

Sevinur ÇUHADAR

Doctoral School of Economic and Regional Science,  
Hungarian University of Agriculture and Life Sciences

# LINK BETWEEN NATIONAL CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP STYLES OF MANAGERS IN ORGANIZATIONS

Case  
Study

---

## Keywords

National Culture;  
Leadership Styles;  
Leadership;

---

## Classification-JEL

M10; M12; M16;

---

## Abstract

National culture is crucial factor that affects leadership and leadership styles of managers in organizations. Beliefs, customs, ideas, conventions, values of country shape behaviors of managers and that cause arising leadership styles of managers based on their national culture. Every country has its own belief system, customs, values and ideas therefore different leadership styles are used in various cultures. Such as, autocratic leadership is effectual in particular culture, participative leadership style is more efficient in another one. For this reason, this study aimed to provide a better comprehension of concept of national culture, models of national culture, leadership, leadership styles. We have done this by clarifying link between national culture and leadership styles of managers in organizations based on previous studies in the literature.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Globalization links businesses to a variety of national cultures, introducing diversity into their operations and forcing leaders to engage and work with people from various cultural roots. Managers who are able to adapt rapidly to new situations and collaborate with partners and workers from a diverse range of cultures in order to grow their businesses globally are required by the organizations (Janićijević, 2019; Butar, 2018).

Leading people becomes challenging when everyone adheres to the same culture and has a similar view of what is "good" and "bad," however serious misunderstandings can occur when team members come from various cultural backgrounds or when the leader's background is different from the team members (Wursten, Lanzer, Fadrhonc, 2014). Leaders need to be ready to lead in rapidly changing contexts with a variety of cultures and beliefs as well as a complicated work force. Additionally, effective leaders must be prepared to work with many languages besides various cultures (Vakilbashi, Ismail, Mokhber, 2014). National culture plays significant role, when analyzing different leadership styles, ideologies, and organizational behaviors (Uusiniitty, 2012).

Current study seeks to examine link between national culture and leadership styles of managers in organizations and in order to accomplish the purpose of this study we benefitted from previous studies in the literature.

## **NATIONAL CULTURE**

According to Hofstede, culture is a collection of common mental habits such as thinking, feeling, and behaving that every individual learns in childhood and uses for the rest of their lives (Hofstede, 1980a). National culture (NC) is the term for the shared beliefs, ideas, and customs that set one country's people apart from those of other countries (Van Oudenhoven, 2001). It frequently offers an implicit explanation about expected behaviors in a range of circumstances (Moon, 1996). The national culture is a crucial perspective for understanding excellent leadership in a particular environment. Organizational leaders' and personnels' behaviour are undoubtedly impacted by their cultural background (Shahin & Wright, 2004). Language, religion, laws, politics, social system, economics, technology, education, beliefs, behaviours, conventions, habits, perceptions of time, music, art, and architecture are all components of the national cultural complex (Khan & Law, 2018). National culture is a system of beliefs, values, conventions, and behaviors expressed via symbols produced by a

national society which helps its members understand the meaning of the world surrounding them and how to act in it (Janićijević, 2013). Definitions are not all that different, and the culture is a set of basic beliefs that everyone shares (Schein, 2010). A nation's culture shapes how its citizens see reality and behave in it by imposing particular presumptions, beliefs, conventions, and behaviors on them (Hofstede, 2001, p.25). There are multiple levels of culture since most individuals fall into distinct categories and groups and because each group or category of people possesses a set of shared mental programs that make up its cultures (Hofstede, Hofstede, Minkov, 2005). Hofstede (1980b, 2001) used six aspects to evaluate variations in national cultures: Long Term Orientation vs Short Term Orientation, Masculinity vs. Femininity, Individualism vs Collectivism, and Power Distance, Indulgence vs Restraint, Uncertainty Avoidance.

National culture is essential for putting together a fundamental belief and comprehending someone's leadership style (Newman & Nollen, 1996). Leadership styles have been experimentally linked to national culture (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). The national culture of the managers has a significant impact on their leadership style, which is a key factor in a enterprise's effectiveness. National culture indicates that a leadership style or method that is seen appropriate in one culture may not be favored in the other. According to social psychologists, a person's culture is instilled in them through the common values of social communities, which is crucial for their mental, emotive, and social progress. In consequence, these socialization characteristics influence how individuals view themselves and other people in cross-cultural contexts (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1989).

