

THE MODERATING EFFECTS OF CULTURE ON THE
RELATIONSHIP OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND
AFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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Abstract

Due to increasing global competition and demographic shifts, companies seek ways of attracting and cultivating relationships with valuable talent. Therefore, affective organizational commitment, as a predictor for long-term relationships with a company, experienced a renewed focus from practitioners and scholars alike. This thesis aims to add more insights to this area of interest by providing an investigation of the moderating effects of the cultural dimension masculinity/femininity on the relationship between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment. For this, 915 questionnaires of an employee engagement survey of a Life-Sciences company, provided by Mercer Sirota, have first been split into two groups, based on their country of origin's masculinity score. Then, they were analyzed using linear regression. Despite the limited explanatory power of the tested model, H0 was rejected. The small but existing differences between masculine and feminine cultures may result from divergent value expectations in masculine and feminine societies. The study, however, faced some severe limitations due to the nature of the data. Therefore, it is recommended for future researchers to replicate this study with primary data, focusing more on the individual's values rather on country-level cultural values. For companies and managers, potential lies in reviewing their HR practices, specifically recruitment, selection and onboarding and train their employees in intercultural sensitivity.

Keywords: Transformational Leadership, Affective Organizational Commitment, Masculinity/Femininity, Cross-Cultural Management

Classification according to JEL Classification System:

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Abstract (in Portuguese)

Devido à crescente competição a nível global e a alterações demográficas, as empresas procuram formas de atrair e formar relações com talento de alto valor acrescentado. O compromisso organizacional afetivo como preditor de relações a longo prazo com uma empresa tem sido alvo de um foco renovado de atenção quer por profissionais como por académicos. Esta tese procura trazer novos contributos para esta área de interesse ao fornecer uma investigação sobre os efeitos moderadores da masculinidade como dimensão cultural na relação entre liderança transformacional e compromisso organizacional afetivo. Para o efeito, 915 questionários de um inquérito sobre o envolvimento dos colaboradores na empresa Life-Sciences, providenciado pela Mercer Sirota, foram inicialmente divididos em dois grupos, com base no índice de masculinidade do seu país de origem. Consequentemente, estes foram analisados usando regressão linear. Ainda que a significância do modelo testado fosse limitada, H_0 foi rejeitada. As diferenças, ainda que ligeiras, existentes entre culturas masculinas e femininas podem ser o resultado de expectativas a nível de valores divergentes em sociedades masculinas e femininas. No entanto, este estudo sofreu de várias limitações de alguma magnitude devido à natureza dos dados. Como tal, é recomendado que investigadores no futuro repliquem este estudo com dados primários, focando-se mais nos valores dos indivíduos do que em valores culturais a nível de país. Para empresas e gestores, será proveitoso rever as suas práticas de RH, nomeadamente recrutamento, seleção e integração, e formar os seus colaboradores em sensibilidade intercultural.

Keywords: Liderança Transformacional. Comprometimento Organizacional; Masculinidade/ Feminilidade, Gestao Cross-Cultural

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Introduction and Relevance of Topic

In an unpredictable world, staying competitive becomes increasingly difficult for organizations. Due to demographic shifts, continued globalization and increasing global competitions, companies are forced to explore innovative ways of attracting, and most importantly, retaining valuable talent. Researchers have chosen organizational commitment as an insightful predictor of stable and long-term relationships of employees and their companies (Korek *et al.*, 2017). For practitioners, the topic is of equal relevance. This is reflected by the increased attention to the topic in renowned management magazines and publications. The Association for Talent Development (ATD), for example, published a bulletin from Pangarkar and Kirkwood (2013) with the title “Four Ways to Gain Employees Commitment” in which they commented that

“Employee engagement is the holy grail for every business leader. It’s described in a variety of ways but generally defined as when employees fully invest emotionally, mentally, and physically so they focus on achieving the organization’s objectives” (para. 1).

Furthermore, a Gallup study in 2014 found that only three out of ten employees felt engaged and committed to their organization (Sorenson, 2014). Additionally, the article titled “Engage Your Employees or Lose Billions” has been published in Forbes Magazine in which Alvino (2014) explains the relation between favorable work behaviors and organizational commitment.

What is more, companies not only start to focus on commitment to increase their profitability, but also because they consider the focus on their employees’ well-being necessary. William Davies (2015) described in his “The Atlantic” article “All the Happy Workers” the societal need for emotionally committed and happy workers by stating “...this is the monistic philosophy of the 21st-century manager: Each worker can become better, in body, mind, and output” (para. 45).

Another important aspect is, that the fragmentation of the literature has been lamented by Human Resource Directors and Organizational Development scholars alike and calls for further research on the matter (Meyer *et al.*, 2002).

