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Cross-National, Cross-Cultural Organizational Behavior Research: Advances, Gaps, and Recommendations[†]

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The advent of the 21st century has witnessed an increasing interest in developing knowledge of international management to meet the needs of global business development. To take stock of the progress in organizational behavior research with national culture as the major explanatory variable, the authors analyzed 93 empirical studies published in the 16 leading management journals from 1996 to 2005. This analysis shows some advances but also identifies many gaps in both theory and methods. They offer seven recommendations to address these gaps and advance future research.

Keywords: *culture, cross-cultural, cross-national, international, cross-cultural OB*

At the dawn of the 21st century, it is surely a cliché to say, “We live in a global environment.” Employees, teams, and organizations are increasingly operating in multicultural,

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multinational contexts. More and more firms are exporting work, not merely goods, to countries across the globe. Physical distance or time differences are no longer barriers to foreign investment. Local firms without venturing abroad are competing with global corporations. It is not surprising that the metaphors of a “flat world” (Friedman, 2005) or a “global village” (Ger, 1999) are fitting descriptions of the contemporary business world. The acceleration of global business development is accompanied by a surging interest in management research across cultures, as evidenced by the increasing presence of international studies in leading journals, along with comprehensive and informative reviews on the status of this research.

Journal of Management has published two major reviews on international management research in recent years. Earley and Gibson (1998) tracked the studies of individualism and collectivism during 100 years. Werner (2002) analyzed recent developments in international management research in 20 top management journals. Kirkman, Lowe, and Gibson (2006), in *Journal of International Business Studies*, reviewed 25 years of empirical research on Hofstede’s cultural values framework. Schaffer and Riordan (2003), in an article published in *Organizational Research Methods*, reviewed the methodologies of cross-cultural research. Gelfand, Erez, and Aycan (2007) gave us an update on cross-cultural organizational behavior research in *Annual Review of Psychology*. Even the *Academy of Management Journal* devoted two editorial essays (Eden & Rynes, 2003; Kirkman & Law, 2005) to take stock of the status of international management research published in the *Academy of Management Journal* and expressed pride in its accomplishments. These reviews convey a sense of progress, excitement, and anticipation that the 21st century is certainly going to be, or should be, the century of international management research.

About a decade ago, Lytle, Brett, Barsness, Tinsley, and Janssens (1995) provided a state-of-the-art assessment of cross-cultural research in organizational behavior. Earley and Singh (1995) pointed out that the empirical literature in cross-cultural research is plagued with “confusion concerning the role of culture and national context” (p. 337). Cavusgil and Das (1997) discussed methodological challenges in comparative cross-cultural research in management. These, and the aforementioned recent reviews, identified many conceptual and methodological gaps in the burgeoning literature. They concur that much work remains to build a solid body of knowledge on management or organizational behavior across cultures and offer guidance on how to accomplish this task. Have researchers heeded the good advice of these scholars? The answer is, unfortunately, “Not very often.”

Cross-cultural studies in cross-national contexts are more complex than are domestic cross-cultural studies. To begin with, this research requires cross-level theorizing and research methods by relating national level characteristics to individual- or team-level responses. In addition, cross-national data collection introduces issues related to matching samples and construct equivalence. These challenges go beyond those faced by scholars studying cross-cultural differences in a single country or at a single level when cultural values are treated as individual differences variables (e.g., Erez & Earley, 1993). In this article, we focus on cross-national organizational behavior studies with national culture as the major explanatory variable.

To gauge the status of this research, we review articles published in the leading management journals in the most-recent 10-year period. The rationale for focusing on the best work in the past decade is simple: It informs us about major advances and helps us to identify the challenges evident in even the best work on this important and expanding field. The publications

in the high-quality journals should set the benchmarks for theory and methods and provide good examples for future scholars. Through an in-depth and critical review of the best work, we aim to (a) identify the conceptual and analytical treatment of the concept of culture, which relates to construct validity; (b) assess the role of culture in explaining organizational behavior between the nations being compared, which relates to internal validity; (c) evaluate the meaning and generalizability of the knowledge gained to the nations being studied, which relates to external validity; and (d) offer recommendations to further advance this line of research.

We organize this article as follows. In the first section, Journal and Article Identification, we describe the criteria used in selecting the journals and in identifying the articles to include in the review. In the second section, Content Review, we organize the studies into research subject areas and analyze how researchers have treated the construct of culture and how well culture has informed substantive knowledge about organizational behavior. The third section is Method Review, where we address issues such as sample selection, research design, and statistical approaches used to assess measurement validity and testing hypotheses. We also identify the countries covered by these studies and the country profiles of the authors. From this analysis, we identify the methodological issues that may challenge the internal and external validities of the studies. Finally, in the Recommendations section, we call attention to basic work in construct definition and development, theory building that puts culture in the context of other national characteristics, and indigenous or country-specific research to advance knowledge of organizational behavior in different national contexts.

Journal and Article Identification

We relied on Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Bachrach, and Podsakoff (2005) to identify the list of leading management journals. To begin with, we selected journals that publish organizational behavior research. So *Strategic Management Journal* was excluded. We also excluded journals oriented toward practitioners (e.g., *Harvard Business Review*) or that publish only conceptual articles (e.g., *Academy of Management Review*). We supplemented this list with additional journals from Kirkman et al. (2006) and Werner (2002). Altogether, we identified 20 journals.

The article identification was based on our definition of cross-national, cross-cultural organizational behavior. We define cross-national, cross-cultural organizational behavior as the study of individual behavior and team processes in which national cultural characteristics play a major role as independent or moderating variables. Therefore, we exclusively focused on studies that draw samples from at least two nations and excluded studies in the multicultural but domestic settings. For example, Vandenberghe, Stinglhamber, Bentein, and Delhaise (2001) analyzed the generalizability of a multidimensional model of commitment among employees from 12 different nationalities working in the Translation Department of the European Commission. There is a possibility that the results were attenuated by the organizational culture, human resources practices, communication structure, and physical proximity. Another example is the study comparing negotiation behaviors of Americans to those of Japanese managers working in the same U.S. metropolitan city (Brett & Okumura, 1998). Such samples may not provide a true test of cross-national differences. First, expatriate managers may not be representative of managers in their home culture because of the selection process. Second, exposure to a foreign culture may

introduce subtle changes in behavior and attitude among the expatriate managers. We further excluded studies in specific nations outside North America, known as “foreign domestic studies” (Ricks, 1985). For instance, the study of organizational citizenship behavior in Taiwan and comparison of the findings to those in the extant Western literature (Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997) does not fit our review criteria. The recent reviews of cross-cultural organizational behavior research (e.g., Gelfand et al., 2007; Kirkman et al., 2006) have included both domestic cross-cultural and foreign-domestic studies. We focus on true cross-national studies, in which the samples work and live in their own nations within their indigenous cultures.

Beyond requiring the sample to be cross-national, we considered only the studies that address research questions in organizational settings or issues couched within an organizational context. We further excluded studies that analyze the influence of culture on human resource systems such as compensation (e.g., Schuler & Rogovsky, 1998) or selection practices (e.g., Ryan, McFarland, Baron, & Page, 1999). Studies that validate measurement across cultures (e.g., Gibson, Zellmer-Bruhn, & Schwab, 2003) or differences in cultural values across nations (e.g., Lenartowicz & Johnson, 2003) are also outside the domain of our review.

We identified the articles to be included in our review in the following manner. We read the titles of all the articles published in the 20 journals during the 10-year period, supplemented by a search using the keywords *culture*, *cultural*, *cross-cultural*, *nation*, *national*, *cross-national*, *country*, *compared*, *comparative*, and *across* in the abstracts of the articles. In addition, we checked the references in recent reviews of cross-cultural organizational behavior topics. We then read the short-listed articles. Finally, we identified 93 articles in 16 journals that fit our definition of cross-national, cross-cultural organizational behavior research. Table 1 shows the list of 16 journals and the number of articles in each. Even though we made every effort to be thorough in our search, the possibility remains that we might have missed unintentionally some articles. Hopefully, any omissions would not significantly alter the conclusions of our review.

Content Review

Given that culture is a core construct in all these studies, we first identify the cultural variables used and measured in these studies. We then briefly summarize each article for new knowledge gained in the substantive area and the role of culture in this knowledge.

Cultural Values Used

Most researchers use culture to refer to the fairly stable characteristics of a group that differentiate it from other groups. More than 50 years ago, Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) offered a definition of culture that is still widely cited today:

patterns, explicit and implicit of and for behavior, acquired and transmitted by symbols. . . . The essential core of culture consists of tradition, . . . ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other hand, as conditioning elements of future action. (p. 181)

Table 1
List of Journals and Number of Articles

Journal Name	Number of Articles
<i>Academy of Management Journal (AMJ)</i>	9
<i>Administrative Science Quarterly (ASQ)</i>	2
<i>Human Relations (HR)</i>	6
<i>Journal of Applied Psychology (JAP)</i>	16
<i>Journal of Business Research (JBR)</i>	4
<i>Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology (JCCP)</i>	9
<i>Journal of International Business Studies (JIBS)</i>	16
<i>Journal of Management (JOM)</i>	2
<i>Journal of Management Studies (JMS)</i>	2
<i>Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology (JOOP)</i>	2
<i>Journal of Organizational Behavior (JOB)</i>	7
<i>Leadership Quarterly (LQ)</i>	3
<i>Management International Review (MIR)</i>	5
<i>Organization Science (OS)</i>	2
<i>Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes (OBHDP)</i>	5
<i>Personnel Psychology (PP)</i>	3
Total	93

Hofstede's (1993) definition of culture also is frequently referenced: "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes one group or category of people from another" (p. 89). Most recently, the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project defines culture as "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations" (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004: 15). These definitions suggest that common experiences and shared meaning are important delimiters of a cultural group. Even though scholars generally agree that variations between groups can exist on multiple dimensions (cognitions, behaviors, and values), cross-cultural research has focused on shared cultural values as the major source of differentiation among national groups.

The definitions of, and assumptions about, culture in the 93 studies are largely consistent, but there is great variation in its measurement. It ranges from using a general concept such as nation (which could represent multiple cultural values or other national characteristics) to focusing on a specific cultural value such as individualism or power distance (PD). Fewer than half (43) of the 93 studies measured the cultural value or values hypothesized to account for the differences in the phenomena analyzed. Table 2 summarizes the cultural values measured and the scales used to measure them in the 43 studies, along with the sources of the scales. Even though 43 studies measured culture, only 33 used the measured cultural value scores for hypotheses testing. Ten studies measured cultural values only to validate sample differences. This means that 60, or about two thirds, of the studies used nation as a proxy for culture.

In Table 2, we group the studies by the name of the scale mentioned in the articles. A total of 32 studies used a version of individualism or collectivism. Ten studies referred to

(text continues on p. 434)

Table 2
Cultural Values Measured in 43 Cross-National Studies

Cultural Value	Studies That Measured the Cultural Value	Source Cited for the Cultural Value Measured
	Variants of individualism/collectivism (32 studies)	
Individualism/collectivism	Chen, Meindl, and Hui (1998) Cullen, Parboteeah, and Hoegl (2004) Earley, Gibson, and Chen (1999) Elenkov and Manev (2005) Ensari and Murphy (2003) ^a Gomez, Kirkman, and Shapiro (2000) Huang and Van de Vliert (2003) Smith, Peterson, and Schwartz (2002) Spector et al. (2001, 2002) Volkema (2004)	Perloe (1967) Hui (1988) Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) Hofstede (1980, 2001) Hofstede (1980, 2001) Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai, and Luccu (1988) Wagner (1995) Hofstede (1991) Hofstede (1994) Hofstede (1994) Hofstede (1980, 1991) Schwartz (1994) Content analysis of interview data Triandis and Gelfand (1998) Schwartz (1994) Earley (1993)
Individualism	Adair, Okumura, and Brett (2001) ^a Gibson and Zellmer-Bruhn (2001) Lam, Schaubroeck, and Aryee (2002) Murphy-Berman and Berman (2002) ^a Timsley (2001) Wade-Benzoni et al. (2002) ^a Gibson (1999) Gelfand and Realo (1999) Kirkman and Shapiro (2001a) Kirkman and Shapiro (2001b) Murphy-Berman and Berman (2002) ^a Van de Vliert, Shi, Sanders, Wang, and Huang (2004)	Markus and Kitayama (1991), Schwartz (1990) Earley (1993) Triandis (1994) Maznevski, DiStefano, Gomez, Noorderhaven, and Wu (1997) Maznevski et al. (1997) Schwartz (1994) Singelis (1994) Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, and Gelfand (1995) Singelis et al. (1995) Singelis et al. (1995) Singelis et al. (1995) Singelis et al. (1995)
Collectivism		
Horizontal individualism and Vertical collectivism	Chan and Dragow (2001) Chen and Li (2005) Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Dragow, and Lawler (2000) ^a Thomas and Au (2002) Thomas and Pekerti (2003) ^a	

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Cultural Value	Studies That Measured the Cultural Value	Source Cited for the Cultural Value Measured
Horizontal collectivism	Chen and Li (2005)	Singelis et al. (1995)
Vertical individualism	Robert et al. (2000) ^a	Singelis et al. (1995)
In-group collectivism	Fu et al. (2004)	House et al. (1999)
Independent or interdependent self-construal	Brockner, Chen, Mannix, Leung, and Skarlicki (2000)	Singelis et al. (1995)
	Gelfand et al. (2002) ^a	Singelis (1994)
	Murphy-Berman and Berman (2002) ^a	Singelis (1994)
Idiocentrism and allocentrism	Lam, Chen, and Schaubroeck (2002)	Triandis and Gelfand (1998)
	Schaubroeck, Lam and Xie (2000)	Triandis and Gelfand (1998)
Variants of power distance (18 studies)		
Power distance	Earley (1999)	Earley and Erez (1997)
	Elenkov and Manev (2005)	Hofstede (1980, 2001)
	Gibson and Zellmer-Bruhn (2001)	Content analysis of interview data
	Hofstede, Van Deussen, Mueller, and Charles (2002)	Hofstede (1980, 1991, 2001)
	Huang and Van de Vliert (2003)	Hofstede (1991)
	Hui, Au, and Fock (2004)	Hofstede (1991); Brockner et al. (2001)
	Kirkman and Shapiro (2001a)	Maznevski et al. (1997)
	Kirkman and Shapiro (2001b)	Maznevski et al. (1997)
	Lam, et al. (2002)	Erez and Earley (1987)
	Peterson and Smith (1997)	Hofstede (1991)
	Smith et al. (2002)	Hofstede (1994)
	Van de Vliert and Van Yperen (1996)	Hofstede (1991)
	Volkema (2004)	Hofstede (1980, 1991)
Hierarchy	Adair et al. (2001) ^a	Schwartz (1994)
	Tinsley and Brett (2001) ^a	Schwartz (1994)
Egalitarianism-hierarchy	Glazer and Beehr (2005) ^a	Schwartz (1994)
Hierarchical differentiation	Tinsley (1998)	No source mentioned
	Tinsley (2001)	Erez and Earley (1987)

