-Sacrifice Integrity Decisive Performance-oriented</p>	<p><i>2. Team-Oriented</i> Team 1: Collaborative Team Orientation Team 2: Team Integrator Diplomatic Malevolent (reverse-scored) Administratively competent</p>
<p><i>3. Self-Protective</i> Self-centered Status conscious Conflict inducer Face-saver Procedural</p>	<p><i>4. Participative</i> Autocratic (reverse-scored) Nonparticipative (reverse-scored)</p>
<p><i>5. Humane-Oriented</i> Modesty Humane orientation</p>	<p><i>6. Autonomous</i> Individualistic Independent Autonomous Unique</p>

Source: The GLOBE Foundation (2006)

The subcategories per dimension were retained, but the number of items per subcategory was reduced. This was done to remove duplication and items that did not cross-reference to any of

the CLT scales. The GLOBE instrument varied from 2 to 7 items in a subcategory. Neither the syntax document, nor any of the GLOBE publications refer to disproportionate weightings for each item within an attribute or subcategory. There were also no cautionary notes made by the GLOBE foundation with regards to modifying the instrument, although other cautionary remarks were made for the use of the instrument. This non-disclosure was used by the researcher as grounds for modifying the tool, to remove duplication and reduce the number of questions in the overall survey to an acceptable level.

The modification to the instrument was therefore done in the following way:

For dimensions 1, 2 and 3, two items per subcategory were used from the GLOBE instrument. Since only two subcategories constitute dimensions 4 and 5, four items per subcategory were used. For dimension 6, all four items were used. This resulted in a list of 50 items constituting the questions for the dependant variable for this research.

Hanges and Dickson (2004, p. 124) state that the GLOBE scales were designed to assess convergent-emergent constructs, and not individual-level variation in societies or cultures. These considerations were maintained in this research thus making the instrument applicable for this study.

Method of Scoring the Dependant Variable

The 50 items were rated on a seven-point Likert scale that ranged from a low of “this behaviour or characteristic greatly inhibits a person from being an outstanding leader” to a high of “this behaviour or characteristic contributes greatly to a person being an outstanding leader”. As per the GLOBE study criteria, attributes that exceeded a mean of five were universally endorsed as an outstanding leadership attribute, whilst attributes considered impediments to outstanding leadership had a mean of less than three, on the seven-point scale. The researcher further

adds that attributes considered favourably as a contributor to outstanding leadership must exceed four on the seven-point scale, whilst attributes considered inhibiting to outstanding leadership will be less than four on the same seven-point scale.

4.5.5 Method of analysis

Approved Statistical Software, NCSS, was be used to conduct the statistical analysis for the study. The Cronbach Alpha was used to test the internal consistency estimate for the reliability of the test scores.

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the sample and study variables. The total responses were subsequently grouped by their mean value into three strata and treated as three “independent” samples for the relevant parametric tests for hypothesis one and two. These strata corresponded to the level of diversity interaction in the work context (WDI) and the social context (SDI). Hence WDI level 1 (W_1) indicates low work diversity interaction, whilst level three will indicate a higher work diversity interaction level (W_3). S and W refer to SDI and WDI respectively. The subscripts indicate the level of activity in each category. Further classification according to the matrix in Table 3 below was done to test for hypothesis three.

Table 3: Primary level data analysis matrix

$S_1 W_1$	$S_2 W_1$	$S_3 W_1$
$S_1 W_2$	$S_2 W_2$	$S_3 W_2$
$S_1 W_3$	$S_2 W_3$	$S_3 W_3$

The appropriate tests for the respective hypotheses discussed in Chapter 1 were established from Albright, Winston and Zappe (2009, pp. 497-555). An analysis of variance (ANOVA)

statistical analysis was used to test hypothesis one, whilst the two-sample T-tests were performed for hypothesis two and three.

4.6 Assumptions of the study

Some high level assumptions were made by the researcher for the planning, co-ordinating and conducting of this research. These are discussed further below.

The selected sample size was assumed to be an adequate representation of the population, as the sample was taken from multiple business units. Furthermore, the respondents, due to their job level, were assumed to be in an appropriate position to answer the questions.

The GLOBE leadership instrument, although modified by the researcher, was valid for use and yielded meaningful results according to its six CLT dimensions.

The language of dissemination of the survey was understandable by all, as the selected MNC's official business language in South Africa is English.

Although Yu and Cooper (1983) have found that a higher response rate is obtained with personal and telephonic interviews than mail surveys, the assumption was that the non response error was low as the non-respondents were re-contacted via email and reminded to complete the survey – a feature that was allowed by the online survey tool. Furthermore, the tool in itself was easy to use, and the results did not require the respondent to redirect the completed survey to the researcher. Hence it was assumed that the response rate was sufficient for conducting parametric statistical analyses.

The nature of this study lent itself to social desirability bias that Zigmund (2003, p. 183) refers to as the desire to appear in a favourable social role. This error occurs more frequently in personal interviews (ibid.). It was therefore assumed that the use of the online tool as the research instrument sought to minimise this error due to its anonymity, and lack of personal interface between the researcher and the respondents.

4.7 Limitations of the study

Due to the limited time allocation in conducting a Master's level research, there are some limitations to this study that had arose in planning, co-ordinating and conducting this study. These warrant a discussion, as it should be considered for future research.

The biographical section of the questionnaire retrieved information of the participant's ethnic background, and was used for describing differences by ethnicity. A lack of ethnic diversity amongst the respondents may have influenced the results that have been explained by differences in ethnic groups. For example, only 11 respondents were from the Coloured race group. Although the diversity in ethnicity of the respondents may be comparable to the country demographics, it however limits detailed analyses by ethnicity.

The survey was disseminated to employees of a single multinational organisation. This provides a limited view on generalising the results across different organisations, industries and sectors. Furthermore, the questionnaire did not investigate for the interference of organisational culture on the individual responses. However the biographical section of the questionnaire requested information on the respondent's tenure within the company and was used to draw inferences on the impact of organisational culture.

5 RESULTS

“The beginning of Wisdom is to call things by their right names.”

— Chinese Proverb

This chapter outlines the results of the statistical analyses according to various sub-headings. Internal reliability and descriptive analysis is first provided, followed by the stratified data according to the three WDI and SDI strata. Analysis of the un-stratified data is also described.

5.1 *Internal Reliability*

The Cronbach Alpha was used to determine the internal reliability of the instrument. This was done specifically for the diversity sections of the questionnaire (section A and B) using the Item Analysis test of NCSS. The Cronbach Alpha measures the inter-item consistency, and therefore Cortina (1993) emphasises that the Cronbach Alpha is a function of the number of items in a scale. A high Cronbach Alpha suggests that the instrument is able to produce the same results with repeated measures. Carmines (1990) cited in Hintze (2007, p. 505-2) points out that a Cronbach Alpha value of at least 0.80 should be achieved for widely used instruments. Cortina (1993) refers to recent studies that accepts a Cronbach Alpha value of greater than or equal to 0.70 as adequate.

The Work Diversity Interaction (WDI) section (Section A of the questionnaire) had a Cronbach Alpha of 0.63; with two negative correlations for WDI questions eight and ten (refer to Table 4 below). Due to the high negative correlation for WDI question eight, this question was removed from further analysis. This improved Cronbach Alpha to 0.71 for the Work Diversity Interaction

Section. WDI question ten was retained as its correlation total was very close to zero and its removal did not improve the Cronbach Alpha.

Table 4: Cronbach Alpha and Correlation totals of the two negative items in the Work Diversity Interaction section of the questionnaire.

If Omitted:	Coefficient alpha	Correlation total
WDI Question 8	0. 7101	-0. 2288
WDI Question 10	0. 6321	-0. 0007

Cronbach Alpha was 0.66 for the Social Diversity interaction section (Section B of the questionnaire). Although the Cronbach Alpha value for SDI items is lower than 0.70, all of its item scales were retained in the analysis based on the utility of the scales (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994 cited in Hanges and Dickson, 2004, p. 147) and the context of the application of the Cronbach Alpha value (Hollenbeck, 1991 cited in Cortina, 1993).

The R^2 values for both WDI and SDI sections were far lower than 0.95, indicating that there were no redundant items in both sections.

A test for internal reliability was not required for Section C of the questionnaire, as the publicly available GLOBE leadership instrument was used. Hanges and Dickson (2004, p. 136) report an average Cronbach Alpha of 0.75 for the 21 leadership attribute scales.

5.2 Response rate

The two criteria for respondents to be included in this study were that participants must be currently resident in South Africa and be working in middle management at levels 4 and 5, at the

selected MNC. Of the completed responses received, two hundred and sixty nine respondents met the researcher-set criteria required to participate in this research, yielding **a response rate of 77%**. Sixty nine percent of the respondents were in the higher end age groups; equivalent to or older than 33 years of age (refer to Figure 3). Eighty six percent of the respondents had a tenure equivalent to or in excess of three years at the company (refer to Figure 4). The ethnic distributions of respondents across the four main South African race groups were 54% White, 25% Black, 16% Asian and 5% Coloured (refer to Figure 5).