This enforced focus on commitment by companies, combined with the development of HR practices targeting employee well-being and the fragmentation of the organizational commitment literature call for a review of the concept of commitment. Furthermore, increased

globalization calls for research into commitment in the context of multicultural business settings. To manage corporations of size, some members of these organizations are expected to show the way- leaders. These leaders face similar challenges all around the globe, one of these being the question on how to foster organizational commitment in multinational corporations. Thus, the aim of this paper is to provide future directions for business professionals and researchers alike on how to increase affective organizational commitment in multinational corporations, focusing on the employees' perspective.

To achieve this, the work will provide a modern summary of commitment and leadership literature within the context of cross-cultural management and analyze the relation between these factors.

In the first chapter of this paper, the theoretical groundwork will be laid for the concepts of organizational commitment, transformational leadership and culture, which will allow the formulation of the hypothesis. The second chapter will describe the methodology used to investigate the stated hypothesis. In particular, the data gathering process is described, which was thankfully supported by Mercer Sirota. In the third chapter the results of the analysis will be presented and discussed. Furthermore, the limitations of this study as well as future research directions and practical implications will be postulated. Finally, the last chapter will summarize the insights that were gained throughout the paper.

Theoretical Background

In the following chapters, the main concepts investigated in this paper, namely commitment, transformational leadership and culture, will be defined and set into context with each other.

Conceptualization of Commitment

Although studied for decades, it is difficult to synthesize the diverse findings in the field of organizational commitment. Being a focus of several, diverse disciplines, e.g. psychology, sociology and management, organizational commitment remains a concept which is fragmented, incomplete and partly contradictive in its definition and measurements (Mercurio, 2015).

Broadly speaking, commitment describes the connection that an employee feels with their organization, the identification with the values and goals of the organization as well as the perceived employee-organization fit. At present, Herscovitch and Meyer's (2002) definition of the concept seems to be the most widely accepted. According to Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) organizational commitment is a stabilizing force that gives direction to behavior. It is a mindset that can take different forms and binds an individual to a course of action that is of relevance to a target. There is a clear distinction possible between exchange-based forms of motivation and commitment, which can even influence an employee's behavior in the absence of extrinsic stimuli.

Concerning the conceptualization of commitment, Mowdays at al. (1982) work, lay the groundwork for further advancements in the highly fragmented field, by focusing on attitudinal and behavioral commitment, which is since established in the literature. Mowdays at al. (1982) offer the following definition of attitudinal commitment, which will be the relevant concept for this paper:

Attitudinal commitment focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization. In many ways it can be thought of as a mindset in which individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of the organization.

Meyer and Allen (1990) however theorized that attitudinal and behavioral commitment may influence each other rather than being two mutually exclusive perspectives. As a matter of fact,

Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested to not view these seemingly controversial theories as types of commitment but as components of the concept. Based on Meyer and Allen's work, numerous researchers reviewed the existing theoretical frameworks and proposed multidimensional models that define commitment as nuanced, with coinciding bases and meanings that integrate the before mentioned theories and concepts (Jaros *et al.*, 1993). Furthermore, Meyer and Allen (1991) established consensus in the scientific community as to that organizational commitment is a multifaceted construct (Meyer and Allen, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1991). Confirmatory factor analyses have generally supported their hypothesis. (e.g., (Dunham, Grube, and Castañeda, 1994; Meyer, Allen, and Gellatly, 1990).

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), three major concepts can be distinguished:

Affective commitment: *Affective commitment can be defined as the emotional attachment to an organization as manifested by an individual's identification with, and involvement in, that organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991).*

Normative commitment: *Through the internalization of values and norms by the individual, a psychological state arises in which an obligation towards the organization can develop. It motivates the individual to reciprocate certain benefits and positive attributes to an organization. (Meyer and Allen, 1991).*

Continuance commitment: *In this form of commitment, the focus clearly lies on a transactional point of view. This form of commitment arises if an individual is lacking reasonable alternatives to the current engagement with their organization. Furthermore, it can be a result of fear for losing the investment of cost and time into the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Balfour and Wechsler (1996) theorized that this form of commitment could even stem directly from the "exchange" with the organization through rewards.*

It is important to highlight that Meyer and Allen (1991) considered affective commitment (the desire to remain in the organization), continuance commitment (the need to remain in the organization), and normative commitment (the obligation to remain in the organization) as interrelated and emphasized the fact that they can occur simultaneously within an individual.

In figure 1, Meyer and Allen's work (1991) depicts the three concepts that make up organizational commitment, as well as potential antecedents and consequences.