Other cultural values (16 studies)

1. Achievement	Cullen et al. (2004)	Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998)
2. Universalism	Morris et al. (1998)	Schwartz (1992, 1994)
3. Conservatism	Glazer and Beehr (2005) ^a	Schwartz (1994)
	Tinsley and Pillutla (1998) ^a	Schwartz (1992)
4. Determination	Kirkman and Shapero (2001a)	Maznevski et al. (1997)
5. Doing orientation	Kirkman and Shapero (2001b)	Maznevski et al. (1997)
6. Egalitarian commitment-conservatism	Smith et al. (2002)	Smith, Dugan, and Trompenaars (1996)
7. Loyal involvement- utilitarian involvement	Tinsley (1998)	No source mentioned
8. Explicit contracting	Tinsley (2001)	Tinsley (1998)
	Gibson (1999)	Oltman, Raskin, and Witkin (1971)
9. Field independence	Fu et al. (2004)	House et al. (1999)
10. Future orientation	Smith et al. (2002)	Schwartz (1994)
11. Autonomy-embeddedness	Elenkov and Manev (2005)	Hofstede (1980, 2001)
12. Harmony-mastery	Smith et al. (2002)	Hofstede (1994)
13. Masculinity	Volkema (2004)	Hofstede (1980, 1991)
	Fischer and Smith (2004)	Schwartz (1992)
14. Openness to change	Morris et al. (1998)	Schwartz (1992, 1994)
15. Self-enhancement	Tinsley and Pillutla (1998) ^a	Schwartz (1992)
16. Self-transcendence	Tinsley (1998)	No source mentioned
17. Polychronicity	Tinsley (2001)	Bluedorn, Kaufman, and Lane (1992)
	Cullen et al. (2004)	Inglehart (1997)
18. Pecuniary materialism	Tinsley and Brett (2001) ^a	Schwartz (1994)
19. Self-direction	Spreitzer, Perttula, and Xin (2005)	Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997)
20. Traditionality	Tinsley and Brett (2001) ^a	Schwartz (1994)
21. Tradition	Elenkov and Manev (2005)	Hofstede (1980, 2001)
22. Uncertainty avoidance	Fu et al. (2004)	House et al. (1999)
	Smith et al. (2002)	Hofstede (1994)
	Volkema (2004)	Hofstede (1980, 1991)

a. Studies that measured the cultural value only for validating sample differences across nations.

individualism/collectivism (I/C) and treated it as a continuum. Six studies used only the term *individualism*, and another six studies used only the term *collectivism*. Five studies employed the measures of horizontal individualism and vertical collectivism. These 32 studies used a total of 15 unique sources for a measurement of this I/C construct. The Hofstede (1980, 1991, 1994, 2001) measures were used in 5 studies, the Singelis (1994, 1995) measures in 11, and the Triandis (1989, 1994, 1998) measures in 5. Two studies used the Earley (1993) scale, but one study (Gibson, 1999) referred to it as *collectivism*, whereas the other (Tinsley, 2001) referred to it as *individualism*. Kirkman and Shapiro (2001a, 2001b) used the Collectivism Scale by Maznevski, DiStefano, Gomez, Noorderhaven, and Wu (1997), whereas Fu et al. (2004) used the House et al. (1999) in-group collectivism measure. The lack of consensus on the measurement for this cultural value is evident, and is a cause for concern in terms of construct validity and accumulation of knowledge.

The next most frequently measured value was PD and its variants, hierarchy, egalitarianism—hierarchy, or hierarchical differentiation, used in 18 studies. Eight studies used the PD Scale from Hofstede (1980, 1991, 2001). Four used the Hierarchy Scale from Schwartz (1994). Two used the scale by Erez and Earley (1987), one referring to it as PD (Lam, Chen, & Schaubroeck, 2002; Lam, Schaubroeck, & Aryee, 2002) and the other as *hierarchical differentiation* (Tinsley, 2001). Kirkman and Shapiro (2001a, 2001b) used the measure by Maznevski et al. (1997). Similar to I/C, there is no information on the convergent validity of these multiple measures.

Beyond I/C and PD, 22 other values were used in 16 studies. The value measures by Schwartz (1992, 1994) seem to be gaining prominence and were used in 9 studies, followed by the Uncertainty Avoidance Scale by Hofstede in 3 studies. Tinsley (1998, 2001) used the scales of polychronicity and explicit contracting, treating them as cultural values even though both refer to a behavioral orientation. The former refers to a preference for multi-tasking, or simultaneous tasking, and the latter refers to a preference for overt codes and communications over informal indirect arrangements.

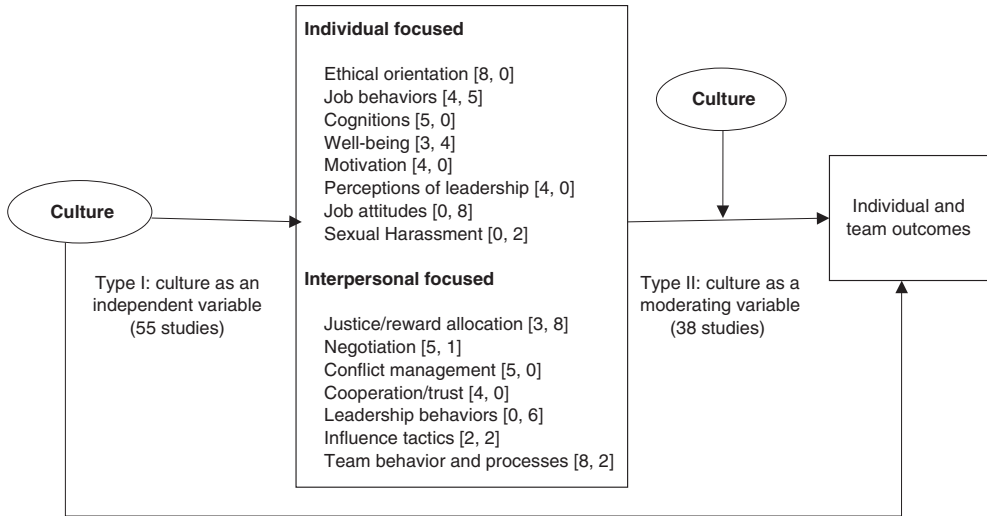
In summary, although the interest in I/C and PD remains strong, recent research has begun to use a variety of other cultural values to examine differences in organizational behavior across national contexts. Also, the culture frameworks of scholars such as Singelis, Triandis, and Schwartz are beginning to supplement the Hofstede conceptualization. The proliferation of values and measurement in recent years is a distinctive feature of this literature. Ironically, this may be a hindrance to progress, a point we will discuss in the Recommendations section.

Next, we analyze the topics and types of theoretical models tested in the 93 studies, paying attention to the specific role of the cultural values.

Topics Studied

As shown in Figure 1, we organize the articles according to the role of culture in the theoretical model either as an independent variable (Type I) or as a moderator (Type II)—a typology suggested by Lytle et al. (1995) and also adopted in Kirkman et al.'s (2006) review. Within each type, we further arrange the articles in terms of the research topic area, such as leadership, job attitudes, and so on. These topic areas are categorized into studies that focus on the individual

Figure 1
Two Types of Cross-National, Cross-Cultural Studies
on Individuals and Teams in Organizations



Note: In the brackets are the number of Type I (first number) and Type II (second number) studies.

attributes (individual focused) and those that focus on the relationships between people (interpersonal focused), resulting in a total of 55 Type I and 38 Type II studies.

Type I Studies—Culture as Independent Variable

The most frequent topics in Type I studies are ethical orientation, negotiation, conflict management, and team behavior and processes. Five studies focus on the cognitions of employees or managers in a variety of areas without any systematic relationship among them. We group them loosely under the term *cognition*. The job behaviors category includes two studies on performance feedback and two studies on managerial use of different sources for dealing with work issues. Table 3 shows the 55 Type I studies, organized by research areas. The number of countries studied and journal where the article was published also are indicated.

Ethical orientation. Eight articles focus on country variations in managerial attitudes toward ethics. Cullen, Parboteeah, and Hoegl (2004) conducted a 28-country study on ethically suspect behavior using Durkheim's (1893/1964) institutional anomie theory. They found that cultural values of achievement orientation and individualism negatively related to the managers' willingness to justify ethically suspect behavior, whereas universalism and pecuniary materialism

Table 3
Type I Studies With Culture as an Independent Variable

Individual Focused	Interpersonal Focused
<p>Ethical orientation</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Cullen, Parboteeah, and Hoegl (2004), <i>AMJ</i>—ethical behavior [28] 2. Husted, Dozier, McMahon, and Kattan (1996), <i>JIBS</i>—ethical attitudes [3] 3. Jackson (2000), <i>JMS</i>—ethical attitudes [5] 4. Jackson (2001), <i>HR</i>—ethical attitudes [10] 5. Parboteeah, Cullen, Victor, and Sakano (2005), <i>MIR</i>—ethical climate [2] 6. Robertson, Hoffman, and Hermann (1999), <i>MIR</i>—environmental ethics [2] 7. Volkema (1999), <i>JBR</i>—ethicality in negotiation [2] 8. Volkema (2004), <i>JBR</i>—ethicality in negotiation [9] <p>Job behaviors</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Bailey, Chen, and Dou (1997), <i>JIBS</i>—feedback preference [3] 2. Earley, Gibson, and Chen (1999), <i>JCCP</i>—performance feedback use [3] 3. Smith, Peterson, and Schwartz (2002), <i>JCCP</i>—sources of guidance [47] 4. Smith, Peterson, and Wang (1996), <i>JIBS</i>—sources of guidance [3] <p>Cognitions</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Abramson, Keating, and Lane (1996), <i>MIR</i>—problem-solving style [3] 2. Chikudate (1997), <i>MIR</i>—meaning of organizational life [2] 3. DeVoe and Iyengar (2004), <i>OBHDP</i>—theories of employee motivation [6] 4. Johns and Xie (1998), <i>JAP</i>—view on absences from work [2] 5. Lam, Hui, and Law (1999), <i>JAP</i>—perspectives on citizenship behavior [4] <p>Well-being</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Peterson and Smith (1997), <i>AMJ</i>—role stress [32] 2. Spector et al. (2001), <i>JOB</i>—locus of control and well-being [24] 3. Van de Vliert and Van Yperen (1996), <i>AMJ</i>—role stress [21] <p>Motivation</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Chan and Draggow (2001), <i>JAP</i>—motivation to lead [2] 2. Hofstede, Van Deussen, Mueller, and Charles (2002), <i>JIBS</i>—leaders' business goals [15] 3. Niles (1999), <i>HR</i>—meaning of work [2] 4. Sagie, Elizur, and Yamauchi (1996), <i>JOB</i>—achievement motivation [5] 	<p>Justice or reward allocation</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Giacobe-Miller, Miller, and Victorov (1998), <i>PP</i>—reward allocation rules [2] 2. Giacobe-Miller, Zhang, Miller, and Victorov (2003), <i>JIBS</i>—reward allocation rules [3] 3. Murphy-Berman and Berman (2002), <i>JCCP</i>—distributive justice evaluations [2] <p>Negotiation</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Adair and Brett (2005), <i>OS</i>—negotiation behavior [8] 2. Adair, Okumura, and Brett (2001), <i>JAP</i>—negotiation behavior [2] 3. Gelfand and Christakopoulou (1999), <i>OBHDP</i>—negotiation process [2] 4. Gelfand et al. (2002), <i>JAP</i>—perception of fairness in negotiations [2, 2, 2, 2] 5. Tinsley and Pillutla (1998), <i>JIBS</i>—negotiation norms [2] <p>Conflict management</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Gelfand et al. (2001), <i>JAP</i>—conflict frame [2] 2. Morris et al. (1998), <i>JIBS</i>—conflict style [4] 3. Tinsley (1998), <i>JAP</i>—conflict resolution modes [3] 4. Tinsley (2001), <i>JAP</i>—negotiating conflict [3] 5. Tinsley and Brett (2001), <i>OBHDP</i>—conflict management strategies [2] <p>Cooperation or trust</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Chen and Li (2005), <i>JIBS</i>—cooperative behavior [2] 2. Marshall and Boush (2001), <i>JIBS</i>—cooperation [2] 3. Huff and Kelley (2003), <i>OS</i>—trust in organization [7] 4. Huff and Kelley (2005), <i>JBR</i>—trust in organization [7] <p>Influence tactics</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Fu and Yuki (2000), <i>LQ</i>—perceived effectiveness of influence tactics [2] 2. Ralston et al. (2001), <i>JCCP</i>—influence tactic preference [6]

Perceptions of leadership

1. Brodbeck et al. (2000), *JOPP*—leadership prototypes [22]
2. Den Hartog, House, Hanges, and Ruiz-Quintanilla (1999), *LQ*—implicit leadership theories [62]
3. Javidan and Carl (2004), *JMS*—leadership profiles [2]
4. Javidan and Carl (2005), *MIR*—leadership attributes [2]

Team behavior and processes

1. Earley (1999), *OBHDP*—collective efficacy [4]
2. Gibson and Zellmer-Bruhn (2001), *ASQ*—teamwork metaphor [4]
3. Gomez, Kirkman, and Shapiro (2000), *AMJ*—team member evaluation [2]
4. Harrison, McKinnon, Wu, and Chow (2000), *JIBS*—teamwork adaptation [2]
5. Kirkman and Shapiro (2001a), *AMJ*—resistance to teams and individual outcomes [4]
6. Kirkman and Shapiro (2001b), *JCCP*—resistance to teams and team outcomes [4]
7. Merritt and Helmreich (1996), *JCCP*—attitude toward team and team leadership [8]
8. Wade-Benzoni et al. (2002), *JAP*—cooperation [2]

Note: $N = 55$. Value in brackets refers to the number of countries in the study. Multiple values means multiple studies reported in the article. See Table 1 for acronym definitions.

positively related to it. The authors further found social institutional factors such as degrees of industrialization, socialism, and family breakdown to be associated with a high likelihood of these managers accepting ethically suspect behavior. Average educational attainment of the society, however, negatively related to this lenient ethical attitude.