## **MODELS OF NATIONAL CULTURE**

The most recognized and extensive research were carried out by Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars (1993), GLOBE (House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, Dorfman, Javidan, Dickson, Gupta, 1999), and Hofstede (1980a). Six thousand leaders and workers from all over the world were subjected to these three research in order to discover core values and create national cultural aspects. The three models all share the following fundamental common idea that values, beliefs are constant component of national culture and contribute to cultural diversity and dimensions of national culture affect leadership styles. Besides the three research, other studies of national culture will be provided in this paper.

### Hofstede's Model

Hofstede (2001) laid the foundation for cross-cultural research in management at the end of the 1970s by conducting a comprehensive empirical research on the variations across national cultures. He had identified six national cultural aspects that represented the majority of his extensive research, and after that he examined at how those factors affected various areas of organizational behavior and management. Professor Hofstede G. pointed out that people from various places and countries faced considerable cultural variations even in the same organization. Between 1967 and 1973, Hofstede conducted research with 117,000 IBM workers from 66 different nations (Hofstede, 1980b); The initial 66 countries were later replaced by 53 countries (Hofstede, 1983, 1984). Based on the original findings and subsequent changes, Hofstede developed a model that defines four key features to aid in identifying cultures: Individualism (IDV), Masculinity (MAS), Power Distance (PDI), Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI). Using a questionnaire survey on Chinese subordinates and managers, Hofstede G. conducted an additional international research and established a fifth component. Long-Term Orientation (LTO) was the fifth component based on Confucian dynamism and it was used to assess 23 nations (Hofstede, 1991). These five aspects have been shown to match up with various national, cultural, and religious perspectives. Management practitioners and academics continue to reference and utilize his work today despite modifications and improvements made to it in 1991, 2001, and 2005 (Shi & Wang, 2011). The results of additional research (Hofstede, Hofstede, Minkov, 2010), that is undertaken in 93 countries has led to the addition of a sixth component that is called Indulgence vs. Restraint (IND). A key aspect of national culture that affects leadership and sub - cultures in organizations is power distance (Dusan, 2004). Following dimensions are part of the Hofstede's cultural dimensions:

1. **Power Distance.** Describes the level of inequality between individuals that a society considers acceptable. The degree to which a community acknowledges that power is distributed inequitably is known as the power distance. It determines how much of a psychological gap there is between a leader and his or her supporters (Randolph & Sashkin, 2002).
2. **Individualism vs. collectivism.** This cultural dimension determines the extent to which members of a culture care more about themselves than others. Individual performance and individual achievements are more prominent in individualistic society. Collective interests and interdependence take precedence over personal ones in collectivist civilizations (Hofstede, 1983).

3. **Masculinity vs. femininity.** This dimension determines how much (high/low) a culture's members are driven by rivalry, achievement, and individual success. Those in feminine society care about others and desire a good life for everyone, whereas people in masculine societies often favor individual competitiveness, accomplishment, and success (Hofstede et al., 2005)
4. **Uncertainty Avoidance.** In order to deal with future uncertainty, different national cultures have developed various coping mechanisms, which are shown through uncertainty avoidance. It is related to how anxious a culture feels about the future in general (Hofstede, 2000, p.145-146).
5. **Long-term vs. Short-term Orientation** examines whether people are more focused on short or long-term goals (Hofstede, 2001). Long-term oriented cultures place a high importance on perseverance (Carolina, 2019) Simultaneously, societies with a short-term orientation emphasize their traditions as well as history (DeBode, Haggard, Haggard, 2020).
6. **Indulgence vs. Restraint.** Indulgence refers to a social setting that enables people to enjoy life and entertain themselves somewhat unrestrictedly in accordance with their basic and intrinsic human aspirations. The term "restriction" describes a society that restricts the fulfillment of wishes and regulates them through strict social norms. (Hofstede et al., 2010, p.281).