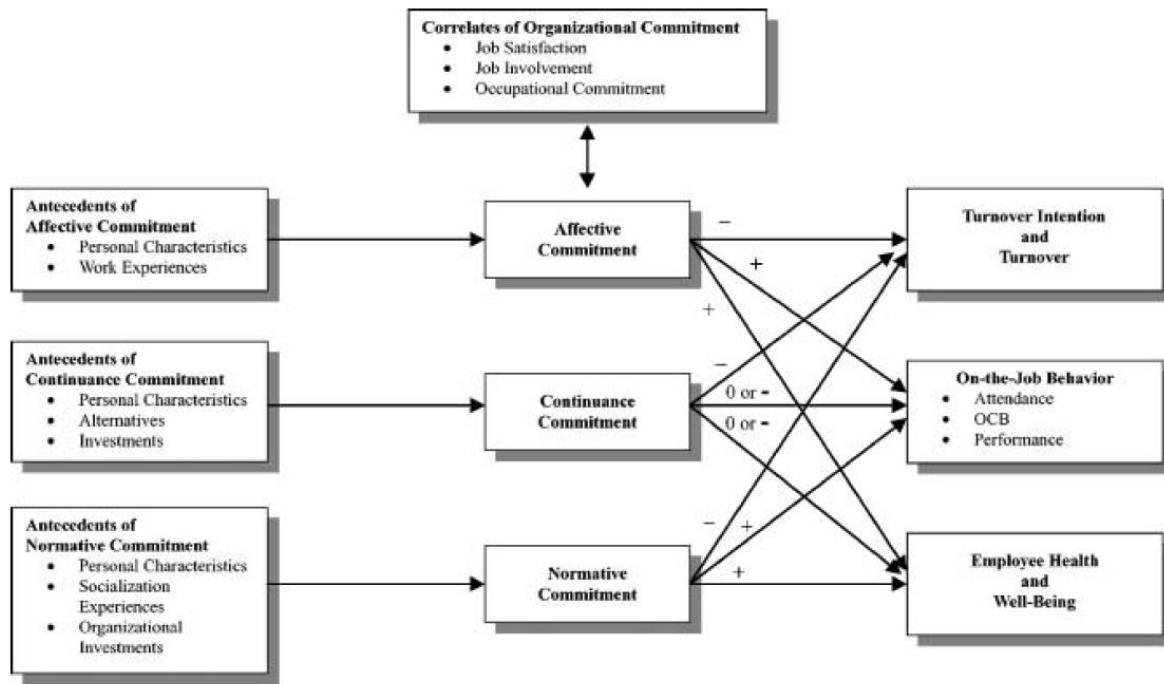


Figure 1: Meyer et al. (1991)

Focus on Affective Commitment

In 2002, Meyer and Herscovitch consolidated the existing literature around the concept of organizational commitment and asked future researchers to define the essence of organizational commitment. In the following research, which is still far from conclusive, affective commitment was found to have the strongest correlation with relevant business variables. (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005; Meyer *et al.*, 2002). According to Solinger *et al.* (2008), affective commitment also correlated with a broader variety of favorable behavioral variables such as information sharing, support of co-workers and working additional hours.

Mercurio (2015) wrote that "affective commitment was found to be an enduring, demonstrably indispensable, and central characteristic of organizational commitment". These findings lead to the conclusion that Reaffective commitment bears the potential to be the core of commitment and is of utmost importance to scholars and business professionals.

What Is Affective Organizational Commitment – Definition

Affective commitment is a term used to describe an employee's emotional attachment towards an organization.

Sheldon (1971) defined affective commitment as an

“attitude or orientation toward an organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization”.

For Buchanan (1974) commitment is a

“partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth” (p.533)

Mowday, Porter (1982) and their team theorized commitment to be

“the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization.” (Mowday et al. 1979)

Jaros *et al.* (1993) defined affective commitment as

“the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, pleasure, and so on” (p. 954).

Eventually, Meyer and Herscovitch (2002) concluded that affective commitment is the intrinsic motivation or involvement of individuals in a course of action “that develops from an identification, association, and attachment with the larger organization’s values and objectives.” They describe the defining mindset of affective commitment to be desire – individuals want to pursue goals of relevance for the organization, if they are strongly, affectively committed (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2002).

Meyer and Allen (1991) define job satisfaction, job involvement, and occupational commitment as correlates of organizational commitment, meaning that although the concepts are correlated and similar due to their “affective” nature, they are distinguishable from affective organizational commitment. Meyer *et al.* (2002), proposed that, although the correlations prove to be strong, they are not of sufficient magnitude to suggest construct redundancy.

Furthermore, organizational commitment is distinguishable from employee engagement, as engagement describes the perception regarding the work itself whereas in organizational commitment, the organization is considered as a whole Christian *et al.* (2011). According to Macey and Schneider (2008) organizational commitment could be a facet of engagement through the emotional attachment to the organization represented by affective commitment

results in willingness support to the organization, to identify with the organization and feel pride to be part of the company.

Antecedents of Affective Organizational Commitment

The question remains, which antecedents lead to organizational commitment. Meyer *et al.* (2002), grouped the primary antecedents in four groups: demographic variables, individual differences, work experiences, and alternatives/investments.

On an individual level, demographic variables such as age, gender, education and tenure show an overall low correlation. Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) proposed that any situational or personal variable which contributes to the individual becoming more involved in a course of action, the identification with the organization and the derived association with a company enforces the likelihood of affective organizational commitment.