The study by Husted, Dozier, McMahon, and Kattan (1996) tested the hypotheses that an MBA education may be a carrier of business ethics and may produce convergence in ethical orientation across nations. Among the samples of MBA students from Mexico, Spain, and the United States, there was substantial agreement on objectionable practices. However, the moral reasoning of the respondents remained divergent across the three nations, with Mexico and the United States being the most different. The author acknowledged the problem of using a translation of an existing moral reasoning scale that may have unknown validity for the comparison cultures.

Jackson (2000) investigated the influence of corporate policy on ethical gray areas on managers' ethical decision making in five countries. He found corporate policy to not play a significant role in ethical decision making attitudes. However, perceived behavior of peers had significant influence on attitudes toward ethics across nations. Also the respondents' perception of top manager beliefs produced some minor national differences. In a 10-nation study, Jackson (2001), using the cultural values of uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and collectivism, hypothesized national differences in ethical judgments. Results based on detailed pairwise analyses largely confirmed the hypothesized differences. In particular, managers from countries high on individualism and low on uncertainty avoidance assigned greater importance to relations with external stakeholders than did managers from countries with other cultural characteristics. However, neither study measured cultural values, and therefore the differences could be because of unmeasured institutional factors such as those considered in the Cullen et al. (2004) study.

Volkema (1999) investigated the perceived ethicality of negotiation, comparing the perceptions of MBA students in the United States and Brazil. Using Hofstede's value dimensions, he reasoned that U.S. respondents would differ from Brazilians on the likely use of five negotiation behaviors. He found the U.S. respondents to report less likelihood of information misrepresentation and bluffing than the Brazilian respondents. Because he did not measure cultural values, many other factors could account for the observed differences. Volkema (2004) extended the research to nine countries and used Hofstede's country scores on the four cultural values, along with two economic indicators (consumer price increase and/or gross domestic product [GDP] per capita). He related them to five categories of negotiation behavior. The results of the study were not very strong, as only 4 out of a possible total of 30 regression coefficients were significant.

The studies by Robertson, Hoffman, and Herrmann (1999) and Parboteeah, Cullen, Victor, and Sakano (2005) compared the United States to Ecuador and Japan, respectively. Robertson et al. (1999) found the Ecuadorian managers to be slightly more ethically oriented toward the environmental concerns (deforestation and overfishing) than the U.S. managers. Parboteeah et al. (2005) used cultural values of individualism and collectivism (but did not measure them) to hypothesize a higher benevolent ethical climate among accountants in Japan and a higher egoistic and principled ethical climate in the United States. The authors also drew support for their arguments from religious underpinnings—Shintoism and Buddhism—which were argued to

influence the worldview of the Japanese managers. The results were not entirely consistent with the hypotheses. American accountants consistently rated their companies as demonstrating a higher level of ethical climate than did the Japanese accountants. The responses of American participants could have been influenced by the ethical problems that have pervaded the U.S. accounting industry in recent years, posing a threat to the internal validity of the findings.

Job behaviors. Bailey, Chen, and Dou (1997), on the basis of individualism versus collectivism values, argued that U.S. respondents expect success feedback, whereas Japanese and Chinese desire failure feedback. The results supported the hypotheses for the United States and Japan, but there was no difference between the U.S. and Chinese samples in terms of their success-feedback expectations. Another study focused on how individualists and collectivists would react to individual- or group-based feedback in terms of self-efficacy, performance, and job satisfaction (Earley, Gibson, & Chen, 1999). This study used samples from three countries (the United States, China, and Czechoslovakia). Based on both measured cultural values of I/C and the country proxies, the results were inconsistent with the predictions. In particular, collectivists positively reacted to both individual-based and group-based feedback. Smith, Peterson, and Schwartz (2002) studied how managers in 47 countries handled eight specific work events. The study used national culture scores from Hofstede (2001). Results suggested that cultural values predict sources of guidance that managers rely on when they pertain to vertical relationships. However, values are less successful in predicting reliance on peers. Another study, by Smith, Peterson, and Wang (1996), examined managers in China, the United States, and Britain. They found that Western managers rely more on their own experiences, whereas Chinese managers rely more on rules and procedures. The authors used national culture to explain the differences, even though culture was not measured and the country proxy was used in the statistical analyses.

Cognitions. Abramson, Keating, and Lane (1996) compared the decision style preferences of Canadian, American, and Japanese managers using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. The findings suggested significant differences between American and Canadian managers. In particular, Canadians seemed to be more imaginative and theoretical, whereas Americans appeared to be more realistic and practical. However, this study did not measure values, leaving open the possibility of alternative explanations. In another study involving comparison of Japanese and U.S. samples, Chikudate (1997) used a method based on linguistic-oriented phenomenology to examine meaning of organizational life among U.S. and Japanese supervisors and subordinates. In interviews, they listed words describing life in the organization. The unique words from the two samples were combined. Participants were then asked to estimate the distance between pairs of words. The multidimensional scaling analysis was applied to the data from the superiors and subordinates separately. The results show important differences in the way Japanese and Americans view authority and power. For example, Japanese managers tend to attach a lot of authority to their hierarchical positions, but American managers do not. However, the author also found that managers and subordinates in both Japan and the United States similarly related harmony and happiness in organizational life. Because this study did not directly measure culture, the results could be influenced by other sample differences as well.

DeVoe and Iyengar (2004) examined cross-cultural differences in how managers perceive motivation among their subordinates. Using samples from six countries in North America, Asia, and Latin America, the authors found that North American managers perceived employees to be more extrinsically than intrinsically motivated. Latin American managers saw their subordinates as more intrinsically motivated than extrinsically motivated. Finally, Asian managers perceived their subordinates to be equally motivated by intrinsic and extrinsic factors. However, there was no cross-cultural difference in terms of how employees viewed themselves—they always saw themselves as more intrinsically than extrinsically motivated. Like DeVoe and Iyengar (2004), Lam, Hui, and Law (1999) examined supervisors' perspectives on their subordinates' roles in four countries. Results suggested that supervisors from all four nations had broader definitions of job roles than did their subordinates. In particular, supervisors from Japan and Hong Kong included many extrarole behaviors as expected parts of their subordinates' jobs. This study neither measured culture nor included any demographic variables as controls, suggesting that alternative explanations abound for the observed differences. Focusing on how behaviors of colleagues are viewed, Johns and Xie (1998) reported that Chinese employees view absences of colleagues from their work group more sympathetically than do Canadians. No cross-cultural difference existed in terms of how the two samples viewed their own absences. This study controlled for individual differences variables but did not measure culture.

Well-being. Two studies examined the role of a nation's ambient temperature, relative to cultural values, for employee experiences of role stress. Van de Vliert and Van Yperen (1996) proposed an alternative explanation to an earlier study by Peterson et al. (1995) on the relationship of PD and role stress. They argued that this correlation could be an artifact of a third variable, the temperature of the nation where the work was performed. Using the original data from Peterson et al. involving 21 nations, they found a positive correlation between temperature and role overload, even after controlling for PD and a host of other economic indicators. Peterson and Smith (1997) pointed out the flaws in the sampling and design of the Van de Vliert and Van Yperen (1996) study. Using an enlarged sample of 32 nations and a more refined temperature measure (from the city where the role-stress measure was obtained), they found PD to relate to both role overload and role ambiguity after controlling for temperature. However, the correlation of temperature and role stress was not significant after controlling for PD. Peterson and Smith (1997) concluded that these correlations do not provide definitive evidence for a causal link between any of these variables. The more important need is to interpret clusters and configuration of variables in international research because of the interdependent presence of multiple contributors to culture. We will elaborate on the configuration approach to cross-national studies in the Recommendations section.

Spector et al. (2001) examined the relationships of individualism to work locus of control and to well-being. Using data from 24 nations, and computing correlations at the nation or territory levels, the authors found I/C to strongly relate to work locus of control, whereas it was unrelated to the measures of well-being. Because the analyses were at the ecological level, their meaning at the individual level is unknown.

Motivation. An interesting study was conducted by Niles (1999), a Sri Lankan by birth working in Australia at the time of the study. She reasoned that Christianity is not the only etiology

of the Protestant work ethic. She refuted the popular pessimistic view of Buddhism and suggested that the Buddha formulated a work ethic encouraging hard work, initiative, striving, persistence, and ethics. She drew a stratified random sample of residents in Darwin, Australia, and Colombo, Sri Lanka. Of the sample from Colombo, 98% were Buddhists, and 68% of the Darwin sample were Christians. She found that the Sri Lankan respondents endorsed a work ethic more strongly than did respondents from the Western culture. The study did not measure any cultural values, and the analysis did not include any other contextual factors. However, the stratified random sample improved the external validity of the study.

Sagie, Elizur, and Yamauchi (1996) compared the achievement motivation of managers in five nations. The results were consistent with the hypotheses that achievement tendency would be highest among U.S. respondents with an individualistic orientation and lowest for the Hungarian and Japanese respondents with collectivistic orientation. However, the authors drew these conclusions without actually measuring the cultural values. Chan and Drasgow (2001) compared the role of personality and cultural values in predicting motivation to lead. Using a sample from Singapore (military recruits and junior college students) and a sample from the United States (undergraduate students), they found the cultural values of individualism and collectivism related to motivation to lead in both countries. Using executive MBA students in 15 countries, Hofstede, Van Deusen, Mueller, and Charles (2002) studied the importance of 21 business goals for tycoons (business leaders) and for the students themselves. Focusing on the rating of perceived goal priorities of the business leaders, the authors found the importance ratings of several business goals to correlate with PD, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and long-term orientation, attesting to the importance of a nation's cultural values for goal motivation.

Perceptions of leadership. The four articles on this topic sought to verify the cross-cultural generalizability of leadership concepts. Using the GLOBE data set involving 6,052 middle managers from 22 European countries, Brodbeck and coauthors (2000) concluded that concepts regarding outstanding leadership are culturally determined. Also using the GLOBE data set, Den Hartog, House, Hanges, and Ruiz-Quintanilla (1999) examined the universality of charismatic or transformational leadership in 62 nations. Results suggested that aspects of charismatic or transformational leadership as contributors to perceptions of outstanding leadership are universally endorsed. They also found national differences on many other leadership attributes. This research had a careful matched sampling plan across the nations along with rigorous measurement validation, contributing to both internal and external validity. Javidan and Carl (2004) found both Canadian and Iranian samples to describe charismatic leadership in terms of vision, tenacity, intellectual challenge, self-sacrifice, and eloquence. Javidan and Carl (2005) compared Canadian and Taiwanese leadership attributes by asking managers from both countries to assess their immediate supervisors. Terms such as *visionary*, *symbolizer*, *auditor*, and *self-sacrificer* were common across these two cultures. Neither studies measured culture.

Justice or reward allocation. Distributive justice provided the theoretical backdrop for three studies in this area. Giacobbe-Miller, Miller, and Victorov (1998) reported the results of two studies involving American and Russian samples. In a simulation experiment, managers

in both countries emphasized productivity (i.e., the equity rule) over coworker relations and equality as criteria for pay allocation. Similarly, in the second study, both American and Russian students preferred the equity rule. In a later article (Giacobbe-Miller, Miller, Zhang, & Victorov, 2003), these authors found American and Russian managers to emphasize more productivity and less equality than Chinese managers using scenario measures but found no significant differences using a survey scale on "beliefs about inequality" (Kluegel & Smith, 1986). Murphy-Berman and Berman (2002) examined cross-cultural differences in perceptions of distributive justice using samples from Hong Kong and Indonesia, both of which are collectivistic cultures. Results suggested that Hong Kong respondents viewed the use of merit as fairer than the use of need. On the contrary, the Indonesian respondents saw the use of need as fairer than the use of merit. The study thus highlights the need for a nuanced differentiation among nations generally considered to belong to the same cultural cluster. However, the differences also could be due to other nonculture factors since the cultural values measured were for examining sample difference and were not for hypotheses testing.

Negotiation. Adair and Brett (2005) used a creative design to compare the negotiation behavior in high-context and low-context cultures (Hall, 1977) over four stages of the negotiation process. They used samples of negotiation dyads in high-context, low-context, and mixed context from eight nations. Results confirmed the hypothesized differences in the patterns of negotiator behavior across cultures and time. The process research and the use of multiple nations strengthen both the internal and external validity of this study. In another study, Adair, Okumura, and Brett (2001) found the U.S. and Japanese negotiators (representing low- and high-context cultures, respectively) to differ in information exchange and influence behaviors. Also, Japanese negotiators adapted their behavior in intercultural negotiation more than did the U.S. negotiators. In this study, the authors statistically verified that the Japanese valued hierarchy more than did the U.S. negotiators, whereas the U.S. negotiators valued individualism more than did the Japanese participants. However, the hypotheses were tested using nation as a proxy for culture.

Gelfand and Christakopoulou (1999) compared negotiation cognition of people in the United States and Greece. They used a 2-week computer-mediated negotiation simulation for data collection. The results were consistent with the hypothesis that members of an individualistic culture (United States) would commit a fixed-pie error more than would members of a collectivistic culture (Greece). In another study, using samples from the United States and Japan, Gelfand et al. (2002) predicted a self-serving bias of fairness in conflict situations, hypothesizing that the focus on positive attributes among people from individualistic cultures (United States) would be less prevalent in collectivistic cultures (Japan). The hypothesis was supported in four studies using different methodologies (free recall, scenarios, and a laboratory experiment). Successful replication across studies increased both internal and external validity of the study. Tinsley and Pillutla (1998) compared the negotiation norms of U.S. and Hong Kong participants. They hypothesized differences based on the cultural values of self-enhancement, self-transcendence, conservatism, and openness to change, which were measured using the Schwartz (1992) value inventory. Results supported the hypothesized differences, as U.S. negotiators subscribed to self-interest and joint problem-solving norms and Hong Kong negotiators subscribed to an equality norm.