Figure 3: Age profile of respondents

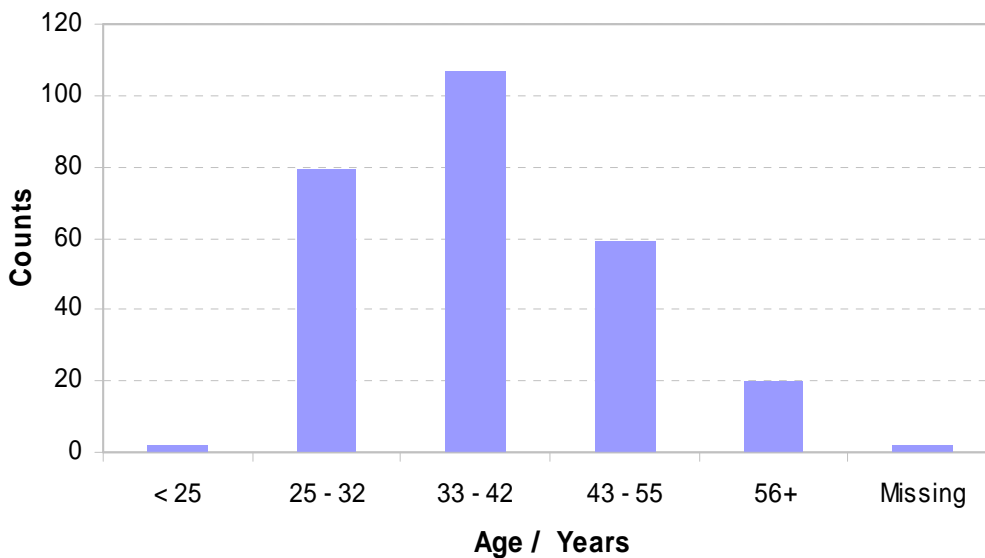


Figure 4: Tenure profile of respondents

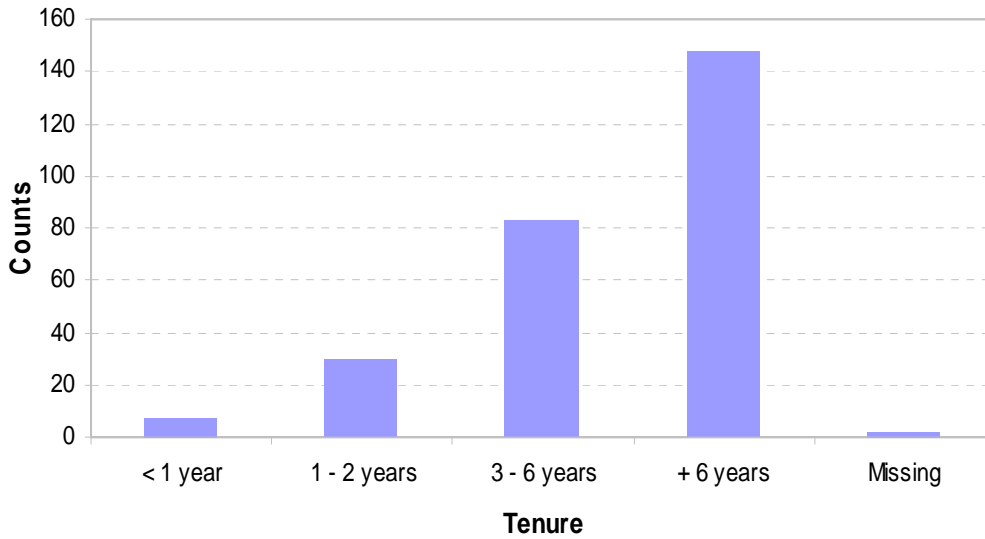
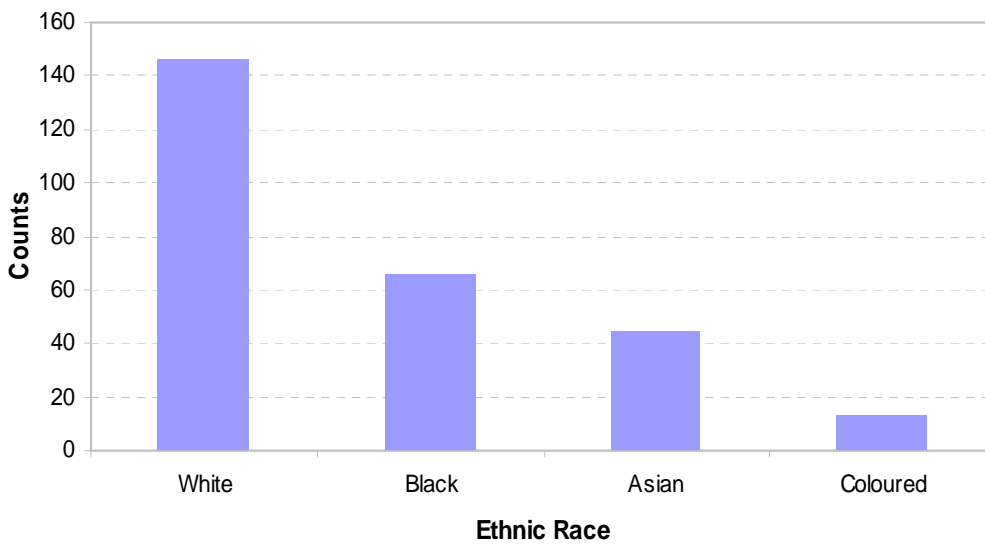


Figure 5: Ethnic profile of respondents



5.3 Non Response analysis

Amongst the responses received, the researcher was confronted with missing data. The *Listwise deletion* method, described in Schwab (2005, p. 234) was used to remove the entire case when responses to the independent variables were incomplete. Consequently, the six observations with missing data on the independent variable were treated as non-responses. Schwab (2005, p. 234) suggests a large number of cases can be lost in this way, although the actual missing data may be little in comparison. However, with only six such occurrences in the current dataset, this does not present a great loss in data.

On the other hand, more cases were obtained with missing data in the dependent variable (37 observations). This may be due to the items for the dependent variable occurring at the back end of the questionnaire, hence resulting in incomplete responses. The results of these incomplete questionnaires were not included in the data analysis. Hence the response rate reported above was calculated post these exclusions.

5.4 Stratified data analysis for Hypothesis Testing

As noted above, WDII and SDII scores were stratified into three strata and treated as six “independent” samples. These strata correspond to the level of diversity interaction in the work context (WDI) and the social context (SDI). Table 5 indicates the sample means for each of the CLTs with respect to the three levels of each diversity index.

One-way ANOVA tests were performed on the means of each CLT with respect to the three levels of the diversity indices. Albright et al. (2009, p. 548) report that ANOVA tests are based

on two key assumptions: (1) the population variances are equal to a common variance, and (2) the populations are normally distributed. The tests for normality were rejected in all cases, except Autonomous CLT. The Modified-Levene Equal-Variance test was used to test for equal variance. With samples of unequal variances, the Aspin-Welch two sample T-Tests were performed to evaluate mean differences.

ANOVA tests are fairly robust to violations of the normality assumptions when the sample sizes, n , are large and similar (ibid.). This follows from the Central Limit Theorem for which most analysts suggest $n \geq 30$ as a rule of thumb for large sample sizes (Albright et al. 2009, p. 411). The T-Tests and ANOVA tests were conducted at an alpha value of 0.100, that is, at 10% significance level with a p-value < 0.100 indicating a case for the research hypothesis.

Table 5: CLT Means with respect to WDII and SDII levels, with counts (n) reflected in brackets in column 1

Diversity Level	Charismatic	Team-Oriented	Self-Protected	Participative	Humane-Oriented	Autonomous
W1(96)	5.889	5.790	3.396	5.390	4.883	3.870
W2 (93)	5.810	5.745	3.940	5.302	4.775	4.065
W3 (80)	5.845	5.751	3.403	5.412	4.913	3.800
S1(101)	5.778	5.700*	3.385	5.308	4.852	3.874
S2 (92)	5.857	5.750	3.299*	5.312	4.866	3.929
S3 (76)	5.932	5.862*	3.533*	5.474	4.846	3.957

* Significant at alpha = 0.100

As observed in Table 5, no significant mean differences were observed for any of the six CLTs with respect to the different WDI levels, thus rejecting the research hypothesis 1a – 1f.

The leadership attributes of Charisma, Team-Oriented, Humane-Oriented, Participative, Self-Protected and Autonomous are not perceived differently, at the different levels of Work Diversity Interactions.

Significant differences were observed for two CLTs with respect to SDII. In Team-Oriented, SDI levels 1 and 3 showed a difference of means (p-value < 0.0315). In Self-Protected, SDI levels 2 and 3 showed a difference of means (p-value < 0.0606). Respondents at a higher SDI level supported a higher mean in both CLTs, than respondents with a lower level of SDI. These observations are in support of hypothesis 2b and 2e, whilst hypothesis 2a, 2c, 2d and 2f were rejected. It is therefore noted that:

The leadership attributes of Team-Oriented and Self-Protected are perceived differently, at the different levels of social diversity interactions, and

The leadership attributes of Charisma, Humane-Oriented, Participative and Autonomous are not perceived differently, at the different levels of social diversity interactions.

To test hypothesis three, the combined mean values of each CLT at the three different WDI and SDI levels were determined. These are indicated in Table 6 together with the number of counts for each W-S combination level. Parametric two sample T-Tests were conducted for each item of the matrix of Table 6 against each other, except W_1S_3 as it had a low count.