Furthermore, in terms of individual difference variables, while task self-efficacy had a low but positive correlation ($\rho = .11$), external locus of control had a negative correlation with affective commitment ($\rho = -.29$) (Meyer *et al.*, 2002)

For work experience, organizational support, transformational leadership, role ambiguity, role conflict as well as aspects of justice were measured. They generally showed the strongest correlations with affective commitment, with transformational leadership showing a correlation of ($\rho = .46$) (Meyer *et al.*, 2002).

In terms of alternatives/investment, only minor correlations with affective commitment have been found (Meyer *et al.*, 2002).

In further studies, Bartlett (2001) found that employees' perception of access and involvement in organizational practices seem to have a positive effect on an individual's affective commitment. Moreover, Bartlett (2001) found perceived access to training to strongly correlate with commitment. Similarly, Vance (2006) proposed training and development to be crucial factors for the development of commitment as they foster employees' self-efficacy and self-esteem.

Socialization, high-commitment HR practices and strong interpersonal relationships at the workplace also seem to positively correlate to the development of affective organizational commitment (Morrow, 2011).

Consequences of Affective Organizational Commitment

As aforementioned, affective commitment is the most vital component of commitment as it correlates the strongest with desired business outcomes.

The most obvious relation of variables is the impact of commitment on turnover intentions. Not only does affective commitment have a significant negative impact on turnover (Albrecht and Andreetta, 2011; Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005; Meyer *et al.*, 2002), it is also the most correlative as a distinguished construct compared to normative and continuance commitment. (Solinger *et al.*, 2008). This relation can already be observed at early engagement stages as, according to Porter *et al.* (1976), employees in the absence of a positive impression of the company in the first week of employment were more likely to leave the organization. On a similar note, affective commitment may lead to lower absenteeism rates, even though so far the correlations have been weaker than those of turnover intentions. (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 2013; Solinger *et al.*, 2008)

In his meta-analysis Solinger *et al.* (2008) supported previous findings (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005; Meyer *et al.*, 2002) that showed affective commitment, in comparison to continuance and normative commitment, to have a stronger predictive relationship with performance (affective = .16, normative = .06, continuance = $-.07$) and organizational citizenship behaviors (affective = .32, normative = .24, continuance = $-.01$).

In terms of out-of-role behavior, employees with a high level of commitment show increased levels of engagement and extra effort, beyond their role. (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005; Meyer *et al.*, 2002). Additionally, affective organizational commitment studies postulate a positive correlation, as well as a predictive relationship, with organizational citizenship behaviors (Meyer *et al.*, 2002).

Previously, research on organizational commitment focused primarily on business related outcomes, relevant to the employer. However, an increasing number of researchers now focus on employee-centric outcomes such as stress, family-work conflict and health. Still, there is considerable disagreement on the effect of affective commitment on these variables. (Schmidt, 2007). Begley and Czajka (1993) argue that commitment may act as a buffer of work stressors on the employee's well-being, which was later further investigated by Schmidt (2007), who confirmed that affective commitment may have a positive impact on work stress by decreasing feelings of emotional exhaustion and burnout. Reilly (1994) argues that the opposite might be

the case in that committed employees could experience more severe reactions to stress than non-committed employees.

In conclusion, commitment can be described as a mindset that binds an individual to a chosen course of action that is of relevance to a target, in this case an organization. The most relevant of the three commitment dimensions is affective organizational commitment, the emotional attachment to an organization, as it correlates the most with desired business outcomes such as reduced turnover, higher performance, lower stress-levels for employees and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). Furthermore, affective commitment shows a strong relation with four primary antecedents, whereby transformational leadership, from the group of work experience antecedents, has the strongest correlation overall.

Conceptualization of Leadership

Transactional versus Transformational Leadership

Leaders no longer represent a collection of “traits” as the Universalist paradigm would suggest. Neither are they seen as executors of specific, situationally appropriate behavior as suggested by the Behavioral paradigm. The focus on charismatic and transformational leadership led to a new school of thought regarding leadership. Today, leaders embody change agents who apply a combination of various influence mechanisms to transform their followers into inspired, motivated and energized employees and teams (Day, 2014). According to Judge and Piccolo (2004), a search of keywords in scholarly materials 1990 to 2003 in the PsycINFO database revealed that there have been more studies on transformational and charismatic leadership than on all other popular theories of leadership combined.

The first to introduce the concepts of transactional and transformational leadership was Burns in 1978. He identified the difference between transactional and transformational leadership to be what followers and leaders offer one another, which has since been supported and refined by numerous researchers:

Transformational leaders go beyond short-term goals. They offer their employees a purpose and concentrate on higher order intrinsic needs (Kuhnert and Lewis, 1987). In transformational leadership, the creation of meaningful work and challenging tasks, the extension of the decision latitude, the enlarged job control, and empowerment are in focus (Avolio *et al.*, 2004; Bass, 1990).

On the contrary, for transactional leadership, the exchange or the promise of rewards for good and threat for poor performance characterizes effective leadership (Bass, 1990).