Conflict management. Five studies dealt with this topic, of which two were by Tinsley (1998, 2001) and one was by Tinsley and Brett (2001). In the 1998 study, using the culture dimensions of hierarchical differentiation, explicit contracting, and polychronicity, Tinsley hypothesized that U.S. business managers would prefer integrating mutual interests while resolving conflicts, that Germans would prefer utilizing existing regulations for conflict resolution, and that Japanese would defer to those with high status power. Results confirmed the majority of the hypotheses. In a later study (Tinsley, 2001), four cultural values (individualism, hierarchy, polychronicity, and explicit contracting) predicted differences in the use of different patterns of conflict management strategies among managers from Germany, Japan, and the United States. In a third study, Tinsley and Brett, using the summer intern hiring simulation, compared the conflict resolution norms of Hong Kong and U.S. managers. Based on the differences between these two cultural groups in individualism, egalitarianism, and openness to change, the authors hypothesized that the U.S. managers would be more likely to discuss issues, synthesize mutual interests, and resolve issues than the Hong Kong managers. Hong Kong managers, on the other hand, would be more likely to show concern for authority and collective interests and to send issues to higher management than the U.S. managers. The hypotheses were largely confirmed. Also, to ensure that their sample generalized to American and Hong Kong cultures, the authors collected data on cultural values using a short form of the Schwartz (1994) survey. The results suggested that the samples were representative of their cultures.

Morris et al. (1998) compared the conflict-resolution approaches in the United States, China, India, and the Philippines using MBA students in each country. They confirmed that societal conservatism values positively relate to the use of an avoiding style, whereas self-enhancement and openness to change positively relate to the use of a competing style. Furthermore, Chinese participants reported a greater tendency to use the avoiding style than the participants in the other three countries, whereas the U.S. participants reported a greater tendency to use the competing style relative to the others. Finally, Gelfand et al. (2001) examined the cognitive representation of conflict in the United States and Japan. Using multidimensional scaling analyses, the authors compared U.S. participants' views to Japanese participants' views of U.S. and Japanese conflict episodes. Results suggested the presence of a universal, or etic, dimension of conflict construal. Participants from both cultures construed conflict through a compromise-versus-win frame. There were also unique dimensions of construal within each culture. This study went beyond earlier research that imposed a common conflict frame and examined differences in the common dimensions. It suggests the need to explicate both universal and culture-specific elements of conflict, negotiation, and other behaviors in future research.

Cooperation or trust. Based on the individualism–collectivism argument, Chen and Li (2005) conducted two cross-national experiments comparing cooperative tendency between Hong Kong and Australian respondents. As hypothesized, Hong Kong respondents made fewer cooperative decisions than the Australians did in mixed-motive business situations when dealing with strangers in their home location. However, they were more cooperative with compatriots than with foreigners when they were in a foreign territory. These studies provide robust findings on the lower tendency of collectivists to trust and cooperate with out-group members.

Marshall and Boush (2001), using the I/C framework, examined three decision-making simulations between American and Peruvian export managers. Results indicated an erosion of cultural effects with the passage of time, suggesting the dynamic nature of culture. In particular, they found that personal characteristics and relationship history overrode the influence of culture as the managers got to know each other. Huff and Kelley (2003) examined the differences in trust across seven countries, also using the I/C argument. This study reported higher levels of trust in the United States than in Asian countries. Similar findings were reported in Huff and Kelley (2005), who observed that U.S. managers showed higher levels of trust compared to Asian managers. The two Huff and Kelley (2003, 2005) studies provided further evidence to suggest that people from collectivistic cultures express less trust in out-groups (e.g., suppliers and customers, people outside the organization) than those from the more individualistic cultures.

Influence tactics. Fu and Yukl (2000) examined the perceived effectiveness of influence strategies. The authors reasoned that U.S. and China respondents would differ on such perception because of differences in cultural values of PD, uncertainty avoidance, and short-term versus long-term orientation. They found that U.S. managers rated rational persuasion and exchange as more effective than did Chinese managers. For Chinese managers, coalition tactics, upward appeals, and gifts were viewed as more effective influence tactics.

Ralston et al. (2001) compared views on upward influence strategies across six cultures. Results suggested that there is broad agreement across countries on whether an influence tactic is positively or negatively seen. However, three distinct categories were visible as well. The Dutch and Americans endorsed the use of soft influence strategies (e.g., image management) and disapproved of the use of hard influence strategies (e.g., coercion). Germans and Indians considered soft strategies less acceptable than did the Dutch and Americans. At the same time, they also negatively viewed hard strategies. The Mexican and Hong Kong managers viewed hard strategies as reasonably acceptable, whereas they saw soft strategies as less acceptable than did the Dutch and Americans. Neither the Fu nor the Ralston studies measured culture, introducing ambiguity in the cultural interpretation of the findings.

Team behavior and processes. Earley (1999) examined the influence of PD and member status on team efficacy using an experimental design and senior managers in four nations: the United States, the United Kingdom, France, and Thailand. The first two countries represent low PD, and the latter two represent high PD. The results showed that high-status members (male, older, or better-educated members) had a proportionally larger influence on the collective efficacy and performance of the team in high PD cultures, whereas collective efficacy was tied to the judgments of all group members in low PD cultures. With better controls in an experimental design, this study provided reasonable confidence in the importance of the role of member characteristics that may infer status differential and PD value for effective teamwork.

Harrison, McKinnon, Wu, and Chow (2000) explored the cultural factors that may influence employee adaptation to fluid work groups in Taiwan and Australia, representing countries differing in collectivism and PD. Australian managers reported employees more readily adapting to working in different teams, working under different leaders, and taking on leadership of project teams than the middle managers in Taiwan reported. The two samples were

matched in terms of the functional background of the managers, the size and industries of the firms, and the local firms. These additional controls provided greater confidence in attributing the observed differences to cultural values, even though the values were not measured. Gomez, Kirkman, and Shapiro (2000) analyzed the evaluation of team member behavior by part-time MBA students in the United States and Mexico, representing individualistic and collectivistic cultures, respectively. After controlling for country, collectivism (measured at the individual level) had a positive relationship to the evaluation of a teammate. Furthermore, the evaluation was higher for in-group members among the Mexican respondents than among the U.S. respondents.

Merritt and Helmreich (1996) used samples of flight attendants and pilots from the United States and seven Asian countries (Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, the Philippines, Thailand, Singapore, and Taiwan) to study flight deck teamwork and leadership. A multidimensional scaling analysis produced three dimensions that corresponded to different clusters of cultural values. The responses were similar among the Asian respondents and consistent with high collectivism and high PD orientation. U.S. pilots expressed views that reflected high individualism and low PD values. The authors suggested that the attitudinal similarity among the Asian groups could be because of the monocultural bias of the questionnaire toward the Asian group. However, the differences in sample characteristics (the Asian respondents were much less experienced than the U.S. respondents) could also have accounted for the differences observed.

In a highly creative study, Gibson and Zellmer-Bruhn (2001) compared national differences in teamwork metaphors used by employees in six multinational corporations in four countries: the United States, France, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines. Using content analysis of in-depth interview data, the authors identified five metaphors: military, family, sports, associates, and community. Results confirmed national variations in the use of the five metaphors. Specifically, countries high in individualism (United States and France) tended to use the sports or associates metaphors, whereas countries high in PD (Philippines and Puerto Rico) tended to use the military or family metaphors. Furthermore, PD and collectivistic values were negatively associated with the use of teamwork metaphors that emphasized clear roles and broad scope. These results suggest that the meaning of teamwork may differ across cultures and, in turn, imply potential differences in team norms and team-member behaviors.

Kirkman and Shapiro (2001a, 2001b) conducted two studies using the same data set of 461 members in 81 self-management teams from four countries: Belgium, Finland, the Philippines, and the United States. In one study (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001a), the focus was on how cultural values influenced employee job attitudes (satisfaction and commitment) by influencing employees' resistance to teams or to self-management. The second study (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001b) tested the same hypotheses, except the outcome was team effectiveness and empowerment. The authors used the cultural values of collectivism, PD, doing orientation, and determination. The hypotheses were largely supported, as resistance fully mediated the influence of cultural values for team outcomes and partially mediated the influence of cultural values for individual-level outcomes. Further analysis showed culture having a stronger effect on resistance in some countries than in others. For example, determinism was more strongly associated with resistance to self-management among U.S. than among Philippine respondents. Finally, Wade-Benzoni et al. (2002) examined cross-cultural differences in cognitions and behaviors in a social dilemma situation across Japan and U.S. samples. Results indicated that

the Japanese decision makers in teams used the equal allocation rule more and expected others to be more cooperative than did the decision makers in the U.S. teams. This study measured the cultural values to ensure that the samples were representative of their cultures. The culture scores, however, were not used in testing the hypothesis.

It is important to note that among the eight studies focusing on teams, five analyzed outcomes at the individual level. Only Earley (1999), Kirkman and Shapiro (2001b), and Wade-Benzoni et al. (2002) conducted an analysis at the team level. Thus, knowledge about how team behavior or process differs across nations is still limited.

Type II Studies—Culture as Moderating Variable

The topics receiving the most attention in Type II studies are job attitudes, justice and reward allocation, leadership or managerial behavior, and well-being. Studies of employee job performance, responses to job satisfaction, and exchange behavior are loosely grouped under the job behavior topic. Only two studies focused on the moderating effect of culture on teams. The 38 Type II articles, organized according to research areas, are listed in Table 4.

Job attitudes. Glazer and Beehr (2005) examined whether the effect of role stressors (ambiguity, overload, and conflict) on turnover intentions varied across four cultures. Using samples of nurses from Hungary, Italy, the United Kingdom, and the United States and using a multi-group structural equation path analysis, they concluded that stress is largely a culture-general process. The use of participants from similar jobs (nursing) across nations helped authors control for effects of industry and profession. However, effects of other contextual factors, such as government regulation and labor laws governing the nursing profession in each country, could potentially provide alternative explanations as well. Glazer, Daniel, and Short (2004) also used samples of nurses from those same countries. In this study, they examined the relationship between personal values and commitment. Results using mediated regression analysis suggested that values partially mediated the effects of countries on affective commitment.

Grandey, Fisk, and Steiner (2005) examined the moderating role of emotion culture on the relationship between emotion regulation and job satisfaction using samples from France (representing impulsive culture) and the United States (representing institutional culture). Results suggested that the relationship was weaker for French employees than for U.S. employees. However, Grandey et al. did not measure emotion culture. Therefore, one can only indirectly infer that emotion culture played the hypothesized moderating role and that other cultural or institutional factors such as customer service climate did not play a role in the model.

Similar to Grandey et al. (2005), Huang and Van de Vliert (2003) examined the moderating role of culture in the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction, using a sample comprising 49 nations. Besides the cultural values, they also included other contextual variables such as national wealth and social security. Although it is not possible to generate hypotheses for all possible cultural or national predictors, like Cullen et al. (2004), these authors ventured beyond the commonly used national culture dimensions. Another important feature of this study was testing a cross-level model. We will return to these two important aspects of this article—multiple national contexts and cross-level modeling—in the Recommendations section.

Table 4
Type II Studies With Culture as a Moderating Variable

Individual Focused	Interpersonal Focused
<p>Job attitudes</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Glazer and Beehr (2005), <i>JOB</i>—role stress and commitment [4] 2. Glazer, Daniel, and Short (2004), <i>HR</i>—human value and organizational commitment [4] 3. Grandey, Fisk, and Steiner (2005), <i>JAP</i>—emotion and job satisfaction [2] 4. Huang and Van de Vliert (2003), <i>JOB</i>—job characteristics and job satisfaction [49] 5. Hui, Au, and Fook (2004), <i>JIBS</i>—empowerment, continuous improvement and job satisfaction [33, 2, 2] 6. Money and Graham (1999), <i>JIBS</i>—performance, pay and satisfaction [2] 7. Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow, and Lawler (2000), <i>JAP</i>—empowerment and satisfaction [4] 8. Sweeney and McFarlin (2004), <i>JOOP</i>—social comparison and income satisfaction [12] <p>Job behaviors</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Bagozzi, Verbeke, and Gavino (2003), <i>JAP</i>—shame and performance [2] 2. Dubinsky, Kotabe, Lim, and Wagner (1997), <i>JBR</i>—performance and commitment [2] 3. Greer and Stephens (2001), <i>JOM</i>—escalation of commitment [2] 4. Thomas and Pekerti (2003), <i>JCCP</i>—job satisfaction and exchange behavior [2] 5. Thomas and Au (2002), <i>JIBS</i>—behavioral response to job dissatisfaction [2] <p>Well-being</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Spector et al. (2002), <i>AMJ</i>—locus of control and well-being [24] 2. Spector et al. (2004), <i>PP</i>—work hours and work-family stress [15] 3. Schaubroeck, Xie, and Lam (2000), <i>JAP</i>—control/demand and health symptom and turnover intention [2] 4. Yang Chen, Choi, and Zu (2000), <i>AMJ</i>—work-family demand and conflict [2] 	<p>Justice or reward allocation</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Brockner, Chen, Mannix, Leung, and Skarlicki (2000), <i>ASQ</i>—procedural fairness and outcome favorableness [2, 2, 1] 2. Chen, Meindl, and Hui (1998), <i>JOB</i>—justice and parity [2] 3. Fischer and Smith (2004), <i>JCCP</i>—reward allocation and justice perception [2] 4. Lam, Schaubroeck, and Aryee (2002), <i>JOB</i>—justice and outcomes [2] 5. Leung, Su and Morris (2001), <i>HR</i>—reactions to critical supervisory feedback [2] 6. Mueller, Iverson, and Jo (1999), <i>HR</i>—expectations and justice evaluations [2] 7. Van de Vliert, Shi, Sanders, Wang, and Huang (2004), <i>JCCP</i>—interpretation of supervisory feedback [2] 8. Zhou and Martocchio (2001), <i>PP</i>—reward allocation and employee outcomes [2] <p>Negotiation</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Gelfand and Realo (1999), <i>JAP</i>—accountability and negotiation outcomes [1, 2] <p>Leadership behaviors</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Agarwal, DeCarlo, and Vyas (1999), <i>JIBS</i>—leadership and commitment [2] 2. Dorfman et al. (1997), <i>LQ</i>—leadership and outcomes [5] 3. Elenkov and Manev (2005), <i>JOM</i>—leadership and innovation [12] 4. Ensari and Murphy (2003), <i>OBHDP</i>—leadership perception and charismatic attribution [2] 5. Spreitzer, Pettulla, and Xin (2005), <i>JOB</i>—transformational leadership and effectiveness [2] 6. Pillai, Scandura, and Williams (1999), <i>JIBS</i>—leadership and job satisfaction [5]

(continued)

Table 4 (continued)

Individual Focused	Interpersonal Focused
Sexual harassment	Influence tactics or political behavior
1. Cortina and Wasti (2005), <i>JAP</i> —response to sexual harassment [2]	1. Fu et al. (2004), <i>JIBS</i> —perceived effectiveness of influence tactics [1,2]
2. Wasti, Bergman, Glomb, and Drasgow (2000), <i>JAP</i> —model of sexual harassment [2]	2. Vigoda (2001), <i>HR</i> —reactions to organizational politics [2]
	Team behavior and processes
	1. Gibson (1999), <i>AMJ</i> —group efficacy and group effectiveness [2, 2]
	2. Lam, Chen, and Schaubroeck (2002), <i>AMJ</i> —participative decision making and performance (individual and team) [2]

Note: $n = 38$. Value in brackets refers to the number of countries in the study. Multiple values means multiple studies reported in the article. See Table 1 for acronym definitions.