Table 6: Counts and CLT means at each WDI and SDI levels

Counts	W1	W2	W3
S1	45	33	23
S2	33	33	26
S3	18	27	31
Mean: Charisma	W1	W2	W3
S1	5.880	5.766	5.596
S2	5.879	5.748	5.967
S3	5.928	5.940	5.927
Mean: Team-Oriented	W1	W2	W3
S1	5.808	5.639	5.578
S2	5.757	5.685	5.823
S3	5.807	5.947	5.821
Mean: Self-Protected	W1	W2	W3
S1	3.406	3.291	3.477
S2	3.319	3.343	3.216
S3	3.512	3.581	3.505
Mean: Participative	W1	W2	W3
S1	5.443	5.266	5.124
S2	5.389	5.306	5.794
S3	5.262	5.342	5.305
Mean: Humane-Oriented	W1	W2	W3
S1	5.023	4.705	4.728
S2	4.760	4.752	5.144
S3	4.760	4.888	4.858
Mean: Autonomous	W1	W2	W3
S1	3.756	4.068	3.826
S2	4.015	4.045	3.673
S3	3.889	4.083	3.887

Twenty one occurrences of significant differences of mean of the items in the above matrix were observed and are indicated in Table 7 below.

Table 7: Significant observations of CLTs with respect to combined WDI and SDI levels for Hypothesis three

No.	Sample 1	Sample 2	p – value
Charisma			
1	W2S2	W3S2	0.0661
Team-Oriented			
2	W1S1	W2S1	0.0462
3	W1S1	W2S3	0.0998
4	W1S2	W2S3	0.0532
5	W2S1	W2S3	0.0003
6	W2S1	W3S2	0.0552
7	W2S1	W3S3	0.0313
8	W2S2	W2S3	0.0037
9	W2S3	W3S1	0.0281
Self-Protected			
10	W2S3	W3S2	0.0793
11	W3S2	W3S3	0.0969
Participative			
12	W1S1	W3S2	0.0924
13	W1S2	W3S2	0.0667
14	W2S1	W3S2	0.0152
15	W2S2	W3S2	0.0140
16	W2S3	W3S2	0.0884
17	W3S1	W3S2	0.0100
18	W3S2	W3S3	0.0513
Humane-Oriented			
19	W1S2	W3S2	0.0845
20	W2S1	W3S2	0.0336
21	W2S2	W3S2	0.0640

For Team-Oriented, the combination of S_1 and S_3 with W_1 , W_2 and W_3 in items 2 - 9 of Table 7 showed enhancements of the significant differences observed. W_1 increased S_1 and S_2 , whilst W_2 increased S_3 but reduced S_1 . W_3 increased S_3 but decreased S_1 and S_3 . However, no consistent pattern was discernable. A pattern of the influencing role of varying diversity interactions could not be identified with respect to Team-Oriented. However, hypothesis three was supported for Team-Oriented, through item 3 of Table 7.

For Self-Protected, S_2 and S_3 in combination with W_2 and W_3 in items 10 and 11 of Table 7 showed mean differences that were accentuated. The means of the combined diversity indices were reduced from that of the individual S_2 and S_3 , with a greater difference occurring in the combined means of item 11 (mean difference = 0.289) than the individual S_2 and S_3 difference (mean difference = 0.234). For item 11, this suggests that W_3 (high work diversity interactions) played a role in lowering the means of Self-Protected.

The influencing role of W_2 and W_3 was observed through item 10 of Table 7. Whilst W_2 has increased the mean of S_3 , W_3 has reduced the mean of S_2 thus creating a bigger difference between the means of item 10 (mean difference = 0.365) than observed above with item 11.

Although no significant differences were observed with the individual diversity indices with respect to Charisma, Participative and Human-Orientation, significance was observed in the combination of the work and social constructs. For Participative, all significant differences were observed with the combination $W_3 S_2$. Their combined effect resulted in an increase in the means from the two individual diversity indices.

The difference of a low level diversity combination with a high level diversity combination is observed in items 12 to 15 of Table 7. This is evidence in support of hypothesis three, indicating that there is a difference in the perceptions of the degree to which Participative CLT contributes to outstanding leadership by respondents that had low and medium work and social diversity interactions from respondents that had medium social and high work diversity interactions.

Hypothesis three is also supported by items 1 and 19 to 21 of Table 7, for Charisma and Humane-Oriented CLTs respectively.

It is therefore noted that:

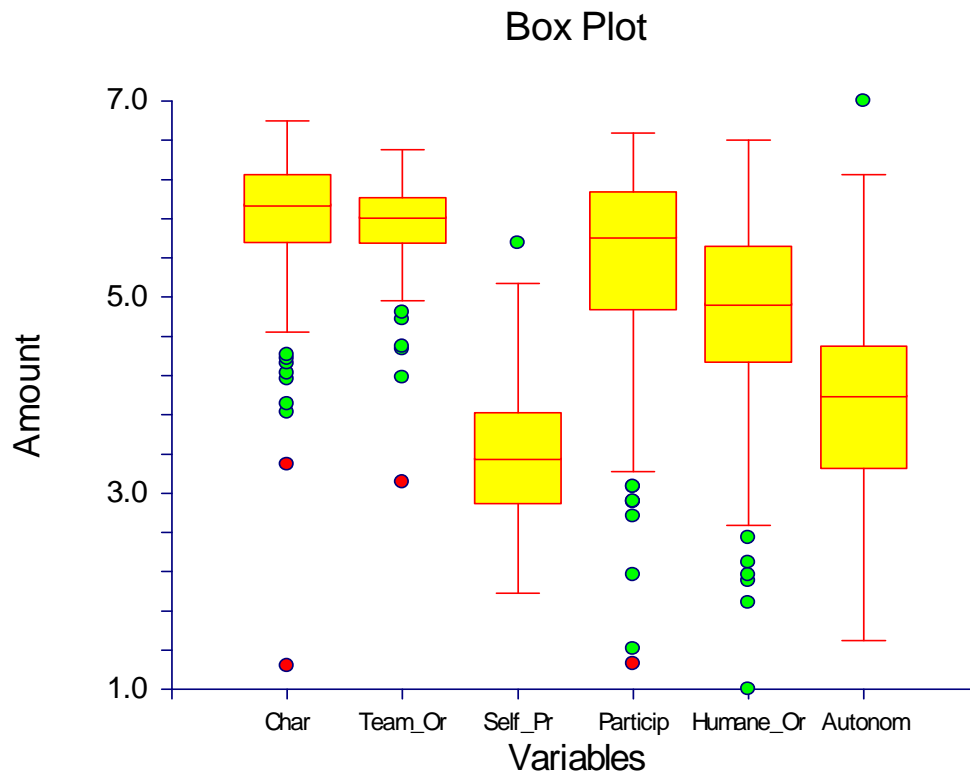
There is a difference in the combined effect of High or Medium WDI and High or Medium SDI against Low or Medium WDI and Low or Medium SDI, for the leadership attributes of Charisma, Participative, Humane-Oriented, Self-Protected and Team-Oriented.

5.5 Un-stratified data analysis

5.5.1 WDII, SDII and CLT data analysis

The Work and Social Diversity Interaction indices were stratified into three groups (in terms of low, medium and high activity) for the hypothesis analyses. However, descriptive statistics was used to get an overview of the un-stratified dataset. For the independent variables, this refers to the Work Diversity Interaction Index (WDII) and Social Diversity Interaction Index (SDII). The results are indicated in Table 8. The quartile distributions are shown through box plots in Figure 6 and Figure 7. The y-axis in Figure 6 corresponds to the seven-point Likert scale of the dependant variable, whilst the x-axis denotes the respective CLT. The second quartile (median values) greater than four indicate the CLT's that are considered favourably as outstanding leadership attributes, namely, Charismatic, Team-Oriented, Participative and Humane-Oriented. These observations are noted by the CLT mean values, denoted in Table 8. The CLT of Self-Protected was considered more unfavourable to contributing to outstanding leadership than Autonomous, as indicated by the third quartile for the former being less than four on the seven-point scale.

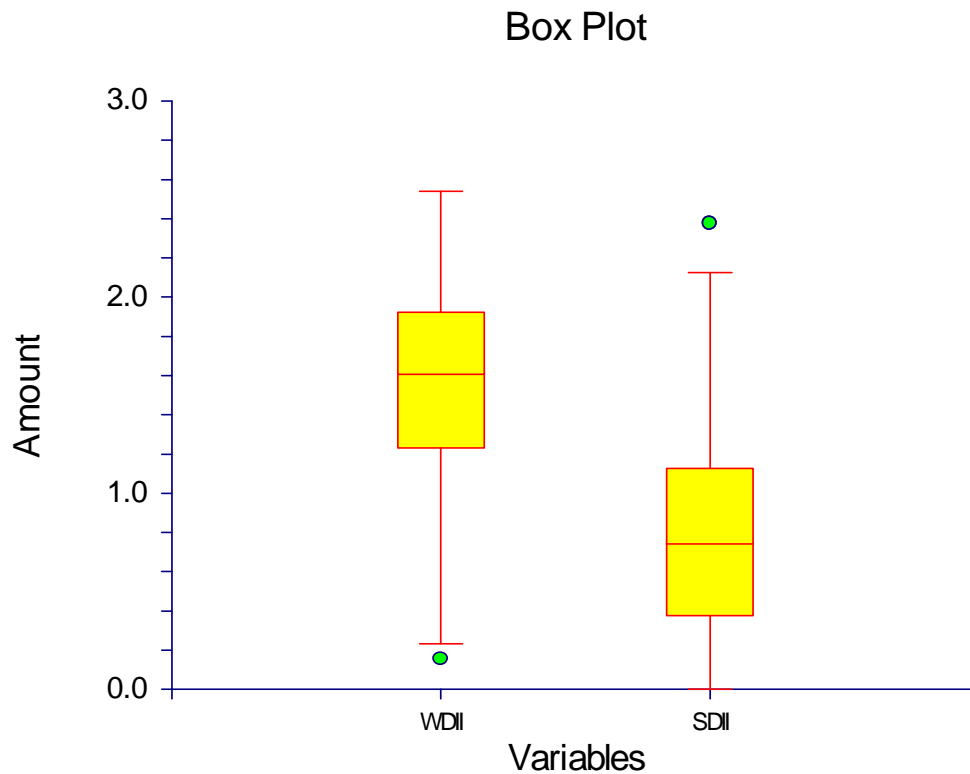
Figure 6: Quartile distribution of the six CLTs described through a Box plot



* Abbreviations used in x-axis labels are outlined in column 1 of Table 8 above.