### GLOBE Model

The study for Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) investigated the connection between leadership and culture. The research was conducted by Robert House in 1991. The research's goal was to improve knowledge of intercultural differences and how culture affects management. More than 950 businesses in 62 different cultures around the world took part in the study. Data for the study was gathered using a variety of techniques, including surveys, interviews, participant observations, and content analysis of printed material. A ten-cluster system of nations has been created by the researchers based on their findings. Researchers were able to compare and contrast the variations across clusters by grouping nations into clusters. Every cluster has a distinct culture and a unique management style (Northouse, 2007, p.305-309). The connection between organizational culture, societal culture, and organizational leadership was being investigated by scholars from all over the world. The first six elements are based on the Hofstede dimensions, but many think that the GLOBE model's broad offers a stronger foundation for comprehending the variety of cultures than the other two models offer. The following dimensions are part of the GLOBE model (House et al., 1999):

(1) **assertiveness**- the extent to which social norms support harshness, disagreement, and rivalry among individuals (2) **future orientation**- the extent to which society motivates people and businesses to concentrate on future actions, (3) **gender egalitarianism**- the extent to which society downplays gender disparities, (4) **uncertainty avoidance**- the extent to which individuals in an organization or community attempt to minimize uncertainty by relying on social conventions, traditions, and administrative procedures, (5) **power distance**-the extent to which the group's members accept that power should not be distributed equally, (6) **institutional collectivism**-the extent to which social and organizational institutions promote and incentivize group action and resource cooperation, (7) **within-group-collectivism** reflects the extent to which people are proud to belong to, be loyal to, and be a part of their families, organizations, and groups, (8) **performance orientation**-refers to the extent to which society and its members urge organizations to boost productivity and concentrate on the outcome, (9) **human orientation**-indicates the extent to which society and businesses promote and honor their members' impartiality, benevolence, friendliness, and compassion.

#### **Trompenaars's Model**

Two sets of the survey were used for the study, and more than 45,000 managers from 50 different countries participated in both rounds. He found seven bipolar aspects as his findings and recommendations (Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 2008): (1) **Universalism** is the concept that ideas and actions may be universally applied without additional adjustment. **Particularism** stands for the viewpoint that how practices and ideas should be put into action depends on the situation (2) **Individualism** is the belief that each person is a separate individuals, whereas **communitarianism** refers to those who view themselves as part of the community (3) A **neutral** culture is one in which it is anticipated that people would keep their emotions to themselves. Individuals from cultures that are neutral seek to hide their emotions. In **affective** cultures, emotions are freely and spontaneously stated (4) **Diffuse** cultures are ones in which people have a huge social area and welcome others to join them, while preserving a modest amount of privacy for themselves and their close contacts. **Specific** cultures are ones in which both social and private spaces are of equivalent size, and people take care to keep their social spaces private since access to them serves as a way into private spaces as well. (5) In **achievement** culture, status is acquired by ability or knowledge. Job titles are acquired and display this expertise. In an **ascription** culture, a position is determined by who you are. This could be as a

result of your social position, education level or age. (6) The interaction with the environment is referred to as the cultural dimension of **internal** routing. The emphasis of internal direction is that someone's actions are outcomes of his/her actions, while **external** direction highlights the power that is beyond our provision. (7) **Sequential** time describes the focus on a single action, strict devotion to deadlines, and clearly indicating a desire for planning. Dealing with several issues at once requires a concept of **synchronously** time and concur that time is a finite resource , and timetables are adjusted based on relationships.

#### **Other Models Of National Culture**

##### a. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck

Based on the initial study (Kluckhohn, 1951), cultural anthropologists Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) produced one of the earliest models of culture, which has served as the fundamental basis for several subsequent models. Their proposed theory of culture, which is based on value orientations that there are only a few number of problems that affect all human populations and for which there are only a limited group of answers. They focused on five American Southwest subcultures in their study: agricultural community of Anglo-American ranchers two tribes of Native Americans , a willage of Hispanics, village of Mormons.