Like Huang and Van de Vliert (2003), Hui, Au, and Fock (2004) also conducted a cross-level study. In particular, they examined the moderating effect of PD on the relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction using three studies. The first is a 33-country study, and it used Hofstede's PD measure at the nation level and control for national wealth measured by GDP. Study II measured PD at the individual level using samples of Canadian and Chinese hotel frontline employees. Study III, also comparing Canada and China, added causal support to the survey findings in Studies I and II by using an experimental design. The hypothesis on the moderating role of PD was supported in all three studies. The relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction was stronger in low PD cultures than in high PD cultures. Money and Graham (1999) examined whether a model of salesperson performance similarly worked in Japan as it did in the United States. The findings suggested that the financial aspects of a job are more important for the sales personnel in the United States. On the other hand, value congruence played a more important role in driving job satisfaction among Japanese participants. The article suffered from an omission common to many articles in this review—not directly measuring culture. And because neither culture nor other cross-national difference factors were measured, it is difficult to tease out the effects of hypothesized cultural values from other contextual variables.

Similar to Hui et al. (2004), Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow, and Lawler (2000) examined the moderating role of culture in the relationship between managerial practices (empowerment and continuous improvement) and job satisfaction. Results suggested that continuous improvement was positively associated with satisfaction in all samples (the United States, Mexico, Poland, and India). However, empowerment was negatively associated with satisfaction in India but positively associated in the other three samples. This article measured horizontal and vertical individualism and collectivism to validate sample differences. Interestingly, results suggested that India was not the most vertical culture in the sample as presumed, thereby highlighting the importance of actually measuring cultural values and then including culture scores in statistical analyses. Sweeney and McFarlin (2004) did not directly test the moderating role of culture. They studied the applicability of social comparison theory in 12 nations, expecting differences based on the cultural values of individualism and collectivism. Specifically, the authors argued that samples from individualistic countries will show a stronger effect of pay comparisons on income satisfaction, whereas this effect will be weaker in collectivistic countries. However, in contrast to the predictions, after controlling for actual pay level, three different forms of pay comparison (comparison with compatriots, with those having similar education, and with those in similar jobs) were predictive of income satisfaction in all 12 nations, with minor differences between the Western and other countries in the sample. The authors explained that the similarity in educational level may account for the results, suggesting that culture may not be the only explanation for income satisfaction.

Job behaviors. Bagozzi, Verbeke, and Gavino (2003) examined how sales personnel in an interdependent-based culture (Philippines) and an independent-based culture (the Netherlands) experienced and self-regulated shame, although the article did not directly measure the two forms of self-construal (interdependent and independent). Results suggested that although Filipino and Dutch employees experienced shame in largely similar ways, they responded differently to the experience. Also using a sample of salespeople, Dubinsky, Kotabe, Lim,

and Wagner (1997) reported that the relationships between personal values and job outcomes such as performance are similar across U.S. and Japanese employees. Thomas and Pekerti (2003), however, reported cross-cultural differences in the relationship between job satisfaction and job behaviors. The nationality of the participants (Indonesia representing vertical collectivism and New Zealand representing horizontal individualism) moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and exit, loyalty, and neglect, but not voice. Specifically, high job satisfaction had a stronger effect on reducing exit and neglect for New Zealanders than for Indonesians. The interaction results for loyalty were not clear. This study also validated the cultural profiles of the participants even though they did not use these measured variables in the hypotheses testing.

Thomas and Au (2002) investigated the moderating influence of horizontal individualism and vertical collectivism on the relationship between job satisfaction and quality of job alternatives to behavioral responses in the form of exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. Results suggested that culture moderated several relationships. For example, the quality of job alternatives had a stronger relationship with exit for those with high horizontal individualism. Unlike Thomas and Pekerti (2003), this study not only verified the cultural values of the samples, it also tested the hypothesized role of culture. Using nation as a proxy, Greer and Stephens (2001) compared the tendency to escalate commitment between Mexican and U.S. decision makers. Consistent with the expectations that people in higher PD had lower tolerance for mistakes, Mexican participants were significantly more likely to escalate and report higher confidence in their decision than were the U.S. participants. Although culture was not measured, this study controlled for a large number of individual differences variables.

Well-being. Spector and colleagues conducted two studies on this topic. In Spector et al. (2002), it was hypothesized that I/C would moderate the relationship between locus of control and well-being. However, data from 24 "geopolitical" entities did not support this hypothesis. This article used Hofstede's national-level I/C measure. In another study, Spector et al. (2004) reported that samples from Anglo (Australia, Canada, England, New Zealand, and United States), as compared to Latino (Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru, and Uruguay) and Chinese (Hong Kong, People's Republic of China, and Taiwan) regions, demonstrated a stronger positive relationship between work hours and work-family stressors. The authors explained this finding by arguing that Anglos view working extra hours as taking time from their families and that such thoughts may result in stress and related outcomes. The study based its arguments on cross-cultural differences in terms of I/C. However, this dimension was not measured, throwing open the possibility of other contextual factors affecting the results.

Also investigating work and family demands, Yang, Chen, Choi, and Zou (2000) found that family demand had a stronger effect on work-family conflict in the United States than in China. On the other hand, work demand had a stronger effect on work-family conflict in China than in the United States. The findings of Schaubroeck, Lam, and Xie (2000), on the other hand, suggest that the pattern of a three-way interactive effect of job demands, job control, and efficacy on coping and health may be cross-culturally generalizable. However, the operative theory for efficacy (self vs. group oriented) differs across cultures. This article used

the Idiocentrism and Allocentrism Scale (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998), which represents the individual-level manifestation of I/C. Actual measurement of cultural values in the analyses added to the validity of this study at the individual level, but the role of national culture remains ambiguous.

Sexual harassment. This topic was examined in two studies. Cortina and Wasti (2005) examined cultural implications of coping responses to sexual harassment in the United States and Turkey. Anglo-American women, representing less patriarchal and collectivistic culture, were more likely to use detached coping, trying to forget the stressor or make no coping efforts, whereas Hispanic American and Turkish women, representing more patriarchal and collectivistic cultures, were more likely to use avoidant-negotiating coping, trying to avoid seeing the harasser or negotiate with him. Wasti, Bergman, Glomb, and Drasgow (2000) examined whether the model of sexual harassment proposed by Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, and Magley (1997) is generalizable to Turkey, a culture that is more patriarchal than the United States. The measurement and structural models showed good fit when estimated separately for the two cultures. However, the invariant simultaneous structural model showed somewhat weaker fit indices compared with the individual models. Overall, the authors concluded that Fitzgerald and colleagues' model is generalizable to Turkey. One weakness of the two studies on sexual harassment is that both studies used nation as a proxy for culture. Therefore, one cannot be sure whether culture played the hypothesized role in the model.

Justice or reward allocation. In an interesting three-study examination of the moderating role of culture, Brockner, Chen, Mannix, Leung, and Skarlicki (2000) found that the relationship between procedural fairness and outcome favorability was stronger among participants with more interdependent forms of self-construal compared to those with independent self-construal. Study 2 of this article involved the actual measurement of self-construal. Fischer and Smith (2004) investigated the role of cultural values, using the Schwartz value survey, in the relationship between reward allocation decisions and perceived justice. The results suggested that self-enhancement versus self-transcendence was a stronger moderator of the relationship than openness to change versus conservation. Specifically, the authors found that those valuing self-enhancement perceive allocation decisions based on work performance or seniority to be fairer than those valuing self-transcendence. In another study on allocation preferences, Chen, Meindl, and Hui (1998) found that Americans and Chinese responded to the situational factors of task interdependence and system goals in a similar manner. Both U.S. and Hong Kong participants preferred the equity rule under low task interdependence, although the equality rule was preferred under high task interdependence. This study included measures of achievement motivation and I/C, thus adding to the validity of results. In another study involving U.S. and Hong Kong samples, Lam, et al. (2002) found that PD, but not individualism, moderated the relationship between perceived justice and satisfaction. That is, the relationship between justice perceptions and work outcomes (e.g., absenteeism and job performance) was stronger for low PD individuals than for high PD individuals. This study measured both PD and individualism.

Leung, Su, and Morris (2001) hypothesized cross-cultural differences in employee reactions to feedback, drawing arguments on the cultural variation in terms of PD between China

and the United States. Results supported the arguments. Chinese respondents reacted less negatively to supervisory criticism compared to the U.S. respondents. However, rather than actually measuring the cultural values, this study used country as a proxy to infer culture. Van de Vliert, Shi, Sanders, Wang, and Huang (2004) also studied employee reactions to feedback using a scenario study with a Chinese and a Dutch sample. They used the argument of person–culture fit. Individualists responded more positively to individual-focused feedback, whereas collectivists responded positively to group-focused feedback. Mixed-mode or mismatched feedback conditions produced the most negative reactions to both positive and negative feedback. The study used the measured culture scores rather than country proxy to test the culture effect.

Mueller, Iverson, and Jo (1999) examined whether there were cross-cultural differences between met expectations and justice perceptions. Their study found that meeting expectations of autonomy was more influential in explaining justice evaluation in the United States compared to Korea, whereas meeting expectations of advancement opportunities played a more salient role in Korea. Cross-cultural differences were found in terms of compensation-award decisions as well. Using samples of executive education participants from China and the United States, Zhou and Martocchio (2001) found that Chinese managers rely more on work performance and personal needs when making monetary decisions but put more emphasis on the relationship with coworkers and managers when deciding on nonmonetary decisions. This article drew cross-cultural difference arguments from the I/C framework, but, like many other studies, it did not measure cultural values.

Negotiation. Only one study, Gelfand and Realo (1999), tested the moderating effect of culture in the negotiation domain. This article argued that accountability, that is, being answerable for one's actions, will have a different impact on negotiation outcomes depending on individualism and collectivism values of the negotiators. The hypotheses were tested using a laboratory study (which used Caucasian and Asian American students in the United States) and a judgment study, which compared U.S. (an individualistic culture) and Estonian (a collectivistic culture) samples. The authors found that, depending on negotiators' collectivism, accountability had differential effects on their psychological states, behaviors, and cooperation and competition. Specifically, in high-accountability situations, negotiators with low levels of collectivism achieved lower outcomes as compared to those with high levels of collectivism. One strong point of this article was that both studies in this article involved measurement of cultural values.

Leadership behaviors. Six studies examined issues related to leadership or managerial behavior. Agarwal, DeCarlo, and Vyas (1999) examined a leadership model connecting leadership style (initiation of structure and consideration) and organizational commitment. The authors concluded that the model worked relatively similarly in the United States and India despite reported differences in various cultural dimensions. This suggested that there are other national-level factors that might negate the prevalent culture-difference arguments. However, unlike Agarwal et al., Dorfman and colleagues (1997) reported mixed results. They found three leader behaviors (supportive, contingent reward, and charismatic) to be universal across five nations. However, directive, participative, and contingent-punishment

behaviors were culture specific in terms of their effect on organizational commitment and job performance, based on a functional equivalence test (i.e., evaluation of equivalence of paths in the causal models).

Ensari and Murphy (2003) similarly found cross-cultural differences in the attribution of charisma. Their study suggested that in an individualistic culture (United States), a leader's prototypical characteristics were more effective in the formation of leadership impression, whereas company performance was more effective in leadership attributions in a collectivistic culture (Turkey). This study used Triandis et al.'s I/C scale to ensure that the two samples fit the cultural assumption about Turkey and the United States. Spreitzer, Perttula, and Xin (2005) similarly reported the moderating effect of the superior's traditionality on the relationship between transformational leadership and leadership effectiveness.

The study by Pillai, Scandura, and Williams (1999) found the quality of the leader-member exchange relationship to be associated with job satisfaction in five countries. However, lack of actual measurement of cultural values and the inclusion of few control variables impose limitations on internal validity of this study. Using data from 12 European countries, Elenkov and Manev (2005) found that culture influenced leadership behavior, which in turn influenced organizational innovation. Culture also moderated the relationship between leadership behavior and innovation in general. This study used country-culture scores from Hofstede.