From the relative scoring of the work and social diversity indices on the questionnaire, these two indices could potentially reach a maximum value of 3.23 and 2.50 respectively. The maximum value for WDII is 27% lower than this maximum potential, whilst the maximum SDII is 5% lower than its potential maximum. This suggests that the respondents did not have a high level of participation in work diversity interactions. The 5% delta in the maximum SDII from its potential suggests that some respondents did have high diversity in their social interactions. These observations are depicted in the quartile distributions in Figure 7. Further, Figure 7 denotes a good distribution of WDI activity in the low and medium range of the index. The SDI activity distribution was less evenly distributed, whereby 75% of the respondents are weighted to the lower end of the SDII range.

Figure 7: Quartile distribution of the two Diversity indices described through a Box plot



* Abbreviations used in x-axis labels are outlined in column 1 of Table 8 above.

In the overall un-stratified data in Table 8, Charismatic, Team-Oriented, and Participative attributes are considered to be universally endorsed as contributing to outstanding leadership as their mean values exceed five. Humane-Oriented is considered favourably as a contributing attribute to outstanding leadership with a mean greater than four. The attributes of Self-Protected and Autonomous are considered inhibiting to outstanding leadership as their mean values are less than four.

Table 8: Summary section of overall data, with no subcategories

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Work Diversity (eqwt_WDI_total)	1.518	0.489	0.154	2.538
Social Diversity (eqwt_SDI_total)	0.789	0.537	0.000	2.375
Charismatic / Value Based (Char_2d)	5.848	0.607	1.238	6.794
Team Oriented (team_2d)	5.763	0.412	3.112	6.506
Self-Protected (nrcis_2d)	3.397	0.648	1.981	5.551
Participative (parti_2d)	5.366	0.962	1.258	6.673
Humane- Oriented (hum_2d)	4.855	0.938	1.001	6.600
Autonomous (auton_2d)	3.916	0.989	1.5	7

5.5.2 Demographic data analysis relative to Cumulative WDII, SDII and CLT

Multiple regressions were conducted for each of the CLTs with respect to the two independent variables, in addition to the age, tenure and race categories of the demographic data. The R^2 values of each CLT and the Pearson's correlations in CLTs greater than 0.100 are reported below in Table 9. The correlated items against the respective CLTs are denoted in brackets. The R^2 indicates the proportion of the variance that can be explained by the independent variables (Albright et al. 2009, p. 599).

Table 9: Pearson's correlation of CLTs with respect to diversity interactions and age, tenure and race

Charismatic	Team-Oriented	Self-Protected	Participative	Humane-Oriented	Autonomous
R²					
0.0521	0.0841	0.0444	0.0427	0.0464	0.0583
Pearson's Correlation					
0.1091 (SDII)	-0.1612 (White)	0.1402 (Black)		-0.1536 (Tenure=1-2 years)	0.1301 (White)
	0.1412 (SDII)	-0.1059 (Age=+56)			0.1173 (Age= +56)
	0.1241 (Black)	0.1003 (SDII)			-0.107 (Black)

The Pearson's correlation indicates that there is a positive relationship with SDII and the CLT attributes of Charismatic, Team-Oriented and Self-Protected. Blacks are positively correlated with Team-Oriented, whilst Whites are negatively correlated with the same CLT. Blacks are positively correlated with Self-Protected, yet negatively correlated with Autonomous. Whites are positively correlated with Autonomous. Respondents aged 56 and over correlate positively to Autonomous, yet negatively correlate to Self-Protected.

Table 10 indicates the Pearson's correlation of the biographic data of age, tenure and race, with respective to the overall WDII and SDII scores.

Table 10: Pearson's correlation of Biographic items with respect to the total WDII and SDII scores

	WDII Total	SDII Total
Age = "+56"	0. 0522	-0. 0341
Age = "25 - 32"	-0. 0668	0. 1619
Age = "33 - 42"	-0. 0771	-0. 0209
Age = "43 - 55"	0. 1315	-0. 1376
Age = "< 25"	-0. 0851	0. 0744
SDII_Total	0. 2536	1
WDII_Total	1	0. 2536
Race = "BLACK"	-0. 1095	0. 2401
Race = "COLOURED"	0. 0888	0. 1694
Race = "WHITE"	0. 0225	-0. 4024
Race = "ASIAN"	*	*
Tenure = "+ 6 YEARS"	0. 1052	-0. 2656
Tenure = "1 - 2 YEARS"	-0. 0315	0. 0538
Tenure = "3 - 6 YEARS"	-0. 1483	0. 2399
Tenure = "< 1 YEAR"	0. 1174	0. 0533

* Regression analysis did not yield results for the Asian data

The age group of "43 – 55 years" has a positive correlation to WDII but negative correlation to SDII. Conversely the age group of "25 – 32 years" positively correlates with SDII and negatively correlates to WDII. Directionally, the same relationship was observed with long tenure (of "+ 6 years") and shorter tenure ("3 - 6 years"). Coloured and Black employees were positively correlated with SDII, whilst White employees were negatively correlated to SDII.

SDII and WDII show some correlation to each other. Schwab (2005, p. 258) suggests that this results in two problems in multivariate analysis: (i) it reduces the dependant variable variance explained relative to the situation of less multicollinearity and (ii) the sample statistics then becomes less stable estimates of the population parameters. The researchers approach to this observation of multicollinearity must be guided by the conceptual model explaining relationships among the variables (ibid.). This regression analysis was not used to evaluate the hypothesis

but rather to describe the data. Schwab (2005, p. 258) points out that independent variables may be collinear and if they are important to the analysis, they should be retained.

Table 11 below indicates the Pearson's correlation for each of the CLTs with respect to each other. The R^2 for this regression model was high at 0.6483. Charismatic was highly correlated to Team-Oriented, Participative and Humane-Oriented, and each of them were correlated to each other. Participative negatively correlates to Self-Protected and Autonomous.

Table 11: Pearson's correlation for each for the CLTs relative to each other

	Autonomous	Humane-Oriented	Self-Protected	Participative	Team-Oriented	Charismatic
Autonomous	1					
Humane-Oriented	-0.0185	1				
Self-Protected	0.076	-0.1157	1			
Participative	-0.1493	0.3511	-0.6169	1		
Team-Oriented	0.0487	0.5525	-0.0571	0.2589	1	
Charismatic	0.0931	0.5816	-0.318	0.4713	0.7125	1

5.6 Biographical data segmentation

The ANOVA tests on 'Age' showed no significant difference of means for the six CLTs. Significance was observed with Humane-Oriented with respect to tenure. Aspin-Welch T - Tests revealed differences in the tenure of "1 - 2 years" from groups of tenure of "3 - 6 years", and "+ 6 years". However, the mean values of the latter two groups were not significantly different from each other. This analysis excluded the two counts of missing tenure data and the seven counts in tenure "less than 1 year". The ANOVA of CLTs with respect to race showed a significant difference of means for Team-Oriented amongst the Black and White race groups

(p -value < 0.0645). This is supported by the regression analysis that indicates a positive correlation of Black ethnicity and Team-Orientation, and a negative correlation with White ethnicity and Team-Orientation.

Table 12: CLT means with respect to Age, Tenure and Race

	Counts	Charismatic	Team-Oriented	Self-Protected	Participative	Humane-Orientation	Autonomous
Age Group							
< 25	2	5.339	5.486	3.510	4.492	4.557	4.250
25 - 32	79	5.859	5.766	3.388	5.313	4.779	3.981
33 - 42	107	5.818	5.753	3.418	5.427	4.835	3.806
43 - 55	59	5.860	5.777	3.448	5.284	4.926	3.864
56+	20	5.937	5.739	3.156	5.507	5.000	4.325
Missing	2	6.329	6.322	3.462	6.146	5.658	4.375
Tenure							
< 1 year	7	5.595	5.563	3.139	5.643	4.826	3.464
1 - 2 years	30	5.811	5.732	3.520	5.114	4.449	3.992
3 - 6 years	83	5.851	5.801	3.401	5.434	4.939	3.834
+ 6 years	147	5.860	5.750	3.382	5.356	4.880	3.963
Missing	2	6.329	6.322	3.462	6.146	5.658	4.375
Race							
White	146	5.801	5.702	3.342	5.310	4.840	4.034
Black	66	5.890	5.852	3.556	5.472	4.871	3.731
Asian	44	5.900	5.814	3.357	5.337	4.805	3.813
Coloured	13	5.998	5.821	3.342	5.562	5.104	3.885

NB: Bold values indicate observations of significant difference of means

6 DISCUSSION

“We do not see things as they are, we see them as we are”

— Talmud

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a critical evaluation of the results presented in the previous chapter. This analysis seeks to identify the consistency and any inconsistency (if present) with the literature review in Chapter 2.