##### b. Schwartz

Schwartz (1992) examined the individual value preferences of 35,000 people from 122 samples of college students and instructors in 49 different nations. He categorized values into seven main groups (emotive autonomy, embeddedness, hierarchy, intellectual autonomy equality, harmony ,mastery), which are center on three essential elements, such as autonomy vs conservatism , egalitarianism vs hierarchy , and harmony vs mastery. Allegedly prevalent in all civilizations, these principles stand for the basic requirements for human life. According to Schwartz (1999), using the cultural value type method, it is feasible to anticipate and investigate national differences in managers' attitudes toward their employees.

#### **LEADERSHIP AND LEADERSHIP STYLES**

Leadership is the capacity of a person to persuade, inspire, and empower others to contribute to the efficiency and success of the businesses in which they are involved (House, Javidan, Hanges, Dorfman, 2002). Leadership is the result of the social-cognitive mechanisms used by humans to classify others and It includes the ways that supporters understand the actions, tendencies, qualities, and results that leaders generate (Yan & Hunt, 2005, p.50). The relationship between

subordinates and managers can be characterized as leadership (Northouse, 2021). One of the most crucial topics in organizational behavior and management is leadership, because managers have a absolute effect on performance of organizations and business operations (Janićijević, 2019). Every organization's expansion and improvement depend heavily on leadership (Ahn, Adamson, Dornbusch, 2004).

A leadership style is a leader's approach to setting goals, carrying them out, and inspiring followers. Leadership styles can be categorized in a variety of ways. Perspective of some scholars, variety of leadership styles are presented in many studies such as, The Project GLOBE, where researchers discovered six global leadership dimensions, offers another classification of implicit leader behaviors around the world that have various cultural profiles for the necessary leadership behaviors and traits. These leadership styles were: charismatic/value-based, team-oriented, self-protective, autonomous, participative, humane-oriented (House et al., 2002). Four types of leadership are democratic, authoritative, affiliative, coaching are presented by Buckingham (2005). The laissez faire, transformative leadership style, transactional leadership style are presented in leadership model (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Scholars from GLOBE claim that cross-cultural variations in entrepreneurship can be explained by cultural leadership values as a relevant, immediate part of culture. Culturally based expectations about the qualities, motivations, and behaviors of exceptional leaders are outlined in the concept of cultural leadership ideals (House et al., 2004). Leaders in various cultures will guide their supporters in different ways mainly because they both originate with various viewpoints on the reality where they live in (Jaeger, 1986). People in authoritarian societies anticipate an authoritarian leader, whereas democratic leaders who encourage their supporters to participate in decision-making are more desired (Janićijević, 2019).

### **NATIONAL CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP STYLES**

Leadership styles shift significantly across national boundaries (Al-Hummadi, 2013). Culture affects the kind of leadership and attitudes that are acceptable and beneficial in a given culture. The main cultural values of the nation are consistent with leadership. Consequently, while determining who is most likely to be viewed as a leader, distinctions in cultural contexts must be taken into account and what style of leadership has the most chance of being efficient (Thomas, 2008). Across cultures, a variety of elements, including the leader's ethnicity, may have an impact on how the

leader and followers interact and how the followers view the leader (Chong & Thomas, 1997). The elements of the culture in which the behaviour takes place have an impact on the other social behaviors and leadership styles. Leadership characteristics are partially influenced by culture. Leaders are socialized into and embrace the cultural norms and values of the society in which they are raised. Over time, they learn on appropriate and improper behavioural patterns (Tkeshelashvili, 2009). A person may assume certain things about his or her leader based on cultural background and the leader's leadership prototype (Shaw, 1990). The kind of behaviors that leaders exhibit are determined by cultural factors as well as how frequently they perform and how well they do (House, Wright, Aditya, 1997). Hence, it would be reasonable to anticipate that several leadership philosophies or leadership prototypes would organically emerge in civilizations with various cultural characteristics (Hofstede, 1993). In essence, cross-cultural research may point out limiting factors and unique cultural distinctions that are important for comprehending the leadership process and results (Yukl, 2013).