However, Bass (1985) argued against Burns’ theory that transactional and transformational leadership represent opposite ends of a single continuum. He considered them as separate concepts and highlighted that the best leaders show both, transactional as well as transformational behavior. Furthermore, he elaborated that the two concepts might even augment each other (Bass and Avolio, 1993, p. 69), which so far has not been sufficiently tested. Bass (1998) formulated this augmentation effect as the degree to which “transformational leadership styles build on the transactional base in contributing to the extra effort and performance of followers” (p. 5). Howell and Avolio (1993) support this point of view, arguing

that transformational leadership is complementing transactional leadership. In general, transformational leadership is seen as moving beyond transactions in order to improve followers' performance and satisfaction by influencing their needs and values (Bass, 1999). Therefore, in this paper, the focus will lie on transformational leadership.

Definition of Transformational Leadership

Over the years of research, there have been several possible definitions as to what transformational leadership is.

According to Bennis and Nanus (1986), transformational leaders have a clear vision of the future of their company, are social architects who mobilize their followers to identify with the group and the organization, create trust within their organization and are capable of creatively deploying themselves.

Kouzes and Posner (2012) characterized a transformational leader as someone who is capable of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act and encouraging the heart.

Additionally, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) identified articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering acceptance of group goals, elevated expectations in performance, providing individual support and individual consideration to be the essence of transformational leadership.

According to Bass (1990a), transformational leaders elevate and broaden their employees' interest in and acceptance of the organizational purpose and mission. They motivate individuals to look beyond their self-interest in favor of the benefit of the group.

Until today, the most widely spread and accepted conceptualization of transformational leadership is the one of Bass (1999). According to Bass (1999), transformational leadership behavior is characterized by four concepts: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

Intellectual Stimulation

According to Bass and Avolio (1997), to intellectually stimulate their employees, leaders motivate them to look at old problems in a new way by increasing the followers' autonomy, competency and accountability. This assignment of a novel, challenging task forces the followers to find new approaches and appropriate strategies as well as to show effort. (Korek

et al., 2017). Through the delegation of important tasks, they force their followers to “stretch” to grow beyond their role and develop leadership potential themselves. (Bass and Riggio, 2006)

Furthermore, Intellectual Stimulation also describes the extent to which a leader is risk taking, challenges assumptions and solicits creativity in their followers. (Judge and Piccolo, 2004) To enable their followers to be more innovative, leaders convey to their followers that they are empowered and trusted (Bass and Riggio, 2006).

Individual Consideration

Individualized consideration describes the degree to which a leader acknowledges and attends to the differences among their employee’s needs. They usually act as mentors or coaches to enhance the employee’s abilities, knowledge and enable them to grow and develop (Bass, 1990).

Furthermore, the leader provides support and guidance with the results of not only helping their employees thrive, but also improving their performance, potential and leadership capacity. (Judge and Piccolo, 2004)

Idealized Influence

Idealized influence represents the admirable behavior of a leader that causes followers to identify with the leader. The leader serves as a positive role model for followers and displays conviction, stands for their conviction and appeals to the follower’s emotions. (Bass, 1990; Judge and Piccolo, 2004)

With idealized influence comes great power and influence, as employees identify with and trust in the leader. Through setting high moral standards and establishing ethical codes of conduct, the leaders gain respect and trust from their followers. The leaders excite and inspire their followers by showing them a sense of purpose and persuades them to let go of self-interest in favor of collective goals. Furthermore, they convey the idea that the employees are capable of accomplishing great things with extra effort. (Bass, 1998; Bass and Riggio, 2006)

Inspirational Motivation

Inspirational motivation is the degree to which a leader can communicate an inspiring and appealing vision to their followers. These leaders articulate ambitious standards for performance and confidence about goal-attainment whilst actively highlighting the follower’s role in achieving these results. Inspirationally motivating leaders provide meaning for their tasks and encourage their employees to find innovative solutions to upcoming problems. (Judge

and Piccolo, 2004) Recent studies by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) and Purvanova *et al.* (2006) support this rationale further.

Charismatic and Transformational Leadership

Combined, Individual Influence and Inspirational Motivation best represent the concept of a leader's charisma. (Bass and Riggio, 2006). In fact, there seems to be "little real difference" (Conger and Kanungo, 1998, p. 15) between charismatic and transformational leadership. Charismatic leaders achieve transformational effects through the alignment of the follower's self-concept. According to Shamir *et al.* (1993), they "increase the intrinsic value of effort and goals by linking them to valued aspects of the follower's self-concept, thus harnessing the motivational forces self-expression, self-consistency, self-esteem and self-worth". In his earlier work, Bass (1985) highlighted that, although being an integral aspect of transformational leadership, charisma was insufficient to "account for the transformational process", it is important to emphasize, that the charisma dimensions clearly have the most influence of the four transformational dimensions and show the strongest correlation with the outcome variables (Conger and Kanungo, 1998, p. 15).

This correlation appears to be mediated through two psychological processes: personal identification and value internalization.