Alderfer et al. (1983) refers to organisational groups that arise from primary tasks in the workplace. By inference, these primary tasks can be expanded to include activities through diversity management and diverse work groups. Consequently the different levels of Work Diversity Interactions (W_1 , W_2 , W_3) may be considered as different organisational groups. Similarly, the different levels of Social Diversity Interactions (S_1 , S_2 , S_3) may be considered as different social identity groups referred to by Alderfer et al. (1983). These group memberships result in new social categories, influencing perceptions and transferring information between members (ibid). This should therefore hold true for the organisational groups of W_1 , W_2 , W_3 and the social identity groups of S_1 , S_2 , S_3 . Based on this, it is expected that there would be a difference in means in the perceptions of Charismatic, Team-Oriented, Self-Protected, Humane-Oriented, Participative and Autonomous leadership attributes between each of the organisation groups of W_1 , W_2 and W_3 and between the three social identity groups of S_1 , S_2 and S_3 .

6.2 Exploring Work Diversity Interactions (Hypothesis 1)

Hypothesis one was rejected, indicating that there were no differences in means at the different levels of Work Diversity Interactions for Charismatic/Value based leadership, Team-Orientation, Self-Protected, Humane-Orientation, Participative and Autonomous leadership attributes. This translates to all members of the three different groups having no statistically different view on how they perceive the six leadership attributes.

This suggests that the different levels of diversity interactions in the workplace do not play a role in members' leadership-forming perceptions, transferring of ideologies and creating social realities as expounded by Alderfer et al. (1983). That is, the fundamentals of intergroup theory are not being observed at the organisational level for the three different levels of work diversity groups used in the study. Four possible reasons may support this observation of the results:

i. This may imply that a universal view exists for these leadership dimensions. However, the GLOBE study has clearly demonstrated that these leadership dimensions are variably accepted or disapproved by different cultures (Dorfman et al. 2004, pp. 669 - 719).

ii. There may be insufficient distribution of work diversity interactions across the three groups, and a general low level of diversity in the workplace. This explanation however is not valid as Figure 7 in Section 5 showed a high frequency of activity in the low and medium levels of work diversity interaction. The results also indicated that the maximum value of the work diversity index was 27% lower than its potential maximum if all answers were positively answered to indicate some level of high workplace diversity interactions. The average value of the work diversity index was only 6% lower than the average that would have been obtained

from the potential maximum index value. These data have been calculated from Table 8 in Chapter 5.

iii. Work Diversity Interactions may not be of a quality that translates to playing a role in influencing perceptions across cultures. That is, there are inadequate interactions across cultures on a cognitive-reflective level. Alderfer et al. (1983) points out that cognitive formations and group physical and psychological boundaries play a role in determining the member intergroup context. The researcher therefore proactively attempted to assess the “effectiveness” of work diversity interactions by including seven questions in the survey (of the 14 in the WDI section) to evaluate the respondents’ view of the effectiveness of work diversity initiatives in creating cultural sensitisation and in challenging and removing cultural perceptions.

A linear regression analysis of the “effectiveness” questions against the seven WDI “activity” questions reflected a correlation of 0.46 between the two variables, with an R-squared value of 0.21. This indicates that there is a correlation between the effectiveness of WDI and the level of activity in WDI. However, the correlation is not significantly high enough to indicate that the Work Diversity Interactions are able to transform cultural perceptions and stereotypes amongst the participants. Pearson’s correlation and the R-squared value of effectiveness of WDI and unstratified SDII were 0.046 and 0.22 respectively. This suggests that respondents at the different levels of SDI did not consider the WDI activities as being effective in cultural sensitisation. Furthermore, there were many observations where the “effectiveness” questions yielded high scores with a corresponding low activity in the work diversity programmes. That is, respondents answered favourably on the “effectiveness” of diversity interactions in the workplace, although their response to their own level of involvement in workplace diversity was not correspondingly high. This suggests that the respondents displayed some positive bias in their response to the effectiveness of diversity activity in the workplace.

iv. Rejecting of hypothesis one may also suggest that a universal view for these leadership dimensions exist within this organisation, that is, there is an influencing role of organisational culture on employee perceptions. Holvino (2008) discusses the impact of institutional practices and how they create power and material advantages and disadvantages for different groups. This relates to the organisational culture that the respondents belong to. As highlighted in Chapter 4.7, the use of a single organisation for data collection has the limitation of the results being influenced by the organisational culture of the company. Kwantes & Boglarsky (2007) showed evidence that organisational culture had a strong relationship to perceptions of leadership effectiveness, with the strongest perceived relationships in South Africa relative to the other five countries in their study.

Although organisational culture was not examined in this study, the tenure of each respondent was recorded. The regression of tenure indicated that the more senior employees (by tenure in the company) showed a positive correlation with the un-stratified Work Diversity Interaction Index (WDII) and a negative correlation with the un-stratified Social Diversity Interaction Index (SDII). Similarly, the regression on Age indicated that the more senior employees (by age) showed a positive correlation with WDII and a negative correlation with the SDII. This suggests that the older employees (by age and tenure) are more engaged in work diversity interactions and less active in social diversity interactions. Alderfer et al. (1980) cited in Mor Barak et al. (1998) points out that attitudes informing behaviours are deeply entrenched and cannot be easily changed over a short period of time. This suggests that older employees will be reluctant to engage in social diversity interactions if they were not active in it in the past. These same employees who are involved in work diversity interactions will be more resistant to any leadership-forming perceptions and transferring ideologies, arising from the multicultural intergroup interactions. They will also experience a more difficult time in changing attitudes and behaviours arising from any multicultural interactions.

In summary, the lack of mean differences in the six CLTs at the different levels of WDI suggest that there is an influencing role of organisational culture (described by tenure) and Age that predisposes employee perceptions and that the current work diversity interactions may not have facilitated effective multicultural interactions. It can be concluded that in this organisation, Work Diversity Interactions were not effective in prompting members to form new and different perceptions on leadership attributes. The researcher extends this insight to include that there appears to be no difference, regarding multicultural cognitive formations, for the different levels of multicultural interactions that takes place through this organisation's work diversity initiatives.

The implications of this are that the benefits of diversity interactions discussed in Chapter 2 will not be achieved. Ali and Camp (1996) noted that cross-cultural experiences are ineffective in cultural sensitisation, if sufficient integration does not occur. Members (employees) are limiting themselves from cohesively working together, learning from each other, learning about cross-cultural differences and learning about their own prejudices and stereotypes. Further, should these employees take on international assignments and global leadership positions, their ability to adjust and effectively lead and operate in a multicultural environment will be limited by the depth of their cross-cultural interaction and their resulting cognitive formations.

6.3 *Exploring Social Diversity Interactions*

The distinction between diversity interactions in the two different contexts; work and social contexts, was demonstrated by Hypothesis two. Hypothesis two was supported for two CLTs, and rejected for four CLTs. That is, the different levels of Social Diversity Interactions resulted in a difference in the perceptions of Team-Oriented and Self-Protected leadership attributes. This resonates with the theoretical evidence highlighted by Caligiuri et al. (2009) that extensive

intercultural experiences facilitates learning of new behaviours and forming of new cognitive maps about other cultures. The fact that mean differences were observed with SDI and not WDI suggests that there maybe different processes involved in the interactions occurring in the two different contexts. It may also be that that the quality of the interaction is different in these different settings. For example, closer ties may be forged through Social diversity interactions than Workplace diversity interactions, and hence the former context plays a bigger role in influencing perceptions than the latter. This is supported by Kao and Joyner (2004) whose evidence demonstrated that not all racially diverse interactions are the same.

No differences in perceptions were observed for the other four CLTs, namely, Charisma, Humane-Oriented, Participative and Autonomous at the different levels of SDI.

Whilst an enquiry into the absolute mean values observed in the difference is not relevant for this study, it is noted. Team-Orientation was perceived as a contributor to outstanding leader attributes and it had a higher score at the higher level of SDI. It may be that the race and gender of the respondents act as intersectionality variables that influences the process of identity construction and its underlying power relations, as pointed out by Holvino (2008). The data did indicate a correlation of SDII by race differences. The positive correlation of Black and Coloured respondents with SDII indicates a greater frequency of Social Diversity Interactions amongst those race groups. Furthermore, the Black race group was also positively correlated with Team-Orientation. Kossek and Zonia (1993) found that within organisations, diversity efforts are more readily embraced by ethnic minorities and White females, than White men. This is supported by Mor Barak, et al. (1998) who showed that ethnic minority groups attribute greater value to and are more comfortable with diversity than Caucasians. These studies were done in the United States where the diversity discourse has been around for a few decades. These findings are relevant for South Africa where the discourse is just over a decade new.

Senghor (1965) cited in Thomas and Bendixen (2000) coined the term “communalism” in reference to the Black African collectivism of “people conspiring together as a group united at the core” (p. 514). Similarly, the “Ubuntu” philosophy that is integral to the Black culture, encapsulates the cultural propensity for Black people to be oriented towards community inclusivity (Prime, n.d.). The “Ubuntu” and communalism concepts have significant implications for corporate life as African leaders are calling for an Afro-centric approach to management (ibid.; Blunt and Jones (1997). These integral values within the Black culture is similar to Gelfand, Bhawuk, Nishii and Bechtold’s (2004, p. 463) description of societal-level institutional and in-group collectivism. As part of the GLOBE study, Gelfand et al. (2004, p. 491) found evidence that societal-level collectivism practices and values have a significant and strong positive correlation to organisational-level institutional collectivism practices and values. The description of organisational-level institutional collectivism includes aspects of Team-Orientation, as described by Gelfand et al. (2004, pp. 446–447). The mean difference observed for Team-Orientation at the different levels of SDI can therefore be explained by considering that the Black race group demonstrated a high correlation to SDI, and their inherent high communalism (societal institutional and in-group collectivism) values.