Being acknowledged as a leader may need forceful, decisive action in some cultures, while participative and consultation may be required in others. Different leader behaviors and attributes may also be evaluated and understood in various cultures. For example, cultures that support authoritarian style of leadership might judge sensitivity of leader as weak, while the same sensitivity is likely to be crucial for effective leadership in cultures that favor a more supportive style (Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, Dorfman, Abdalla, Adetoun, Aditya, Agourram, & Akande, 1999). In terms of power distance, individualism, uncertainty avoidance demonstrated that executives' devotion to existing strategy is connected to their cultural background (Geletkanycz, 1997). For instance, societies with high levels of uncertainty tolerance are more adept at controlling anxiety and likely to react less strongly to reduce it. So, Individuals living in societies where there is a strong tendency to avoid uncertainty anticipate norms, and leaders are frequently less fair and flexible (Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). A team-oriented and autonomous leadership style are both characteristics of the classic Nordic European leadership profile and this is because institutional collectivism and gender equality are prevalent in this area. The leadership style in Southern Asia is another example, where both charismatic and team-oriented leadership are highly regarded. Due to Southern Asia's strong ranks in power distance and in-group collectivism closely related to Hofstede's cultural aspects (Meyer, 2014; Northouse, 2021). Authoritarian style leaders are preferred in collective cultures

and/or cultures with high power distance, whereas participative style leaders are preferred in individualistic cultures and/or cultures with low power distance. Task-oriented leadership is preferred, more likely, and more successful in society and its organizations when there is a high level of masculinity in the national culture, high future orientation high performance orientation, low gender egalitarianism high assertiveness, low humane orientation. People-oriented leadership is preferable, more likely, and more successful in society and organizations when there is a high level of gender equality, low future orientation, high humane orientation, low assertiveness, low performance orientation femininity (Janićijević, 2019). A leader in a high power distance culture is more inclined to take an autocratic attitude, but because the employer or individuals outside the company could judge different behavior to be unproductive (Scandura & Dorfman, 2004; Yukl, 2006, p.13; Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges, & de Luque, 2006; Javidan and Lynton, 2005). In cultures with more egalitarian cultures, participative leadership is seen as a leadership approach that works well (Carl, Gupta, Javidan, House 2004; Dorfman, Hanges, & Brodbeck, 2004). The GLOBE research on leadership through cultures discovered that a number of characteristics indicating charismatic/transformational leadership are widely acknowledged as supporting excellent leadership. Bass's (1997) study came to similar results. He discovered that across several cultures, transformational leadership associated more strongly with a variety of favorable outcomes than transactional leadership. Additionally, leadership styles were correlated with Hofstede's four cultural aspects of masculinity vs femininity, individualism vs collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance. Transformational leadership is more effective in cultures with less power distance. Transactional leadership works better in societies with a high power distance. Furthermore, transactional leadership was valued in societies with high levels of uncertainty avoidance, and vice versa. Transformational leadership is more appropriate in societies that are collectivist, In contrast, transactional leadership was appropriate in individualist societies. Finally, transformational leaders are favoured in feminine cultures whereas transactional leaders are more effective in masculine ones.

#### **STUDIES IN LITERATURE ABOUT LINK BETWEEN NATIONAL CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP STYLES**

Numerous studies have examined the connection between cultural traits and leadership styles in various nations. In addition, a significant quantity

of data has been gathered to pinpoint the cultural values and traits of those nations (Hadgis, 2006; Hofstede, 2001). Number of scholars confirmed that local culture has a significant effect on leadership styles and behaviours (House et al., 2004; Scandura & Dorfman, 2004).

The link between national culture and leadership style in Iranian private sector organizations is examined in this study. Iranian private sector managers that answered the questionnaire issued to 350 out of 900. The findings show a strong interrelation between transformational and transactional leadership styles and all aspects of national culture. Nevertheless, there were conflicting correlations between aspects of national culture and the passive leadership style. (Nazarian & Atkinson, 2013).

Task orientation-people orientation, authoritarianism-participative are the two primary leadership styles. The study examines the effects of national cultural factors on these two leadership styles. Study determined indicates the decision between authoritarian and participatory leadership styles is significantly influenced by individualism-collectivism, and assertiveness, power distance, uncertainty avoidance. The choice between people orientation and task orientation is influenced by the national culture's future orientation, gender equality, masculinity-femininity, people orientation dimension, performance orientation associated with it. High uncertainty avoidance also affects this leadership characteristics in some circumstances. Serbian national culture, with its presumptions and beliefs, suggests utilizing an authoritarian, people-oriented style (Janićijević, 2019).