Influence tactics or political behaviors. Fu and colleagues (2004), based on 12-nation data from the GLOBE project, reported that cultural values moderated the relationship between social beliefs such as cynicism and perceived effectiveness of several influence strategies. This study used hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) analysis because the model was specified at two levels—individual and national. Specifically, in cultures higher on future orientation, in-group collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and those believing in fate control are more likely to use assertive and relationship based influence strategies. Vigoda (2001) examined cross-national differences between perception of organizational politics and employee behavior. The results suggested that organizational politics affected U.K. employees more strongly than Israelis. Specifically, participants from the United Kingdom displayed higher exit and neglect intentions and expressed lower loyalty and job satisfaction as a result of perceived organizational politics. This study controlled for sample differences but did not measure the hypothesized cultural values.

Team behavior and processes. We found two studies in this research area. Gibson (1999) found support for the moderating influence of collectivism on the relationship between group efficacy and group effectiveness in such a way that when collectivism was high, group efficacy was positively related to group effectiveness. Lam, et al. (2002) also found the moderating role of allocentrism and idiocentrism, individual-level manifestations of the cultural values of collectivism and individualism, respectively. They found that allocentrism moderated the relationship between perceptions of group participative decision-making opportunity and group performance. Similarly, idiocentrism moderated the relationship between perceptions of individual participative decision-making opportunity and individual performance.

Summary and Assessment

The work in these 93 articles published in the leading journals suggests progress in both the topics studied and the cultural values used. Each study was well conceived and executed, providing new insight on various aspects of organizational behavior in the nations studied. The studies used a variety of culture dimensions along with many different measures for the major constructs of individualism and collectivism. However, there are also several issues that have created some difficulty in the interpretation of findings. For example, different names were often used for similar constructs (e.g., hierarchy, egalitarianism, PD). Many studies used country as a proxy for culture. Few studies considered noncultural variables, either theoretically as predictors or empirically as controls. This suggests the possibility of many alternative explanations for the observed differences across the nations studied. The large number of topics, although providing breadth in the coverage of the study domains, also shows a rather fragmented approach without a clear paradigm or a dominant theoretical framework. No major theories of culture, beyond the original thesis of culture as trait (Hofstede, 1991, 2001, 2006), were developed and tested in these organizational behavior topics published in the management-oriented journals. The studies essentially aimed to confirm that work behavior, attitudes, or perceptions differ as functions of specific cultural values with or without measuring them. Although each study makes a contribution to knowledge, as a collection, the issues raised compromise our confidence that the observed similarities or differences in organizational behavior are because of culture.

Method Review

This section provides an overview of issues related to research methods. We begin with a discussion of research design, with attention to the method of data collection and the level at which the data were analyzed. We then discuss issues related to sample characteristics, measurement quality checks, and statistical tools to test the hypotheses. In addition, we present information on the countries studied and the country profiles of the authors of the articles. We report the observations separately for the two types of studies (Type I and Type II). Table 5 summarizes the methodological profile of the 93 studies.

Research Design

The most commonly used research design is questionnaire surveys (63%), followed by simulation experiments (22%) and scenario-based surveys (20%). A large proportion (76%) of Type II studies uses the survey method, whereas simulation experiments are common in Type I studies (25%) on the topics of negotiation, conflict, cooperation, and justice. A few studies use interviews to complement their data collection. For example, Harrison et al. (2000) use both a structured, questionnaire-based survey and open-ended personal interviews. In a laudable, but not easily replicable, data collection exercise, Gibson and Zellmer-Bruhn (2001) interviewed 107 individuals in four countries. Such interviews enabled them to inductively generate metaphor data from the local interviewees' natural mental processes, thereby reducing the bias that may exist if they were to use an existing model in a deductive approach.

Table 5
Method Profile of the 93 Cross-National, Cross-Cultural Studies

	Type 1 ^a		Type 2 ^b		Total ^c	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Research design						
Survey	30	55	29	76	59	63
Simulation experiment	14	25	6	16	20	22
Scenario survey	9	16	10	26	19	20
Interview	3	5	0	0	3	3
Archival data	2	4	0	0	2	2
Level of analysis						
Individual	44	80	34	89	78	84
Groups	2	5	3	8	5	5
Nation	7	13	0	0	7	8
Cross-level	1	2	3	5	4	4
Sample characteristics						
Working employees or managers	35	64	31	82	66	71
MBA or executive students	15	27	6	16	21	23
Undergraduate students	7	13	4	8	11	12
Sample equivalence						
Discussed but not tested	18	35	10	26	28	30
Discussed and tested	12	22	12	32	24	26
Significance differences reported	6	11	8	21	14	15
Controlled for demographics	15	27	12	32	27	29
Measurement equivalence						
Configural equivalence test	8	15	13	34	21	23
Metric equivalence test	7	13	13	34	20	22
Primary statistical tool for hypothesis testing						
Regression/moderated or hierarchical/correlations	25	45	22	58	47	50
ANOVA/MANOVA/ANCOVA/MANCOVA/ <i>t</i> test	24	44	6	16	30	32
Structural equation modeling	4	7	9	24	13	14
Functional equivalence test	0	0	6	16	6	6
Hierarchical linear modeling	1	4	3	5	4	5
Others (discriminant analysis/cluster analysis/ multidimensional scaling/content analysis)	8	15	1	3	9	10

Note: The total may exceed the *N* because of the use of multiple methods in some studies.

a. *n* = 55.

b. *n* = 38.

c. *n* = 93.

Level of Analysis

We define the level of analysis by the unit of measurement and the level at which the hypotheses are tested. Individual level means both the independent and the dependent variables are measured at the individual level and the hypotheses are tested at that level. Group or national level means that both are measured and that hypotheses are tested at that level. When the dependent variable level is measured at the individual level and the independent

variable is at the group (or national) level, they are cross-level studies. Among the 93 studies, 5 are analyzed at the group level, 7 are at the national level, and 4 are cross-level with culture as the higher level and employee responses as the lower level construct. In other words, 96% of the studies are at the single level—individual, group, or nation. This is truly surprising, given the cross-level nature of the phenomenon, which by definition involves the integration of a macro characteristic (national culture) with micro processes (individual and group behavior at work).

Sample Characteristics

Of the 93 studies, 71% used working employees or manager samples, 23% used MBA or executive students, and 12% used undergraduate students. Not surprisingly, the undergraduate samples were mostly used in negotiation (e.g., Gelfand et al., 2001), justice (e.g., Chen et al., 1998), and cooperation (Chen & Li, 2005) research. The use of working managers and employees is a major strength of this line of research.

Sample Equivalence

Because the purpose of cross-cultural studies is to compare across samples from different populations (cultures or nations), it is important that the sample represent its population and that the characteristics of the comparison samples be as equivalent as possible. Without meeting these requirements, it is difficult to estimate the true effect of culture. Few studies use random samples (except Niles, 1999), but many studies make efforts to ensure that samples from different countries were equivalent. In all, 52 studies (56%) discuss sample equivalence issues, out of which 24 studies also conduct statistical tests of sample demographics. Only 10 studies (11%) finally conclude that there is no significant difference between the samples in terms of the demographic characteristics. Because fewer than one third (29%) of all studies include the respondent demographics as control variables, it is unknown whether, and how many of, the differences observed between nations might be confounded by sample differences.

Measurement Equivalence

Cross-cultural scholars have highlighted the importance of ensuring measurement equivalence before testing theoretical relationships (e.g., Cavusgil & Das, 1997; Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994; Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). The most often used tests are configural and metric equivalence or invariance (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). Configural invariance refers to the equality of factor structures or equal number of factors and factor patterns. It is achieved by good fit indices on the single-sample confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Metric invariance is achieved when all factor-loading parameters are equal across groups by using a multigroup CFA and comparing changes in fit indices between the constrained and unconstrained models. In our review, 23% report the configural equivalence test, whereas 22% report the additional

metric equivalence test. Because Type II studies are interested in the equivalence or nonequivalence of a conceptual model between cultures, more studies tested measurement equivalence. Testing for equivalence, however, does not mean achieving it. Parboteeah et al. (2005), for example, performed a metric equivalence test and found the Japanese factor structure of the ethical climate to be different from the U.S. factor structure. The authors selected different items to construct culture-specific factors and performed separate CFAs. This is a procedure not used in any other studies. We will discuss this approach in the Recommendations section.

Almost all the studies used the back-translation procedure, but only a few studies paid attention to the semantic equivalence issue, which concerns the similarity in the meaning of a construct across cultures. Only a few studies used interviews to identify emic measures, such as the conception of organizational life (Chikudate, 1997) or the meaning of teamwork (Gibson & Zellmer-Bruhn, 2001). In general, the idea that measurement equivalence is not sufficient to ascertain construct validity is largely unexplored in the studies reviewed.

Statistical Techniques for Hypothesis Testing

There is growing evidence that cross-cultural researchers have started using more advanced statistical tools for data analyses. Many studies applied multiple statistical techniques for hypothesis testing. The regression method, including hierarchical and moderated regression, is most frequently used (50%). The next most frequently used are the various types of variance tests for evaluating group differences (32%). A number of studies performed the functional equivalence test to compare the equivalence of the structural model between groups (e.g., Mueller et al., 1999) or to test the moderating role of culture using nation as the group variable (e.g., Bagozzi et al., 2003). The four studies with the cross-level design used HLM to test their hypotheses. Several studies adopted the multidimensional scaling method to differentiate culture groups, such as attributing different meaning to organizational life (Chikudate, 1997), leadership (Brodbeck et al., 2000), or conflict frames (Gelfand et al., 2001).

Advances in structural equation modeling have enabled the testing of complex causal or path models and the examination of measurement or model equivalence across cultural groups. The use of HLM is appropriate to test the influence of culture on outcomes of individuals or workgroups embedded within the culture; however, it was used in only four studies. The cross-level issue is an important theme to which we will return in the Recommendations section.

Countries in the 93 Studies

The 93 studies involve a total of 87 nations or geopolitical entities (e.g., treating Hong Kong and Taiwan as separate from mainland China). These 87 entities account for approximately 44% of the nations in the world, covering 76% of the world area and 84% of the world population (Infoplease, 2006). The number of countries in each study ranges from 2 to 62. Table 6 lists all the countries studied, and, as shown, the United States is in 78 studies. Countries in 20 or more studies include Japan, Hong Kong, the People's Republic of China, the United Kingdom, and Germany.

Table 6
Country Profile of the 93 Studies

Country	Number of Studies	%	Country	Number of Studies	%
United States	78	84	Spain	15	16
Japan	30	32	Canada	13	14
Hong Kong	27	29	Brazil	13	14
China	26	28	Hungary	12	13
United Kingdom	24	26	Philippines	11	12
Germany	20	22	Korea	11	12
France	18	19	New Zealand	10	11
India	18	19	Poland	10	11
Mexico	16	17	Russia	10	11
The Netherlands	16	17	Sweden	10	11
Taiwan	15	16	Turkey	10	11
Australia	15	16	Finland	10	11

Note: Countries studied 6 to 9 times each (19 in total): Africa (2): Nigeria, South Africa; Asia (4): Indonesia, Israel, Singapore, Thailand; Europe (12): Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Greece, Italy, Norway, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Switzerland; South America (1): Argentina. Countries studied 2 to 5 times each (21 in total): Africa (3): Egypt, Uganda, Zimbabwe; Asia (5): Georgia, Iran, Macau, Malaysia, Pakistan; Central America (2): El Salvador, Jamaica; Europe (6): Belarus, Estonia, Iceland, Ireland, Slovakia, Ukraine; South America (5): Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Venezuela. Countries studied only once each (23 in total): Africa (5): Kenya, Morocco, Namibia, Tanzania, Zambia; Asia (7): Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Sri Lanka; Central America (6): Bahamas, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Panama, Puerto Rico; Europe (3): Albania, Latvia, Lithuania; South America (2): Bolivia, Uruguay. Total number of countries = 87.

About half of the studies (49 of 93) compare two countries, and the United States is in 35 of these 49. Sixteen studies include 10 or more countries, whereas 28 studies compare 3 to 9 countries. The dominance of the United States in these 93 studies is not surprising given that U.S. scholars provided research leadership in most of the investigations. We now turn to the country profile of the authors of these studies.

Country Profile of the Authors in 93 Studies

Cross-national studies are demanding in terms of knowledge of the nations analyzed and data collection in unfamiliar regions. For many reasons, most cross-national studies are likely to involve multiple investigators. As many scholars (Teagarden et al., 1995; Tsui, 2004, 2006; Von Glinow, Shapiro, & Brett, 2004) have stated, the use of local nationals as collaborators is desirable, if not essential, for all phases of international management research (e.g., from conceptualization to designing measures and the interpretation of the results). Therefore, we expected that most of the 93 studies would be the products of cross-national collaboration. Following Kirkman and Law (2005), we use the location of each author's university affiliation at the time of publication to identify the extent of cross-national research teams. We were surprised to find that only 57 studies (61% of 93) involve authors from two or more nations.

Table 7 shows the country breakdown of the authors. There are 365 unique authors (69 first authors and 296 coauthors) coming from 54 nations. About 68% of the first authors and

Table 7
Country Profile of the Authors of the 93 Studies

Country	Number of First Authors	Number of Coauthors	Total Number of Authors
United States	63 ^a	125 ^b	188
Hong Kong	8	23	31
Canada	5	16	21
China	0	20	20
United Kingdom	4	15	19
Japan	1	16	17
The Netherlands	4	13	17
France	0	13	13
Sweden	0	12	12
Australia	2	10	12
Germany	1	9	10
Taiwan	0	9	9
Slovenia	0	9	9
Spain	0	8	8
Israel	2	6	8
Poland	0	7	7
Russia	0	7	7
New Zealand	1	6	7
Ireland	0	6	6
Turkey	0	6	6
Denmark	0	5	5
South Africa	0	5	5
Singapore	1	2	3
Mexico	1	0	1
Brazil, Georgia, Greece, India, Korea, Philippines, Switzerland (4 each)	0	28	28
Argentina, Costa Rica, Czech Republic, Estonia, Indonesia, Italy, Malaysia (3 each)	0	21	21
Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Columbia, Hungary, Kuwait, Nigeria, Portugal, Romania, Thailand, Ukraine (2 each)	0	22	22
Bolivia, Ecuador, Egypt, Morocco, Qatar (1 each)	0	5	5
Total number of authors	93	424	517
Number of unique authors	69	296	365

Note: Total number of countries = 54.

a. 68%.

b. 29%.