Self-Protected was perceived as an inhibitor to outstanding leader attributes, and surprisingly it also had a higher score at the high level SDI, that is, group S_2 considered Self-Protected as more of an inhibitor to outstanding leader attribute, than S_3 . One would expect that greater diverse interactions will lead to an open-minded and trusting environment, hence not requiring the need for Self-Protection. However, extending the above argument of societal communalism, Gelfand et al. (2004, pp. 498) also demonstrated that societal-level institutional collectivism (practices and values) were positively correlated to the Self-Protected leadership dimension. So whilst there is a desire to work in aid of a collective goal, there is a simultaneous strong need to ensure own security and protection. Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs model and Barrett’s Levels

of Consciousness Model describe a humanistic journey away from the “Self” to a “Service” (to others) approach. Whilst their models describe the journey as evolutionary, that is, each level occurring in succession, the results discussed above (in this research and that of Gelfund et al. 2004, pp. 437-512) indicate that the levels of the “Self” (described by Self-Protected as a leadership attribute) and “Service” (described by Team-Orientation as a leadership attribute) are not far removed from each other nor mutually exclusive. The focus of this research is not based on developmental psychological needs; however, further exploration in relating these concepts to the CLT leadership attributes will make an interesting research topic.

Noting the findings of Holvino (2008) and Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007) discussed above in Chapter 6.1, the argument of the impact of organisational culture is also relevant as an explanation to the observations at the different levels of SDI. Conversely to the regression of tenure and age discussed in Chapter 6.1, the regression indicated that the more junior employees (by age and tenure in the company) show a positive correlation with social diversity interactions. Therefore it may be that whilst these employees engage in high social diversity interactions and are consequently influenced by these intergroup interactions (as evidenced through the mean differences), there also exists an influencing role of organisational culture on employee perceptions of leader attributes. This is probably occurring to a lesser extent than that of employees with a longer tenure.

In summary, the mean difference observed for two CLTs and the lack of mean differences in four CLTs, at the different levels of SDI, suggest that there are some perception-forming and ideology transfer that arises from diversity interactions in the Social context. It is evident that cultural differences, typified by Race in this case, plays an influencing role that predisposes employee perceptions of leadership attributes. Organisational culture also plays a role in influencing perceptions, as was observed through tenure. It can be concluded that the Social

Diversity Interactions of respondents have prompted members to form new and different perceptions on leadership attributes. Further, there appears to be a distinction between diversity interactions in the Work and in the Social contexts. Based on intergroup theory, this suggests that greater cognitive formations are formed through the cross-cultural engagement in the social context than in the workplace. That is, culturally diverse social group memberships are able to condition member perceptions and transfer ideologies, have a greater impact than culturally diverse groups in the organisational context. Different processes may be involved in perception-forming and the quality of engagement may differ in different contexts.

The implications of this are that the benefits of diversity interactions can be achieved when diversity occurs at a social level. The social context facilitates the deep integration required for effective cross-cultural interactions that Ali and Camp (1996) refer to, and the benefits of intergroup contact as espoused by Alderfer et al. (1988).

Consequently, participants in Social Diversity Interactions may espouse these self-awareness and cross-cultural knowledge in their work environment to cohesively work across cultures and learn from their diversity colleagues. In international assignments and global leadership positions, their ability to adjust and effectively lead and operate in a multicultural environment will be expanded by the depth of their cross-cultural interactions.

6.4 Combined Effect of Work and Social Diversity Interactions

The results of hypothesis three were again examples of the distinction that arises from the two different contexts. Respondents with higher Social Diversity Interactions view Self-Protected as an inhibitor to outstanding leadership but to a lesser degree than respondents with a lower Social Diversity Index. However, the lowering of the combined means with W_3 and W_2 suggest

that greater diversity in work interactions will lead to a more open-minded and trusting environment, hence preferring Self-Protection to a lesser degree in the work environment.

As discussed in Chapter 6.2 and 6.3, the diversity interactions of the individual constructs yielded no mean differences for WDI and a difference with two CLTs (Team-Oriented and Self-Protected) for SDI respectively. However, significant difference in perceptions of five of the six CLTs (Charisma, Team-Oriented, Self-Protected, Participative and Humane-Oriented) were observed in the combination of the different levels of work and social constructs, This demonstrates that there is a difference in the perceptions of the degree to which the CLTs contribute to outstanding leadership by respondents that had low and medium work and social diversity interactions from respondents that had medium and high work and social diversity interactions. That is, there was evidence in support of Hypothesis three.

This implies that the combination of different levels of work and social diversity interactions results in varying degrees of perceiving the leadership attributes of Charisma, Team-Oriented, Self-Protected, Participative and Humane-Oriented. This supports the distinction between diversity interactions in the Work and in the Social contexts. It also suggests that diversity interaction in one context plays an influencing role in diversity interactions in the other context, that is, there is a synergistic relationship of context that shapes perceptions. A further indication of this was that SDII and WDII correlated to each other, indicating that diversity interactions in one environment will roll over into the other context. The results of Chapter 6.2 and 6.3 also allude to a cause-and-effect relationship between the two contexts. This was out of the scope of this research, but is another focus area that is recommended for future research.

In summary, the above argument supports that which Alderfer et al. (1983) noted, that intergroup interactions condition member perceptions and transfers sets of ideologies. Further,

the results of this research have demonstrated that the level of intergroup transfer that occurs varies by the level of intergroup interactions and the contexts through which they occur.

Caligiuri and Tarique (2009) also pointed out that significant intercultural experience in the personal and professional level results in learning behaviours that are socially acceptable in cultures other than one's own.

The implications of these findings are that it reinforces the view of Glastra et al. (2000) who noted that diversity training is only relevant if it taps into ongoing learning processes. This research has shown empirical evidence that the level of inter-cultural engagement and the prevailing context defines the extent of ongoing learning processes that take place. Therefore, it is imperative that within institutional contexts, the right level of engagement must occur for the cross-cultural training to be effective. Further, there needs to be a clear message of the intent of diversity actions by Senior Management together with a willingness and openness by participants to engage cognitively in the process.

7 CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

"We are like dwarfs sitting on the shoulders of giants. We see more, and things that are more distant, than they did, not because our sight is superior or because we are taller than they, but because they raise us up, and by their great stature add to ours."

— John of Salisbury

7.1 Introduction

Global business transactions have become significant contributors to the world economy (Alon and Higgins, 2005). With the rapid developments in international trade, internet technology, cross-border travel and communication, country borders today have become "fluid". Consequently, it has upset the "traditional" business rules (Mendenhall, et al. 2003) and thus requires a new set of tools to effect delivery. Managing diverse teams and working with colleagues and/or clients from other countries is one area that is a challenge in this global business world, cited by the Price Waterhouse Coopers' 10th Annual Global CEO Survey.

Culture impacts leadership behaviour and expectations of leader behaviour (Glazer, 2002). Therefore, understanding how cultures vary along actual and desired leadership approaches can make international business liaisons more effective (ibid.). Further, effective leadership requires leaders to be attuned to their environmental surroundings (Lord, Brown, Harvey and Hall, 2001). Thus, when leadership involves the flexible adjustment of behavior to the current context, example in a global leader context, then leaders that are focused on the environment are more likely to be successful than those that are insensitive to their external environments.

Intergroup theory is considered as learning from and with others. Consequently, intercultural interactions allows for interdependent and interactive learning. The cross-cultural interactions that occur in the workplace can be a learning opportunity for the level of interactions required in the global business world. However, for these interactions to be effective, it requires all parties to be receptive of other cultures, and negotiate effective ways of understanding and relating to each other. Whilst the workplace allows for engagement across diverse cultures, this research has shown that greater integration occurs through personal relationships in the social context. Consequently, intergroup interactions occur in the social environment at a deeper level than in the work environment.

7.2 Main Findings of the Research

7.2.1 Work Diversity Interactions

There were no significant differences in the mean values of the six CLTs of Charisma, Team-Oriented, Participative, Humane-Oriented, Self-Protected and Autonomous, at the different levels of involvement in Work Diversity initiatives. Dorfman et al. (2004, pp. 669-719) showed that apart from Charisma and Team-Oriented, there was no general consensus in the perception of the other four CLTs amongst the societies studied. The results suggested an influencing role of organisational culture (described by tenure) and age that predisposes employee perceptions. In this organisation, the work diversity initiatives were doubtful in being effective in cultural sensitisation. It was therefore concluded that the Work Diversity Interactions did not facilitate effective multicultural interactions and were therefore ineffective in prompting members to form new and different perceptions on leadership attributes. The researcher extended this insight to include that there appears to be no difference, regarding multicultural

cognitive formations, for the different levels of multicultural interactions that takes place through this organisation's work diversity initiatives.

7.2.2 Social Diversity Interactions

Statistically significant mean differences were observed for two CLTs, Team-Orientation and Self-Protected, at the different levels of SDI. No significant mean differences were observed in the remaining four CLTs of Charisma, Participative, Humane-Oriented and Autonomous. This suggests that there are some perception-forming and ideology transfer that arises from different levels of diversity interactions in the Social context. Cultural differences, described by Race, and organisational culture (described by tenure) appears to play an influencing role in the levels of social interaction that occurs and therefore predisposes employee perceptions.