This study's primary goal was to examine how cultural factors affected organizational subcultures and leadership styles in Serbian businesses. The theoretical foundation for analyzing the mentioned organizational phenomena has been drawn from Hofstede's well-recognized study on national cultures. High feminine, high uncertainty avoidance, strong collectivism, high power distance are characteristics of Serbian national culture. In terms of leadership, the survey shows that Serbian businesses clearly prefer an authoritative style of leadership (Dusan, 2004).

This study makes an effort to look at Georgia's cultural aspects and how they affect the dominant leadership style there. The research used Implicit Leadership Theory as its framework. 160 workers across various organizations and professions provided quantitative data. The findings show that Georgians place a high value on the cultural aspects of assertiveness, power distance and in-group collectivism in their culture. Employees in Georgia are able to observe the dominant leadership style, which is similar to authority leadership based on the results of the cultural aspects. According to study, in-group collectivism is more powerful in

workplaces than power distance, assertiveness. As a result, employee orientation variable is greater than anticipated (Tkeshelashvili, 2009).

Managers that work at Malik Ibrahim State Islamic University in Indonesia practice cultural aspects and how these cultural aspects affect their leadership styles are examined in this study. Five cultural aspects and transformative leadership style were the study's variables. In order to identify cultural elements and their effects on transformational leadership style, this study analyzed employees' perceptions about identities of their leaders with a sample size of 90 workers. Uncertainty avoidance, terms of orientation (long-short term), power distance are independent variables that strongly affect the transformational leadership style is used. However, the practice of the transformational leadership style at this university is unaffected by individualism/collectivism and masculinity/femininity variables (Mohamed, 2017).

### CONCLUSIONS

This study provides an overview of link between national culture and leadership styles of managers in organizations. Organizational managers create their own leadership style based on their national culture therefore national culture is significant effect on leadership styles. Managers that have values, beliefs, ideas of collectivist cultures prefer autocratic leadership style however managers that have customs, values, beliefs, ideas of individualist cultures that prefer participative leadership style. Private sector managers that prefer transactional and transformational leadership styles of private sector managers are impacted positively by national culture of Iran. Serbian national culture with its presumptions and beliefs suggests utilizing an authoritarian, people-oriented style. Dominant leadership style is very common within organizations in Georgia and national culture is based on high value of assertiveness, power distance in-group collectivism. Terms of orientation (long-short term), uncertainty avoidance, power distance are independent variables that strongly affect the transformational leadership in Indonesia. In a nutshell, national culture has impact on leadership styles of managers within organizations in various countries. In this context, link between national culture and leadership styles of managers in organizations are indicated based on literature review and future studies must be taken further beyond.

### REFERENCE LIST

[1] Ahn, M. J., Adamson, J. S. A., & Dornbusch, D. (2004). From leaders to leadership:

- Managing change. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 10(4), 112–123.
- [2] Al-Hummadi, B. A. (2013). *Leadership, employee satisfaction and turnover in the UAE Public Sector. The British University in Dubai.*
- [3] Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership.* sage.
- [4] Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional–transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries?. *American psychologist*, 52(2), 130.
- [5] Buckingham, M. (2005). What great managers do. *IEEE Engineering Management Review*, 33(2), 3–10.
- [6] Butar, I. D. B. (2018). National culture and paternalistic leadership: Indonesian business context. *Journal of Business and Entrepreneurship*, 6(2), 58–62.
- [7] Carolina, T. (2019). Dimensions of National Culture–Cross Cultural Theories. *Studies in Business & Economics*, 14(3).
- [8] Carl, D., Gupta, V., Javidan, M., & House, R. J. (2004). Culture, leadership, and organizations: The globe study of 62 societies.
- [9] Chong, L. M. A., & Thomas, D. C. (1997). Leadership perceptions in cross-cultural context: Pakeha and Pacific Islanders in New Zealand. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 8(3), 275–293.
- [10] DeBode, J. D., Haggard, D. L., & Haggard, K. S. (2020). Economic freedom and Hofstede's cultural dimensions. *International Journal of Organization Theory & Behavior*.
- [11] Den Hartog, D. N., House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A., Dorfman, P. W., Abdalla, I. A., Adetoun, B. S., Aditya, R. N., Agourram, H., & Akande, A. (1999). Culture specific and cross-culturally generalizable implicit leadership theories: Are attributes of charismatic/transformational leadership universally endorsed? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 219–256.
- [12] Dorfman, P. W., Hanges, P. J., & Brodbeck, F. C. (2004). Leadership and cultural variation: The identification of culturally endorsed leadership profiles. *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of*, 62(1), 669-719.
- [13] Dusan, M. (2004). The Influence of National Culture on Organizational SubCulture and Leadership. *Serbian National Report for The Project "The Socio-Economic Culture of Eastern Europe in the Enlarge Union: An Asset or a Liability.*
- [14] Geletkanycz, M. A. (1997). The salience of 'culture's consequences': The effects of cultural values on top executive commitment to