29% of the coauthors work in universities based in the United States. In other words, 32% of the first authors and 71% of the coauthors work in universities located in other countries, with many of them residing in Hong Kong, Canada, China, the United Kingdom, Japan, the Netherlands, France, Sweden, Australia, and Germany. The profile suggests that cross-national, cross-cultural studies have been primarily conducted under the intellectual leadership of U.S. authors. This characteristic of the country background of the authorship is not

surprising when one considers that most of the 16 leading management journals are U.S. based. North American authors, reviewers, and editors operate within a well-established research paradigm. U.S.-led research may have an advantage for publication in U.S.-based journals over research led by non-U.S. based scholars operating under different research paradigms (March, 2005).

Recommendations

On the basis of the research on cross-cultural organizational behavior published in 16 leading management journals in the past 10 years, progress is evident in many areas. We now know more about negotiation and conflict behavior, ethical orientation, job attitudes, reward-allocation preferences, well-being, and leadership in different nations. The research designs for studies are also becoming more rigorous through the use of methods other than surveys, affording stronger internal validity. More than one third of the studies measure the cultural values and use those values in hypothesis testing. Managerial samples dominate, and only about 10% of the studies use undergraduate students. About one fourth of the studies apply statistical tests to ensure measurement equivalence (either configural or metric equivalence or both).

The progress, however, is overshadowed by several conceptual and methodological issues, some of which are quite basic, to our astonishment. The fundamental concept of culture has not been systematically examined, nor has the proliferation of cultural frameworks with overlapping dimensions and inconsistent measurement. Researchers have ignored the fact that culture is not the only differentiator of nations and may covary with other national characteristics. The inadequate consideration of other factors and lack of control for alternative causes may have compromised the internal validity of many studies. Most researchers ignored the essentially cross-level nature of the phenomena in their theory development and empirical study. These issues have hindered greater progress that could be made by cross-national organizational behavior research. We offer seven recommendations to address these foundational issues with the goal of stimulating major advances in future research. Some of these recommendations are not new (e.g., avoid using nation as a proxy for culture or ensure construct equivalence). Although it is beyond the scope of this article to identify the barriers to progress in these areas, it is important to raise them again to encourage further efforts.

Recommendation 1: Consider the Group Property of the Culture Concept

Without exception, the definitions of culture refer to it as a group-level construct that demarcates one group from another. As discussed by Klein and Kozlowski (2000), a group construct can have one of three types of properties: global, shared, or configural. A global property is a relatively objective, easily observable characteristic that does not emerge or originate from the perceptions of individual group members. Examples of the global property of a nation are population, GDP, or the number of museums per capita. A shared property originates in the common experiences, perceptions, cognitions, or behaviors of the individuals within a group. It represents a consensual or collective aspect of the group. Culture as

it is currently used in the literature assumes a shared property of a nation. A configural property captures the variability of the individual characteristics within a group. Like shared property, configural properties also emerge from characteristics of individual group members. However, these properties, unlike shared properties, are not expected to have a consensual element. Examples of configural property are income disparity or value differences between people in different ethnical groups or regions within a country.

Many scholars (e.g., Earley, 1993; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1989) have suggested that there is variation in individual experiences of culture, and others have found considerable within-nation variation on many culture dimensions (e.g., Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Strauss & Quinn, 1997; Triandis, 1995). This suggests a configural property. It is curious that culture researchers continue to treat culture as a global property by using nation as a proxy or assume a shared property of culture by using mean scores of culture values. Treating culture as a global construct, especially the use of a proxy for culture, does not provide informative insight into how culture influences employee behaviors in different national contexts. Studies at the country level (e.g., Huang & Van de Vliert, 2003; Peterson & Smith, 1997) often rely on the Hofstede (1991, 1994) scores, which are mean country-level scores aggregated from individual responses, again reflecting an assumption of a shared property of culture. The lack of attention to the potential configural nature of culture is most puzzling.

There is potential for interesting theory development by focusing on the variance of culture held by the individuals in a nation. The idea of tightness or looseness of a culture, first introduced by Pelto (1968) and later elaborated by Triandis (1989), may be relevant for considering the configural property of culture. Gelfand, Nishii, and Raver (2007) define tightness–looseness as the strength of social norms and degree of sanctioning when a member's behavior deviates from the social norms of a society. The implication is that in a context with loose norms, there is more tolerance for variations in individual beliefs and behaviors. Therefore, it is conceivable that cultural values would have a shared property in nations with tight norms and a configural property in nations with loose norms. In other words, the same cultural value (e.g., individualism or PD), may have different properties in the context of a loose or a tight culture. There are opportunities for future scholars to develop new insight on the role of national culture for individual and team behavior in organizations by theorizing on the configural nature of the culture concept.

Recommendation 2: Consolidate Cultural Values—Toward a Configuration Approach

The seminal work by Hofstede offers a cultural framework that has guided cross-cultural research for more than 20 years. However, the field is now rich with many other cultural frameworks (e.g., Triandis, Schwartz, Singelis, Trompenaars). Recently, House et al. (2004), through a 10-year effort, developed a set of nine cultural values relating to both national and organizational culture. This suggests that the field now has more choices in terms of cultural frameworks. But this increased choice is not without its costs. It perpetuates the lack of a paradigm and is a hindrance to accumulation of knowledge. Furthermore, the trait approach, treating cultural values as independent dimensions, continues to dominate current research.

Lack of meaningful progress in measurement also is evident. This review identifies, for individualism and collectivism alone, 15 unique sources of measurement. There are other

measures not represented in the review. For example, Dorfman and Howell (1988) adapted Hofstede's (1980) ecological construct of culture to capture cultural variations at the individual level. Their scales can predict different loci of commitment among culturally diverse employees in the United States (Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000). We see a critical need for a consolidation of different cultural frameworks and their measurement. Theoretical work is needed to develop a parsimonious categorization of cultural values. Empirical research is necessary to examine the convergent and discriminant validity of the measures for different cultural values with the goal of identifying a set of measures that have high construct validity to guide future research.

In essence, we need to reexamine the construct of culture at its core. Culture is a latent, a hypothetical construct, and most definitions refer to culture as a pattern. It is not a list of independent dimensions but is "the integrated, complex set of interrelated and potentially interactive patterns characteristic of a group of people" (Lytle et al., 1995: 170). Research in organizational culture has shown that a configuration of cultural values differently predicts outcomes from a set of independent culture dimensions (Tsui, Song, & Yan, 2007). Further work on the construct validity of culture should include the development of a configuration model. Lytle et al. (1995) offer a preliminary categorization. They identify more than 70 dimensions grouped into six categories: (a) definition of self, (b) motivational orientation, (c) relation between societal members, (d) pattern of communication, (e) orientation toward time, change, and uncertainty, and (f) pattern of social institutions and social systems. However, a categorization is not a configuration. Future research should identify the interrelationships among the dimensions and develop patterns that may describe a particular nation or groups of nations. For example, synthesizing the results of eight empirical studies, Ronen and Shenkar (1987) clustered countries based on similarity in employee work attitudes. Hofstede's (1980) original framework identifies countries with similar profiles on cultural values. Subsequent empirical research has not followed up on this profile approach. In general, the abundance of culture dimensions and corresponding measures does not necessarily advance our knowledge on culture. We need consolidation of cultural values and development of configuration models to improve its conceptual clarity and to advance future research. Theory and research can compare the predictive validity of the dimensional and the configuration approach of cultural effects.

Recommendation 3: Include National Differences Beyond Culture—Toward a Polycontextual Approach

It is well recognized that nation and culture do not completely overlap, that nations differ in many aspects beyond cultural values, leading to the debate on whether cultural or national differences drive differences in organizational behavior across nations (Busenitz, Gomez, & Spencer, 2000; Erez & Earley, 1993). Thus, the results from the studies that used nation as a proxy without directly measuring culture are difficult to interpret for at least two reasons. First, they do not take into account possible within-nation variation in a cultural value (Au, 1997). Within-nation variation of Hofstede's culture values has been observed in the U.S. setting (e.g., Clugston et al., 2000). Second, they do not identify many other factors beyond culture that may account for differences in work behavior across nations. For example, in the Cullen et al. (2004) study, the achievement, individualism, and universalism

values were positively related to four social institutional factors measured with objective indicators: economy (e.g., percentage of urban population and energy use), welfare socialism (e.g., taxes collected by government as percentage of GDP), family strength (e.g., divorce-to-marriage ratio), and educational attainment. By controlling for these institutional factors, we could place more confidence on the finding reported by these researchers that national culture influences managerial views of ethical behaviors. Parboteeah et al. (2005) reported that professional culture may suppress the influence of national culture in predicting perceptions of ethical climate by accountants, again suggesting the need to include noncultural factors to isolate the influence of culture.

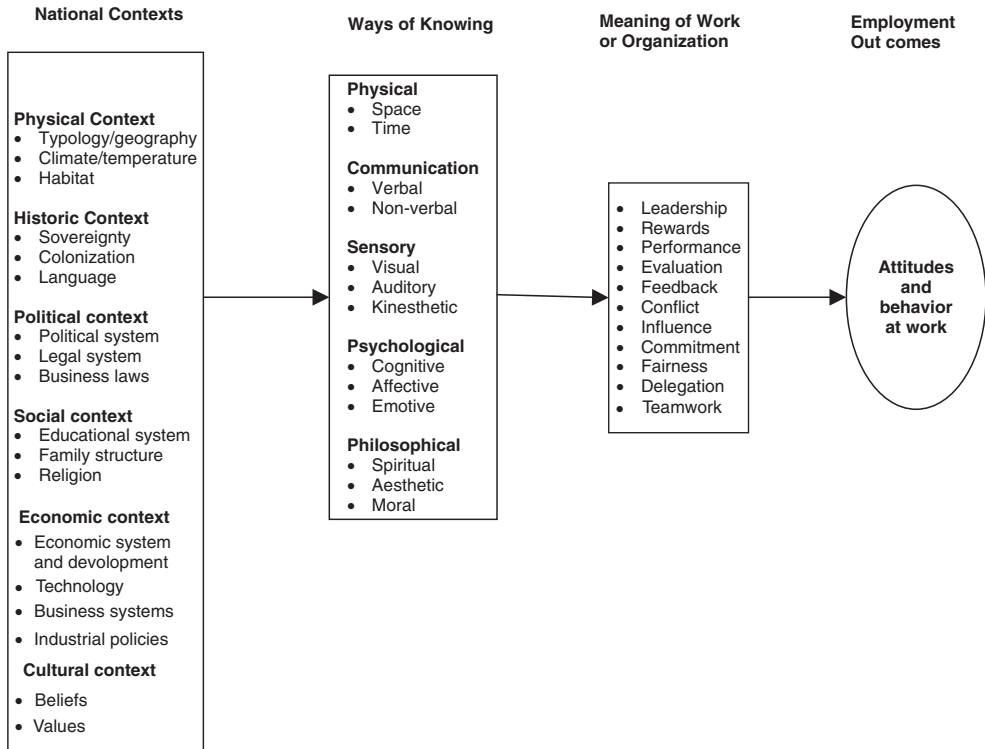
Because of the multiplicity of the context, scholars have introduced the word *polycontextualization* (Von Glinow et al., 2004) to describe the process of incorporating multiple contexts for a holistic and valid understanding of any phenomenon in it. Shapiro, Von Glinow, and Xiao (2007) further argue that much of current research, cross-cultural or monocultural, tends to rely on a single context—the verbal medium. They propose a “polycontextually sensitive” research method to guide cross-cultural research. Polycontextually sensitive research methods require strengthening the many senses of knowing, or sense making, by which cultural understanding can occur. In other words, senses of knowing can have many sources that can be traced to the nation’s economic, political, geographic, or historic contexts. Including the influence of multiple contexts will provide for both better theory development and stronger inference of culture effects.

Synthesizing the ideas of various scholars, we offer a partial list of national contexts that may be relevant in analyzing organizational behavior in different nations. Figure 2 offers a polycontextual approach to cross-national, cross-cultural research. The core idea is that multiple contexts give rise to different sources of meaning, which in turn influence how employees perceive work and organizations and their responses in terms of work behaviors and outcomes.

The major contexts that may separate one nation from another include the physical, historical, political, economic, social, and cultural. These contexts pave the foundation for different ways of knowing by people in that nation. The ways of knowing include physical (e.g., the meaning of time or space), communication (reliance on verbal or nonverbal means), sensory (attention to visual, auditory, or kinetic cues), psychological (decision-making style, information processing, or display of emotion), or philosophical (moral or spiritual bases of decision making). These ways of knowing in turn determine the meaning of work or organizations.

As shown in the research by Den Hartog et al. (1999) and Brodbeck et al. (2000), employees in different nations carry different implicit leadership theories or different leadership prototypes. Similarly, employees in different nations have different mental images or metaphors of teamwork (Gibson & Zellmer-Bruhn, 2001). Focusing on social institutions and using a sample of 26 nations with more than 30,000 employees, Parboteeah and Cullen (2003) found work centrality of employees to relate to five national characteristics beyond culture. They are the level of industrialization (measured by energy use), union strength (percentage of workforce unionized), educational accessibility (by United Nations Development Program’s education attainment score), social inequity (GINI index of income), and socialism (central government expenditure as a percentage of gross national product). These effects were obtained after controlling for the three cultural values of uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity. In an 84-nation analysis of survey responses from 19,525 managers, Van de Vliert and Smith (2004) found leader reliance on subordinates for information or delegation

Figure 2
A Polycontextual Approach to Cross-National, Cross-Cultural Organizational Behavior Research



to vary with the nation's development (a combined index of per capita income, educational attainment, and life expectancy) and harshness of climate. These findings remained after controlling for the cultural values of PD and uncertainty avoidance. The authors used these findings to propose an ecological leadership theory. These studies show that cross-national studies of organizational behavior need to expand beyond using culture as meaningful differentiators. We echo the advice of scholars such as Hofstede (1980, 2006) and Peterson and Smith (1997) who encourage researchers to include other national differentiators for building theories on cross-national differences in organizational behavior and performing a more valid analysis of the influence of culture. A polycontextual approach is challenging because it requires our organizational behavior scholars to draw theories from not only psychology and sociology but also economics, anthropology, political science, and so on. However, this approach has the promise for offering new, valid, and holistic insight into organizational behavior in different national contexts.