Firstly, followers perceive their transformational or charismatic leader to have extraordinary qualities, which they tend to idolize and emulate psychologically as well as behaviorally. (Conger, 1989) Psychologically, they often adopt the same ideals, morals and value systems as their leader. In terms of behavior, they tend to imitate desirable behaviors that they see their leader perform to earn the leader's approval. (Shamir *et al.*, 1993) According to Lindholm (1988), this identification with the leader results in a sense of empowerment and positive energy for the follower. This stems from the process of transference through which employees often try to compensate for imperfect value systems, unfulfilled desires or a fractured self-perception. The leader seems to represent a walking example of what the employee seems to lack or want. (Kets DeVries, 1988).

Secondly, transformational leaders tend to use ideological explanations and heroic, inspiring visions. By internalizing the inherent values, ideals and goals, the followers make them part of themselves and "come to view their work role as inseparably linked to their self-concept and self-worth" and "carry out the role because it is a part of their essential nature and destiny".

(Yukl, 2006) On an operational level, this means that the followers perceive the assigned task as their own (Day, 2014).

The question remains, why and how certain leaders are perceived as charismatic. Bono and Judge (2003) judge investigated in their meta-analysis, the leaders' personality and found that neuroticism had a negative and extraversion a positive correlation to charisma-related dimensions (Bono and Judge, 2004). Furthermore, Bass and Riggio (2006) associated self-confidence, openness to experience, resilience and dominance with transformational leadership. However, Conger and Kanungo (1987, 1998) argue that "charisma lies in the eye of the beholder", or in other words, the origin of a leader's charisma lies in the attributions that followers make which depend on the leader's behavior, their competence, the ability to manage problems and contextual characteristics. Therefore, self-sacrifices and acting in unconventional ways to achieve the common vision and the benefit for the team not only help to earn the followers trust but also their admiration (Conger and Kanungo, 1987, 1998). Often, the shared vision is rather radical and even denounces the status quo in favor of a better future, which displays the leader's confidence in his or herself and their follower's capabilities (Day, 2014). Additionally, highly developed social and interpersonal skills oftentimes result in leaders being called "charismatic". Especially skills in nonverbal and emotional communication enable the leader to form an emotional bond with their followers. (Riggio, 1987)

Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Transformational leadership has numerous, desirable consequences for the organization as well as its employees. More precisely, leadership appears to be a significant predictor of affective organizational commitment (Korek *et al.*, 2017).

Numerous studies investigated the effect of transformational leadership on organizational commitment and identified meaningful work (Korek *et al.* 2017), job satisfaction (Brown and Keeping, 2005), empowerment and development (Avolio *et al.*, 2004) as well as high team cohesion (Pillai and Williams, 2004), and collective self-efficacy (Bass and Riggio 2006) as mediators and moderators of the relation between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment.

Meaningful Work

According to Arnold *et al.* (2007), perception of purpose in the work of employees correlated with transformational leadership behavior of their supervisor. Korek *et al.* (2017) argue that

meaningful work, knowledge about the relevance of one's task as well as the awareness about one's contribution to the company's goals should reciprocate with extra effort, an enhanced feeling of belonging, a strengthening of the emotional bond and eventually increased affective organizational commitment.

Satisfaction

Bass (1999) postulated that followers of transformational leaders ought to be more satisfied with their leaders and subsequently with their jobs as a whole. Since this publication, numerous researchers were able to validate this assumption (Ross and Offerman, 1997; Gang Wang *et al.*, 2011, Judge and Piccolo, 2004). In fact, Judge and Piccolo (2004) found that transformational leadership appeared to have a stronger relation with follower satisfaction and motivation than with job performance. However, despite being weaker than satisfaction, also job performance appeared to have a positive relation to transformational leadership on an individual, team and organizational level (Gang Wang *et al.*, 2011).

Empowerment

Through mentoring processes, career guidance, appropriate training opportunities and challenging task assignments the transformational leader enhances the follower's leadership ability, self-esteem and sense of empowerment. (Sosik *et al.*, 2004) These factors support the development of affective commitment towards the organization (Vance, 2006)

Team Cohesion

In a team, all group members should be exposed to the same leadership behavior and therefore perceive group-directed activities in a similar way. Furthermore, social interactions within the group further enforce this homogeneity of perceptions with regard to leadership behavior. This cohesion is a prerequisite to conceptualize transformational leadership on the group level and serves as proxy for the team climate. (James *et al.*, 2008). According to Korek *et al.* (2017), this group-level leadership tends to increase the emotional attachment, identification, sense of belonging and feeling of collective efficacy of an employee. Therefore, Cole and Bedeian (2007) postulated transformational leadership to moderate work commitment on a cross-level.

Collective Self-Efficacy

Through their ability to cognitively reframe potentially stressful situations as challenges, transformational leaders achieve higher levels of intrinsic motivation from their followers and enhance their collective sense of efficacy (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Through this, followers tend

to react less negatively to demanding situations and additionally report lower levels of stress and burn out (Seltzer *et al.*, 1989).