Consequently, it can be concluded that the different levels of Social Diversity Interactions of the respondents have prompted them to form new and different perceptions on leadership attributes. Further, there appears to be a distinction between diversity interactions in the Work and in the Social contexts. Based on intergroup theory, this suggests that greater cognitive formations are formed through the cross-cultural engagement in the social context than in the workplace. That is, culturally diverse social group memberships are able to condition member perceptions and transfer ideologies, have a greater impact than culturally diverse groups in the organisational context. Different processes may be involved in perception-forming and the quality of engagement may differ in different environments. The social context facilitates the deep integration required for effective cross-cultural interactions that Ali and Camp (1996) refer to, and the benefits of intergroup contact as espoused by Alderfer et al. (1988).

7.2.3 Combined Effect of Work and Social Diversity Interactions

When the different levels of Work and Social diversity interactions were combined, significant mean differences in the perceptions of five of the six CLTs (Charisma, Team-Oriented, Self-Protected, Participative and Humane-Oriented) were observed. This suggests that respondents that had low and medium work and social diversity interactions differ from those respondents that had medium and high work and social diversity interactions in their perception of the degree to which the CLTs contribute to outstanding leadership. This implies that the combination of different levels of work and social diversity interactions results in varying degrees of perception of the leadership attributes of Charisma, Team-Orientation, Self-Protected, Participative and Humane-Orientation.

This supports the distinction between diversity interactions in the Work and in the Social contexts. It also suggests that diversity interaction in one context plays an influencing role in diversity interactions in the other context. That is, there is a synergistic relationship of contexts that shapes perceptions. A further indication of this was that the unstratified Work Diversity Interaction Index (WDII) and Social Diversity Interaction Index (SDII) correlated to each other, indicating that diversity interactions in one environment will roll over into the other context.

Therefore the argument of Alderfer et al. (1983) who noted, that intergroup interactions condition members' perceptions and transfers sets of ideologies is supported. Further, the results of this research have demonstrated that the level of intergroup transfer that occurs varies by the level of intergroup interactions and the different contexts through which they occur.

7.3 Recommendations to Stakeholders

7.3.1 Designing Global leadership development programmes

The results of this research have implications for the design and implementation of cross-cultural training programmes for global leadership development. The research showed how deep cognitive formations through social diversity interactions influences perceptions and creates intergroup information transfer.

In designing cross-cultural training programmes for global leader development, there must be greater understanding of group and intergroup dynamics to direct the emphasis of the training on changing cognitive formations. If this is not the focus of the training, then efforts to create cultural sensitisation will take a very long time to effect change, or may even be counterproductive.

Furthermore, this type of training needs to be greatly emphasised for senior employees who are selected for international assignments, as the research indicates there was a negative correlation of age and tenure with social diversity interactions, and it may be that the senior employees are more resistant to forming cross-cultural relationships.

7.3.2 Implementation of Global leadership development programmes

Social Diversity Interactions were more effective in perception-forming than Work Diversity Interactions. It may be that deeper relations are formed with the former than the latter. Therefore, creating social diversity interactions in the workplace will contribute to forming deeper relationships amongst diversity groups, and consequently promote a cohesive working environment whilst constantly challenging one's own perceptions. Interventions like diversity

team-building and diversity mentor-protégé pairing can be used to create the platform for such social diversity interactions.

Extending the argument that the activities of Cross-cultural Training and Management and Diversity Management are intended to create cultural sensitisation, it follows then that mandatory diversity management initiatives can be appropriately positioned to reap a two-fold benefit. That is, to encourage diversity interactions with minority groups in the workplace and simultaneously create the awareness and training required for cross-cultural management by global leaders. However, these diversity programmes need to ensure sufficient and not superficial integration across cultures, to be effective in its outcomes.

7.3.3 Diversity Management

The literature study highlighted the similarities of cross-cultural training with diversity management training. Therefore the recommendations discussed above are also applicable for developing effective diversity management programmes that yields the desired change, specifically at a cognitive and social-psychological level.

7.3.4 Organisation culture

There appeared to be a negative relationship with organisational culture (measured by tenure) and openness to diversity interactions. It is therefore imperative for managers and decision makers in organisations to be aware of the prevailing organisational culture and its impact on progressing strategic drivers. There needs to be a clear understanding and communication that diversity leads to learning and integration that enhances value for the Self and the organisation. These need to be continually reinforced throughout the employee's tenure in the organisation through management principles and behaviours. A positive organisational culture can become a powerful competitive advantage to MNCs and evolve to become a core competence that

cannot be easily duplicated by competitors. Management should therefore should take active interventions to reduce those aspects of organisational culture that causes negative and defensive reactions by employees, and effectively manage cultural differences that hampers performance and productivity.

7.4 Recommendations for Future Research

There has been limited research in multicultural studies that draws on patterns of associations between different contexts. Perhaps an important contribution of this study is that it shows the potential value of adopting a multidimensional, multilevel approach in cross-cultural theoretical and empirical research. The results of this research have led to the researcher providing a short but descriptive list of recommendations for future research, outlined below.

This research has shown empirical evidence of how diversity theorising can be a fluid subject and shaped by intersecting externalities of group identity categorisations, organisation diversity practices and the dynamics of personal social interactions. Therefore, further research should be formulated around positioning the diversity discourse relative to its interaction with the externalities of other contexts such as geopolitics, power relations, historic, institutional and societal contexts.

The results indicated a distinction between diversity interactions in the Work and in the Social contexts. It also suggested a synergistic relationship of context that shaped perceptions, whereby, diversity interaction in one context played an influencing role in diversity interactions in the other context. Further research should explore the cause-and-effect nature of this relationship between the two contexts.

It was suggested that the benefits of social cross-cultural interactions may roll over into the work environment; hence, create cohesive working teams and learning from and about other cultures. These and other benefits from social cross-cultural interactions can be validated by evaluating social cross-cultural interactions against work performance outcomes and job satisfaction.

The correlation between SDII and Team-Orientation and SDII and Self-Protected influenced leadership attribute perceptions at different levels of SDI, for both these CLTs. These should be explored further in relating the concepts of human development psychological needs to the CLT leadership attributes. In addition, there should be more research to understand the different social constructions of cross-cultural and diversity values and priorities that impact leader effectiveness.

Organisational culture was found to play a role in how cross-cultural interactions are participated and perceived by employees. Therefore further research in the cross-cultural space must evaluate the prevailing organisational culture, even when the research is conducted across multiple organisations.

This research has demonstrated results that raised a question on the effectiveness of workplace diversity management practices. Therefore effectiveness of cross-cultural training and diversity training must be evaluated through tangible metrics like participant's cultural intelligence instead of being reliant on respondent's views of effectiveness. This will provide some indication on whether the organisation's efforts in this regard are meeting with success. Furthermore, this can be supplemented by unobtrusive measures can be used to evaluate effectiveness, such as, third party evaluations, supervisor and subordinate evaluations.

This study represents a cross-sectional survey that created the baseline for an MNC that is located in a country that was riddled with almost half a century of segregation between race/ethnic groups. This backdrop, together with the importance of the temporal nature in understanding changes in intergroup relations (Alderfer et al, 1980 cited in Mor Barak) requires longitudinal studies be done, to evaluate changes over time in attitudes and behaviours towards diversity.

7.5 Concluding Remarks and Value Contribution

This research adds to the body of work on developing cultural acumen for global leadership positions.

This study has highlighted the role of organisational and societal contexts in shaping the level of multicultural interactions that occur. By showing how identity groups and socio-cultural diversity interactions has an impact on leadership perceptions, this research has transcended the “organisation” boundaries in the leadership discourse.

The research has therefore indirectly demonstrated that there are limitations to adopting a one-dimensional (fixed) perspective of demographic self-categorisation based on race or ethnicity in multicultural studies, as “identity” in itself is a social construct. By demonstrating the synergistic relationship of work and social diversity interactions, this research emphasises the need to account for context and external influences in multicultural academic research.

This research also contributes to developing the discourse on applying the learnings of the synergistic perspectives between cross-cultural training for international leadership development and local workplace diversity management.

Zanoni, Janssens, Benschop, and Nkomo (2010) argue that most critical diversity research has, to date, focussed on organisational inequalities and how management practices contribute to replicating these inequalities. On the other hand, this research can be considered as “critical performative”, that is, it examines and develops practices and interventions on stimulating the social change required in addressing the subject.

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APPENDIX 1: Questionnaire Cover Letter

PERCEPTIONS OF OUTSTANDING LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES

Dear Participant,

Thank you for volunteering to participate in this Leadership study. The purpose of this study is to investigate the role of multi-cultural interactions in forming perceptions of outstanding leader attributes. South Africa is a country rich in diversity; this presents a good platform to be constantly engaging across cultural lines. However, different people experience and perceive value at different levels of engagement. This study therefore will also investigate the extent of these experiences and if they are at all any different from each other.

This study is the research component of attaining a Masters Degree in Business Administration (MBA) from the University of Pretoria's Gordon Institute of Business Science (GIBS).

The questionnaire that follows has been sent to middle management employees, located in South Africa. The questionnaire will take you about 30 minutes to complete, and your responses will remain confidential. No names will be recorded nor requested and only aggregated information will be used in the study. It would be greatly appreciated if you would complete the questionnaire by 01 July 2010.

A summary of the results of the study will be made available on request.

Should you have any questions about the study, please contact me at farida.khan@XXX.com or on 08X XXX XXXX.

With Kind regards,

Farida Khan

APPENDIX 2: Questionnaire: List of Questions

SECTION 1: Work Diversity Interactions (WDI)

WDI Question Instructions

This section evaluates the level of diversity awareness and interaction in your organisation. Please be reminded that all answers are confidential and will not be traced back to its source. NB: For the purposes of this research, "Culture" refers to ethnicity

To answer these questions, please select from the choices provided for each question.