The polycontextual approach complements the "configuration" idea of cultural values. Although culture is a composite of many cultural manifestations, nation is a composite of

both cultural and noncultural factors. We advocate not only moving from studies of one or few culture dimensions to a configuration but also incorporating noncultural factors that differentiate one nation from another. We encourage future scholars to develop and test theories, using either the polycontextuality or the configuration approach or, if appropriate, both, in explaining how and why behavior in organizations differs between nations. We are not advocating a grand theory of culture. We are simply suggesting that we should move beyond the narrow models that focus on a few cultural values, providing limited understanding of relationships across societies, to incorporating a higher level of theorization that accounts for interactions among culture values (configuration) and inclusion of other contextual factors in the model (polycontextualization). This is the type of midrange cross-cultural theory advocated by Lytle et al. (1995).

Culture is not static. We also need to develop dynamic models of culture by tracking changes in culture over time and the effect of cultural changes. Scholars have observed that cultural values may more rapidly change during periods of environmental transformation in economy or technology (Fertig, 1996). Indeed, Ralston, Terpstra-Tong, Terpstra, Wang, and Egri (2006) found cultural values changed much more in China than in the United States in a recent 12-year period. Marshall and Boush (2001), in an experimental study, found that the influence of country (United States vs. Peru) on managers' cooperative intentions and behavior diminishes over time. Later decisions are influenced more by the attributes of the relationship and partners' personal characteristics than by the decision maker's country of origin. Recognizing and incorporating the likelihood of cultural change is especially important for those scholars who study nations with rapid economic, technological, and social development, such as China, India, Mexico, Russia, and Brazil.

Recommendation 4: Recognize the Nature of the Beast—Toward Cross-Level Models

Despite the fact that culture is an ecological concept, a majority of the studies (84% of the studies in this review) developed and tested hypotheses at the individual level. The results of studies (e.g., Peterson & Smith, 1997; Van de Vliert & Van Yperen, 1996) that tested culture effects (e.g., PD) on average individual experiences (e.g., role stress) at the national level are not interpretable at the individual level. Only four studies (e.g., Cullen et al., 2004; Fu et al., 2004; Hui et al., 2004) in our review used a cross-level design and a statistical test (either HLM or MLwiN) appropriate for cross-level theory and data. Analysis of employee work behavior across nations should explore different types of cross-level models (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). Studies that use culture as a main effect correspond to the cross-level direct-effect model (Type I models), whereas those that use culture as a moderating variable correspond to the cross-level moderation model (Type II models). If the culture variable has a configural property, there is the possibility of a cross-level frog-pond model (Type III models). For example, the experiences of the individualists in a context of predominantly collectivists may be quite different from those of the individualists among those who are also individualists. Future theory development could focus on the asymmetric experiences of people whose values differ from those of others in a group.

In testing a hypothesis relating one or more cultural values at the societal level to outcomes at the individual or team levels, researchers have used two practices in terms of data analysis. One is to measure values at the individual level and test the hypotheses at this level, which is the predominant approach in the studies reviewed in this article. This approach, unfortunately, is inappropriate, as it is an ecological fallacy to assume that all individuals share the group attribute. It is an atomistic fallacy to infer that the results obtained at the individual level are valid at the societal level. Therefore, if the interest is in understanding cross-national differences in individual outcomes, scholars must build cross-level models and avoid theorizing and conducting the research at only the individual or the national level.

Another frequently used approach is the cross-level operator analysis (CLOP) method (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000), which aims to estimate the effect of higher-level characteristics on a lower-level outcome. This approach involves assigning the country-level score (a proxy or a cultural value score) to individuals and testing the hypotheses at the individual level, with a regression approach. The problems of this disaggregation of a higher-level measure to a lower level are well known. It violates the assumption of independence of data required in regression, and it produces biased standard errors and parameter estimates. Given the availability of HLM (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992; Hofmann, 1997) and a related program, MLwiN (Rasbash & Woodhouse, 1995), we expect and encourage a decreased use of CLOP and an increased use of HLM-like procedures in future studies of cross-national, cross-cultural organizational behavior research.

Recommendation 5: Ensure Construct Validity—Beyond Back Translation and Measurement Equivalence

As Schaffer and Riordan (2003) explained in detail, it is critical to ensure construct validity across samples in cross-cultural research. This includes semantic equivalence, which can be achieved to some extent through a careful translation process. However, Farh, Cannella, and Lee (2006) pointed out that translation is not the best approach to ensure construct validity across cultures. These authors described three other approaches, adaptation, decontextualization, and contextualization. The latter two involve the development of new scales. Decontextualization develops context-free measures that can be used in many cultures. The contextualization approach develops context-specific scales that may be meaningful in one culture but not in another. Examples are the *guanxi* (Chen, Chen, & Xin, 2004), “face,” or *renqing* variables (Liu, Friedman, & Chi, 2005) in studying organizational behavior in the Chinese context. In essence, the translation and back-translation procedure (Brislin, 1980) is no longer sufficient to ensure the validity of measures across cultures.

If construct development work finds a construct with similar meaning across cultures but involving different indicators, cross-cultural researchers usually retain the common items and delete those that fail to converge in another sample. However, this “pseudo-etic” approach, by using a reduced set of common items, can be detrimental to the construct validity of the measure. A long time ago, Berry (1969) argued that a measurement instrument for use in more than one country should contain items common across countries and items that are country specific. Indeed, Gelfand et al. (2001) found that U.S. and Japanese negotiators

have both etic or universal, and emic or culture-specific, construals of conflict. Parboteeah et al. (2005) needed to use different items to construct culture-specific measures of ethical climate for the Japanese and the U.S. samples. Most cross-cultural researchers have applied emic measures from one nation (usually the United States) to other nations. Other than ensuring good translation, recent studies also performed statistical tests to ensure measurement equivalence. These tests require a common set of items among the comparison groups, resulting in the pseudo-etic problem. Even though cross-cultural methodologists have discussed the possibility of combining etic and emic items in a single scale (e.g., Van Raaij, 1978), it is only recently that a statistical procedure has been available to test the equivalence of multigroup latent variable models involving different numbers of items and factors (Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 1998). Janssens, Brett, and Smith (1995) adopted this approach in their study of a safety policy in three countries: the United States, France, and Argentina. They found two items failing to converge in the factor analysis of the French data and one item failing in the Argentinean data. Instead of dropping these items from all three samples, as most scholars would do, they replaced them with constants or imagery variables in the French and Argentinean data. A related approach is to leave the loading of the emic items to be freely estimated instead of constraining them to be equivalent across groups (G. Cheung, personal communication, December 27, 2006).

The pseudo-etic approach may create an unnecessary barrier to achieving construct equivalence across samples, as illustrated in a recent study by Tang et al. (2006), who tested the measurement equivalence of a simple nine-item Love-of-Money Scale in 29 geo-polities. Only 17 samples passed the metric equivalence test. More samples may achieve construct equivalence if the researchers have identified emic items for some samples. Although the efforts to identify the emic indicators are demanding, the combined etic–emic approach has a good potential to improve construct validity in different samples and construct equivalence across samples.

Recommendation 6: Go Native—Toward Country-Specific Research

Another characteristic of cross-national, cross-cultural research is a preference to start with an existing model (most of which are U.S. models) and to analyze how other nations may differ from the United States on the phenomenon being studied. There are several reasons for this preference. The cross-cultural scholar can draw on an existing body of literature and join an ongoing intellectual conversation. By extending the model to other nations, the scholar can test the boundary conditions of current theories and knowledge. By identifying cross-cultural differences, the research can satisfy the intellectual curiosity of U.S. researchers and inform the practice of U.S. multinational corporations. However, as Ofori-Dankwa and Ricks (2000) pointed out, researchers using a “difference-oriented lens” may tend to pose questions and find results consistent with the lens used. The risk of this orientation is that the researchers might not be asking “the right questions” (Ofori-Dankwa & Ricks, 2000: 173), that is, studying issues that may be of low relevance to other cultures. Valid cross-cultural studies must start with substantive knowledge of relevant phenomena in all the contexts (Cavusgil & Das, 1997) before making meaningful comparisons between them.

Tsui (2004) showed that North American and, secondarily, European research dominates the global management literature. She encouraged more country-specific studies, especially in Asia, South America, and other developing economies to fill the gap in global management knowledge. She further distinguished country-specific (or context-specific) from cross-cultural (context-embedded) research. Tsui used the term *indigenous* to refer to the country- or context-specific research that involves a high degree of contextualization or even polycontextualization when studying novel contexts. Such research does not aim to test an existing theory but strives to derive new theories of phenomena in their specific contexts.

The best example of context-specific research is the work by local scholars using local language. However, such work may not involve explicit contextualization because the context is implicit in the theories and methods of inquiry. As such, the context is not obvious to, or shared by, researchers outside the context. The outputs of this research are usually published in local language journals that are not accessible to most cross-cultural scholars. Cross-cultural collaboration in conducting context-specific research can facilitate the transfer of knowledge across borders and ensure that the cultural assumptions are clearly explicated in the new theory or model. Like fish in water, the insider may take water for granted. Outsiders can ask about the nature of the water and reveal assumptions that are either not obvious or too obvious to the insider. High-quality context-specific research requires a deep knowledge of the context, but such research does not have to be limited to insiders. Many influential and insightful theories have been developed about China's transition from a planned to a market economy and its ramifications by scholars who are not natives to China (e.g., Boisot & Child, 1996; Earley, 1993; Guthrie, 1997; Nee, 1992; Walder, 1992). These scholars have spent substantial amounts of time observing and interacting with local scholars and managers or working with collaborators who have intimate knowledge of the context. These country-specific studies have added valuable and novel insight to the stock of global management knowledge. In a review of 226 China-related articles (including many cross-cultural studies) published in 20 journals in the period 1984 to 1999, Li and Tsui (2002) found that the most-cited articles are the country-specific studies with a high degree of contextualization.

Cross-cultural studies are valuable, but their value is limited by the lack of comparable knowledge about the nations involved in the study. Almost 300 scholars around the world, outside of the United States, participated in the 93 studies discussed in this review. This group of intellectual resources should be sought out as valuable collaborators for future cross-national studies and, more importantly, should be encouraged to contribute to global management knowledge by engaging in country-specific research using the indigenous approach.

Recommendation 7: Engage in Long-Term Cross-National Collaborations

As we approach the end of our discussion, it should be evident that cross-national research is not, could not, and should not be the undertaking of a single individual, even though we admire the seven solo scholars who conducted 10 of the studies in this review. The fact remains that almost 90% of the studies in our review are collaborative efforts, more than 60% of which involve cross-national partnerships. Many scholars have extensively written about the merit and challenges of cross-border research teams (e.g., Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991;

Meyer, 2007; Peterson, 2001; Teagarden et al., 1995; Tsui, 2004). We refer readers to these excellent discussions, especially that of Peterson (2001), who identifies the varying motivations, contextual influences, and suggestions necessary to realize effective and rewarding international collaboration. We point to the rich intellectual resources in at least 54 countries around the world, representing a total of 365 scholars who have contributed to the body of knowledge on organizational behavior across nations through these 93 studies.

The intellectual leadership of cross-national research by U.S. scholars is a mixed blessing. Although they can provide expertise on theory, research design, and familiarity with the dominant research paradigm, they also may lead (unknowingly or unintentionally) the study down a path that is essentially an application or replication of (U.S.) domestic research rather than develop new theoretical insights on unique problems that are important in the comparison nations. Because of cultural differences, scholars in some countries may be deferential to their U.S. collaborators. Therefore, U.S. researchers should make deliberate efforts to actively seek the views, advice, and input of their country collaborators, including selecting the topic to study, deciding the methods of data collection, and identifying the relevant samples. They should be involved in conducting the analyses, especially when they involve qualitative data obtained from observations, interviews, or written documents or when they involve understanding the meaning of local artifacts such as national icons. Participants in different nations may have different styles in responding to surveys or interviews. The local collaborator can provide insight into the appropriateness of methods such as simulation, experimentation, or nonparticipant observation and assist in contextualizing the research method. Using foreign collaborators primarily as data collection instruments is probably a suboptimal use of this intellectual resource.

We mentioned earlier that many scholars have developed deep insight into local phenomena through their deep involvement in the local context by spending a substantial amount of time there. Reflections by the "Great Minds in Management" (Smith & Hitt, 2005) converge on a similar point. High-quality, high-impact research is the result of the scholars' deep knowledge about the phenomena they study. This is true of cross-national research as well. International studies are not for those who cannot depart from the comfort of their homes or who dislike flying for more than a few hours. Good local knowledge cannot be attained in a matter of days, weeks, or even months. We encourage scholars of any nation to spend their sabbatical year (not months) in the country that they would most like to study. An extended stay may not only deepen knowledge; it could build friendships and trust that are critical for successful and rewarding partnerships lasting for many years. Knowledge about a phenomenon does not result from a single study but requires a program of research that continues for years or even decades. Wonderful friendships may emerge from cross-national collaborations.

Conclusion

Our review of a sample of 93 studies in the 16 leading management journals shows substantial progress, but much more important work remains. The challenge of cross-national, cross-cultural organizational behavior research is manifold greater than the challenges of domestic studies, especially in the United States, where there are a well-developed paradigm,

well-defined research methods, and a large body of literature on which to draw. However, it is also clear that global management knowledge is scant on knowledge beyond the North American or European contexts. The 21st century should be, if it is not already, the century of international management research. The unique challenges of organizational behavior research in the cross-national context are to ensure the construct validity of the culture concept, to include other national differentiators for improving the internal validity of the findings, and to strengthen the research design by leveraging on the knowledge of the country collaborators. This could enhance the external validity of the studies. If we may borrow a quote from Smith and Hitt (2005), cross-cultural research is “not for the faint-hearted” because of the need to clear many intellectual and physical barriers. Similar to creating any influential work, achieving success in cross-national, cross-cultural studies of organizational behavior requires “an unshakable sense of efficacy and a firm belief in the worth of what they are doing” (Smith & Hitt, 2005: 30). To the cross-national researchers, we salute you for your dedication and contribution to global learning.

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