To sum up, transformational leadership appears to be the most widely recognized and impactful theory in management literature. Transformational leaders inspire their employees to follow their ambitious vision for the future, motivate them intrinsically, challenge them on an intellectual level and consider their followers' individual needs. Charisma, which is an integral part of transformational leadership, makes the employee identify with the leader, mimic their behavior and internalize the leader's values. This in turn has positive effects on how a follower perceives his or her working environment and consequently leads the employees to develop a strong emotional bond with the leader and the company. This relationship appears to be stronger or weaker, based on the personality of the individual follower, which is a product of an individual's context, experiences, and demographic factors such as culture.

Conceptualization of Culture

Definition and Importance of Culture

Every person has his or her unique experiences, interests and personality. Nevertheless, we share some basic needs, as group animals need contact, closeness and group affiliation. Through our interactions, we define the unwritten rules on how to be a good member of the group and how the group is different from another, which is commonly referred to as culture. (Hofstede, n.d.).

This fact bears important consequences for how businesses are managed and more importantly, the practices that are applied to steer them. In 1980, Hofstede stated that cultural values relate to the beliefs of nations and the aggregate management practices. Newman and Nollen confirmed this contention in 1996 when investigating the fit between national culture and management practices in 176 work units of a US-based multinational located in 16 European and Asian countries. Their results showed that being culturally sensitive lead to higher return on assets, sales and in some cases higher bonuses. These findings were supported by more recent studies in Mexico, Poland and the US. (Robert *et al.*, 2000)

On the other hand, Kirkman and Shapiro (2001) argue, in their yet to be tested model, that rather than impacting organizational outcomes directly, cultural values might create resistance to management practices which in turn lead to negative organizational implications.

Regardless of the actual lever, business professionals and scholars agree that culture is a relevant concept to explore. In 1970, Roberts rightfully claimed that more advancement in the field of culture, its definition and concept, is needed to further cross-cultural management and numerous researchers have taken up the cause (Roberts, (1970)).

In her own definition, Roberts (1970), described culture as the

“shared norms and values that bind together members of a society or organization as a homogeneous entity”

According to Hofstede (1980a, 25) culture is the

“collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another”

Erez (1994) and later Ashkanasy and Jackson (2002) refer to culture as

“a set of shared core values, norms, and modes of action”.

Furthermore, House, Wright and Aditya (1997) highlighted the

“shared affective, attitudinal, and behavioral orientations of culture”

In their work, Kirkman *et al.* (2017) combined firstly the psychological view of culture, which resides within individuals and is represented by the “beliefs, values, assumptions and behaviors that people in a society or organization share” (M. H. Bond, 2004) with secondly, the contextual view of culture, which resides outside of individuals and is the “hypothetical, latent, normative value system that underlies and justifies the functioning of societal institutions” (Schwartz, 2014).

Up until today, most definitions of culture base themselves, at least partly, on the work of Hofstede (1980b) who dominated the cross-cultural research over the last 35 years with a value-based approach and measures. To put it into perspective, the Social Science Citations Index shows that Hofstede’s work has been cited 1,800 times since 1999 and is therefore way more widely cited than others (Hofstede, 2001). Even Trompenaar (1993), who published a competing framework, acknowledges Hofstede’s immense impact on the cross-cultural management practice. Furthermore, according to Smith and Bond (1996) as well as Kirkman *et al.* (2006), large-scale studies published following Hofstede’s work “have sustained and amplified [Hofstede’s] conclusions rather than contradicted them.” Moreover, Kirkman *et al.*’s (2006) review indicates that Hofstede’s framework was used by researchers to choose different countries of different cultures to increase variance, and that most of these predicted differences by Hofstede were supported. These findings show evidently the relevance of Hofstede’s values for cross-cultural research.

It has to be highlighted though that Hofstede’s work has been criticized by several researchers for the over-simplification of culture through its reduction to five dimensions, the neglect of the changes of culture over time and the differences between individuals within the culture (Sivakumar and Nakata, 2001).

However, despite the publication of competing dimensions (e.g. Dorfman and Howell, 1988; Trompenaar, 1993, House *et al.* 2004; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2014) and the mentioned limitations, researchers favored the Hofstede’s five-dimension framework because of its clarity, simplicity and resonance with business professionals (Kirkman *et al.*, 2006).

Cultural Dimensions

The anthropologists Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) argued in his article that there ought to be universal dimensions of culture:

In principle ... there is a generalized framework that underlies the more apparent and striking facts of cultural relativity. All cultures constitute so many somewhat distinct answers to essentially the same questions posed by human biology and by the generalities of the human situation. ... Every society's patterns for living must provide approved and sanctioned ways for dealing with such universal circumstances as the existence of two sexes; the helplessness of infants; the need for satisfaction of the elementary biological requirements such as food, warmth, and sex; the presence of individuals of different ages and of differing physical and other capacities. (pp. 317-18).