- the status quo. *Strategic Management Journal*, 18(8), 615–634.
- [15] Hadgis, N. J. (2006). *Cultural Influences on leadership style: Tourism industry leadership in Nizhny Novgorod, Russia*. Walden University).
- [16] Hampden-Turner, C. M., & Trompenaars, F. (2008). *Building cross-cultural competence: How to create wealth from conflicting values*. Yale University Press.
- [17] Hampden-Turner, C., & Trompenaars, A. (1993). *The seven cultures of capitalism: Value systems for creating wealth in the United States, Japan, Germany, France, Britain, Sweden, and the Netherlands*. Broadway Business.
- [18] Hofstede, G. (1980a). Motivation, leadership and organization Do American theories applied abroad. *Organizational Dynamics*, 9, 42–63.
- [19] Hofstede, G. (1980b). Culture and organizations. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 10(4), 15–41.
- [20] Hofstede, G. (1983). The cultural relativity of organizational practices and theories. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 14(2), 75–89.
- [21] Hofstede, G. (1984). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values* (Vol. 5). Sage.
- [22] Hofstede, G. (1991). *Empirical models of cultural differences*.
- [23] Hofstede, G. (1993). Cultural constraints in management theories. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 7(1), 81–94.
- [24] Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations*. Sage publications.
- [25] Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind: Intercultural Cooperation and Its Importance for Survival* (2.). McGraw-Hill.
- [26] Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2005). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind* (Vol. 2). McGraw-hill New York.
- [27] Hofstede, G. J. (2000). Organizational culture: siren or sea cow? A reply to Dianne Lewis. *Strategic Change*, 9(2), 135–137.
- [28] Hofstede, G., & Minkov, M. (2010). Long-versus short-term orientation: new perspectives. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 16(4), 493–504.
- [29] House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Sage publications.
- [30] House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A., Dorfman, P. W., Javidan, M., Dickson, M., & Gupta, V. (1999). Cultural influences on leadership and organizations: Project GLOBE. *Advances in Global Leadership*, 1.
- [31] House, R., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., & Dorfman, P. (2002). Understanding cultures and implicit leadership theories across the globe: an introduction to project GLOBE. *Journal of World Business*, 37(1), 3–10.
- [32] House, R. J., Wright, N. S., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). Cross-cultural research on organizational leadership: A critical analysis and a proposed theory.
- [33] Jaeger, A. M. (1986). Organization development and national culture: Where's the fit? *Academy of Management Review*, 11(1), 178–190.
- [34] Jančićević, N. (2013). The Impact of National Culture on Organizational Learning and Knowledge Management. *ECONOM ONOMIC THEME*, 251.
- [35] Jančićević, N. (2019). The impact of national culture on leadership. *Economic Themes*, 57(2), 127–144.
- [36] Javidan, M., House, R. J., Dorfman, P. W., Hanges, P. J., & Sully de Luque, M. (2006). Conceptualizing and measuring cultures and their consequences: a comparative review of GLOBE's and Hofstede's approaches. *Journal of international business studies*, 37(6), 897–914.
- [37] Javidan, M., & Lynton, N. (2005). The changing face of the Chinese executive. *Harvard Business Review*, 83(12), 28–30.
- [38] Khan, M. A., & Law, L. S. (2018). The role of national cultures in shaping the corporate management cultures: A three-country theoretical analysis. In *Organizational Culture*. IntechOpen.
- [39] Kluckhohn, C. (1951). Values and value orientations in the theory of action/Kluckhohn C. *Toward a general theory of action/Ed. by T. Parsons, E. Shils*, 231–237.
- [40] Kluckhohn, F. R., & Strodtbeck, F. L. (1961). Variations in value orientations.
- [41] Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review*, 98(2), 224.
- [42] Meyer, E. (2014). *The culture map: Breaking through the invisible boundaries of global business*. Public Affairs.
- [43] Mohamed, A. A. (2017). Exploring Cultural Dimension and Its Impact on Transformational Leadership Style in Indonesia (A Study at State Islamic University of Maulana Malik Ibrahim-Malang). *The International Journal of Accounting and Business Society*, 24(2), 1–12.
- [44] Moon, D. G. (1996). Concepts of “culture”: Implications for intercultural communication