1. I worked on an international work assignment for a period of:

< 1 month	1 – 6 months	7 – 12 months	12+ months	N/A
0	1	2	3	0

2. The number of ethnically diverse direct reports I currently / or in the past have had are:

1 person	2 – 3 persons	4 – 6 persons	6+persons	N/A
1	1	2	3	0

3. The number of ethnically diverse mentor-protégé relationships I have are:

1 person	2 – 3 persons	4 – 6 persons	6+ persons	N/A
1	2	3	4	0

4. My ethnically diverse reports have spoken openly about their culture

Strongly Disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	N/A
0	1	2	3	4	0

5. I was able to learn about other cultures from my mentor-protégé interactions

Strongly Disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	N/A
0	1	2	3	4	0

6. These mentor-protégé interactions has challenged some of my perceptions of other cultures

Strongly Disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	N/A
0	1	2	3	4	0

7. I have attended a Personal Insights Workshop (PIW) with my natural work teams

Once	twice	more than 3 times	N/A
0	1	2	0

8. I have attended diversity management workshops that has cumulatively lasted for

½ a day	1 day	1 – 2 days	1 week	longer than 1 week.
0	1	2	3	4

9. The PIW and diversity management workshops were effective in removing or reducing cultural stereotypes

Strongly Disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	N/A
0	1	2	3	4	0

10. I am on the Employment Equity Consultative forum or Diversity Management Forum.

Yes	No
1	0

11. I have been in workshops and / or meetings hosted by the Navigator in my business unit

Yes	No	N/A
1	0	0

12. I feel adequately sensitized about other cultures.

Strongly Disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	N/A
0	1	2	3	4	0

13. I am adequately culturally coached and trained to work in multicultural environments

Strongly Disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	N/A
0	1	2	3	4	0

14. Working in culturally diverse teams has removed some of my own cultural perceptions

Strongly Disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	N/A
0	1	2	3	4	0

SECTION 2: Social Diversity Interactions (SDI)

SDI Question Instructions

This section evaluates the level of inter-cultural interactions that you may have in your social and /or personal life.

Please be reminded that all answers are confidential and will not be traced back to its source.

NB: For the purposes of this research, "Culture" refers to ethnicity

To answer these questions, please select from the choices provided for each question.

1. I currently reside in the country of my birth

Yes	No
0	1

2. I went to a ethnically mixed school during primary and / or secondary years

Primary OR Secondary only	Primary & Secondary	None
1	2	0

3. I have close friendships across cultural backgrounds that extend to

1 person	2 – 3 persons	4 – 6 persons	6+ persons	N/A
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1 2 3 4 0

4. My parents are of the same cultural backgrounds

Yes	No
0	1

5. I have one or more siblings of other cultural backgrounds

one	more than one	N/A
1	2	0

6. One or more of my siblings have partners of other cultural backgrounds

one	more than one	N/A
1	2	0

7. I meet with the above-mentioned diverse friends and / or family at least

few times a week	Once a week	Once in two weeks	Once a month	1 + month	N/A
5	4	3	2	1	0

8. I am / was involved in an inter-cultural relationship that lasted for:

0 – 1 month	1 – 3 months	3 – 6 months	6+ months	N/A
1	2	3	4	0

SECTION 3: Perceptions of Outstanding Leader attributes

Instructions

Part 4 has a different type of question structure, and is divided into 4a and 4b.

You are urged to answer all the questions, as there is no duplication, and all questions are equally important for the analysis of the results.

You are probably aware of people in your organization who are exceptionally skilled at motivating, influencing, or enabling you, others, or groups to contribute to the success of the organization or task. In this country, we might call such people “outstanding leaders.”

On the following pages are several behaviours and characteristics that can be used to describe leaders. Each behaviour or characteristic is accompanied by a short definition to clarify its meaning. Using the above description of outstanding leaders as a guide, rate the behaviours and characteristics on the following pages. To do this, on the line next to each behaviour or characteristic write the number from the scale below that best describes how important that behaviour or characteristic is for a leader to be outstanding.

SCALE

- 1=** This behaviour or characteristic **greatly inhibits** a person from being an outstanding leader.
2= This behavior or characteristic **somewhat inhibits** a person from being an outstanding leader.
3= This behaviour or characteristic **slightly inhibits** a person from being an outstanding leader.
4= This behaviour or characteristic **has no impact** on whether a person is an outstanding leader.
5= This behaviour or characteristic **contributes slightly** to a person being an outstanding leader.
6= This behaviour or characteristic **contributes somewhat** to a person being an outstanding leader.
7= This behaviour or characteristic **contributes greatly** to a person being an outstanding leader.

Section 4a questions begin here

_____ 4-1 Diplomatic = Skilled at interpersonal relations, tactful

_____ 4-2 Evasive = Refrains from making negative comments to maintain good relationships and

save face

- _____ 4-3 Bossy = Tells subordinates what to do in a commanding way
- _____ 4-4 Intra-group competitor = Tries to exceed the performance of others in his or her group
- _____ 4-5 Autonomous = Acts independently, does not rely on others
- _____ 4-6 Independent = Does not rely on others; self-governing
- _____ 4-7 Risk taker = Willing to invest major resources in endeavors that do not have high probability of successful
- _____ 4-8 Administratively skilled = Able to plan, organize, coordinate and control work of large numbers (over 75) of individuals
- _____ 4-9 Just = Acts according to what is right or fair
- _____ 4-10 Win/win problem solver = Able to identify solutions which satisfy individuals with diverse and conflicting interests
- _____ 4-11 Clear = Easily understood
- _____ 4-12 Self-interested = Pursues own best interests
- _____ 4-13 Tyrannical = Acts like a tyrant or despot; imperious
- _____ 4-14 Integrator = Integrates people or things into cohesive, working whole
- _____ 4-15 Calm = Not easily distressed
- _____ 4-16 Provocateur = Stimulates unrest
- _____ 4-17 Loyal = Stays with and supports friends even when they have substantial problems or difficulties
- _____ 4-18 Unique = An unusual person, has characteristics of behaviors that are different from most others
- _____ 4-19 Collaborative = Works jointly with others
- _____ 4-20 Encouraging = Gives courage, confidence or hope through reassuring and advising
- _____ 4-21 Morale booster = Increases morale of subordinates by offering encouragement, praise, and/or by being confident
- _____ 4-22 Orderly = Is organized and methodological in work
- _____ 4-23 Autocratic = Makes decisions in dictatorial way
- _____ 4-24 Secretive = Tends to conceal information from others
- _____ 4-25 Generous = Willing to give time, money, resources and help to others
- _____ 4-26 Modest = Does not boast, presents self in a humble manner
- _____ 4-27 Decisive = Makes decisions firmly and quickly
- _____ 4-28 Compassionate = Has empathy for others, inclined to be helpful or show mercy

Section 4b questions begin here.

- _____ 4-1 Cautious = Proceeds/performs with great care and does not take risks
- _____ 4-2 Non-cooperative = Unwilling to work jointly with others
- _____ 4-3 Status-conscious = Aware of others' socially accepted status
- _____ 4-4 Individually oriented = Concerned with and places high value on preserving individual rather than group needs
- _____ 4-5 Non-egalitarian = Believes that all individuals are not equal and only some should have equal rights and privileges
- _____ 4-6 Indirect = Does not go straight to the point, uses metaphors and examples to communicate
- _____ 4-7 Self-effacing = Presents self in a modest way
- _____ 4-8 Excellence oriented = Strives for excellence in performance of self and subordinates
- _____ 4-9 Procedural = Follows established rules and guidelines
- _____ 4-10 Group-oriented = Concerned with the welfare of the group
- _____ 4-11 Class conscious = Is conscious of class and status boundaries and acts accordingly
- _____ 4-12 Non-participative = Does not participate with others
- _____ 4-13 Self-sacrificial = Foregoes self-interests and makes personal sacrifices in the interest of a goal or vision
- _____ 4-14 Patient = Has and shows patience
- _____ 4-15 Honest = Speaks and acts truthfully
- _____ 4-16 Elitist = Believes that a small number of people with similar backgrounds are superior

and should enjoy privileges

- _____ 4-17 Team builder = Able to induce group members to work together
 _____ 4-18 Performance-oriented = Sets high standards of performance
 _____ 4-19 Micro-manager = An extremely close supervisor, one who insists on making all decisions
 _____ 4-20 Non-delegater = Unwilling or unable to relinquish control of projects or tasks
 _____ 4-21 Visionary = Has a vision and imagination of the future
 _____ 4-22 Willful = Strong-willed, determined, resolute, persistent
 _____ 4-23 Ruler = Is in charge and does not tolerate disagreement or questioning, gives orders
 _____ 4-24 Hostile = Actively unfriendly, acts negatively toward others
 _____ 4-25 Future-oriented = Makes plans and takes actions based on future goals
 _____ 4-26 Individualistic = Behaves in a different manner than peers

SECTION 4: Demographic Data

Because this research is of a cross-cultural nature, it is important to gain an understanding of the demographics of the respondents.

Please select appropriate choice below:

1. Age

< 25	25 – 32	33 – 42	43 – 55	56+
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2. I work at:

BU 1	BU 2	BU 3	BU 4	Other
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3. My current job level is:

Level 5	Level 4	other (specify)
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4. I have been working at Sasol for

< 1 year	1-2 yrs	3 – 6 yrs	+ 6 yrs
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5. My nationality is:

South African	Other (specify)
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6. The country I currently reside in is:

7. I consider myself belonging to one of the four ethnic groups,

Coloured	Asian	Black	White	N/A
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