- research. *Communication Quarterly*, 44(1), 70–84.
- [45] Nazarian, A., & Atkinson, P. (2013). Impact of culture on leadership style: The case of Iranian organizations. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 28(6), 770–777.
- [46] Newman, K. L., & Nollen, S. D. (1996). Culture and congruence: The fit between management practices and national culture. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 27(4), 753–779.
- [47] Northouse, P. G. (2007). Culture and leadership. *Leadership: Theory and Practice*, 4, 301–340.
- [48] Northouse, P. G. (2021). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Sage publications.
- [49] Randolph, W. A., & Sashkin, M. (2002). Can organizational empowerment work in multinational settings? *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 16(1), 102–115.
- [50] Scandura, T., & Dorfman, P. (2004). Leadership research in an international and cross-cultural context. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(2), 277–307.
- [51] Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational culture and leadership* (Vol. 2). John Wiley & Sons.
- [52] Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. In *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 25, pp. 1–65). Elsevier.
- [53] Schwartz, S. H. (1999). A theory of cultural values and some implications for work. *Applied Psychology*, 48(1), 23–47.
- [54] Shahin, A. I., & Wright, P. L. (2004). Leadership in the context of culture: An Egyptian perspective. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*.
- [55] Shaw, W. P. (1990). *The organizational cultures and principals' leadership behaviors in three academically dissimilar middle schools*. Texas A&M University.
- [56] Shi, X., & Wang, J. (2011). Interpreting Hofstede model and GLOBE model: which way to go for cross-cultural research? *International Journal of Business and Management*, 6(5), 93.
- [57] Thomas, D. C. (2008). *Cross-Cultural Management: Essential Concepts* (2nd ed.). Sage Publications.
- [58] Tkeshelashvili, N. (2009). The effects of culture on the leadership style in Georgia. *IBSU Scientific Journal (IBSUSJ)*, 3(2), 115–129.
- [59] Triandis, H. C. (1989). The self and social behavior in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review*, 96(3), 506.
- [60] Uusiniitty, J. (2012). *Cross-Cultural differences of leaders: The Perception of the Chinese Working in Finland*.
- [61] Vaklbashi, A., Ismail, W. K. B. W., & Mokhber, M. (2014). The interactions between culture, global mindset and leadership in global context. *Journal of Social Economics Research*, 1(8), 191–197.
- [62] Van Oudenhoven, J. P. (2001). Do organizations reflect national cultures? A 10-nation study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 25(1), 89–107.
- [63] Wursten, H., Lanzer, F., & Fadrhonc, T. (2014). How to improve efficiency in your HR capital. *Itim International*.
- [64] Yan, J., & Hunt, J. G. J. (2005). A cross cultural perspective on perceived leadership effectiveness. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 5(1), 49–66.
- [65] Yukl, G. A. (2013). *Leadership in Organizations Global Edition* (8th Edition). Prentice-Hall.
- [66] Yukl, G. (2006). *Leadership in organizations* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson-Prentice Hall.