In consequence, in the second half of the twentieth century many researchers started to investigate the basic problems that societies face to make up the distinct dimensions of culture. As mentioned above, the six dimensions of Hofstede are the most widely recognized. The following dimensions have been first published by Hofstede in 1980 and have since been refined and extended (Hofstede, 2011). Each of the dimensions is expressed on a scale that runs from 0 to 100 and which, in some cases, represents extremes of a continuum.

Power Distance (PD)

“Power Distance has been defined as the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally.” (Hofstede, 2011) This definition suggests that followers equally accept the level of inequality in a society as the leaders do and that some societies are more unequal than others. Further differences with impact on businesses are:

Small Power Distance	Large Power Distance
Use of power should be legitimate and is subject to criteria of good and evil	Power is a basic fact of society antedating good or evil: its legitimacy is irrelevant
Older/more senior people are neither respected nor feared	Older/more senior people are both respected and feared
Hierarchy means inequality of roles, established for convenience	Hierarchy means existential inequality
Subordinates expect to be consulted	Subordinates expect to be told what to do
Income distribution in society rather even	Income distribution in society very uneven

Table 1: Summary of Differences Related to Cultural Values (Power Distance) That Have An Impact On Business.

Uncertainty Avoidance (UA)

Uncertainty Avoidance indicates the level of a society's tolerance for ambiguity and of how comfortable members of this culture feel in unstructured situations. Uncertainty avoiding cultures try to reduce the possibility of encountering novel, unknown and surprising situations by strict behavioral codes, laws and rules. Furthermore, they believe in an absolute Truth. (Hofstede, 2011) Further differences with impact on businesses are:

Weak Uncertainty Avoidance	Strong Uncertainty Avoidance
Ease, lower stress, self-control, low anxiety	Higher stress, emotionality, anxiety, neuroticism
Tolerance of deviant persons and ideas: what is different is curious	Intolerance of deviant persons and ideas: what is different is dangerous
Comfortable with ambiguity and chaos	Need for clarity and structure
Changing jobs is no problem	Staying in jobs even if disliked
Dislike of rules- written or unwritten	Emotional need for rules – even if not obeyed

Table 2: Summary of Differences Related to Cultural Values (Uncertainty Avoidance) That Have An Impact On Business.

Individualism – Collectivism (IND-COL)

Individualism and its counterpart, collectivism, are to be understood from a societal and not from an individual perspective. They show the degree of group integration of people in a society. Whereas individual cultures are characterized by loose ties between individuals who

only take care of themselves and their immediate family, collectivistic cultures exhibit strong, cohesive in-groups and often, extended families (Hofstede, 2011). Further differences with impact on businesses are:

Individualism	Collectivism
“I”-consciousness	“We”-consciousness
Speaking one’s mind is healthy	Harmony should always be maintained
Others classified as individuals	Others classified as group
Personal opinion expected: one person one vote	Opinions and votes predetermined by in-group
Task prevails over relationship	Relationship prevails over task

Table 3: Summary of Differences Related to Cultural Values (Individualism-Collectivism) That Have An Impact On Business.

Masculinity – Femininity (MAS-FEM)

Masculinity and Femininity in this context refer to societal and not individual characteristics. Masculine cultures are driven by competition, success and achievement, whereby the winner will define success. In feminine cultures, success is achieving a high quality of life and caring for others. People in masculine cultures want to be the best compared to people in feminine cultures who want to like what they are doing (Hofstede, 2011). Further differences with impact on businesses are:

Femininity	Masculinity
Men and women should be modest and caring	Men should be and women may be assertive and ambitious
Sympathy for the weak	Admiration for the strong
Competing is not so openly endorsed	Winning is important for both genders
Work in order to live	Live in order to work

Table 4: Summary of Differences Related to Cultural Values (Femininity-Masculinity) That Have An Impact On Business.

Short-Term Orientation - Long-Term Orientation (STO-LTO)

One question of societies is how to maintain links with the past while finding solutions for the challenges of the present and future. In a long-time-oriented culture, the notion that the world is in constant flux is prevalent and thus is preparation for the future. Countries with high scores in these dimensions are considered pragmatic and encourage innovative efforts and change in

order to prepare for the future. In short-time-oriented cultures, the world is as it was created and the past is honored. It provides a moral compass through traditions, norms and morals (Hofstede, 2011). Further differences with impact on businesses are:

Short-Term Orientation	Long-Term Orientation
Personal steadiness and stability: a good person is always the same	A good person adapts to the circumstances
There are universal guidelines about what is good and evil	What is good and evil depends upon the circumstances
Service to others is an important goal	Thrift and perseverance are important goals

Table 5: Summary of Differences Related to Cultural Values (Short Term-Long Term Orientation) That Have An Impact On Business.

Indulgence – Restraint (IND-RES)

This dimension defines the extent to which gratification of basic and natural desires as well as enjoying life and having fun are allowed. Cultures high on Restraint tend to control the satisfaction of needs and regulates it through strict moral and societal norms (Hofstede, 2011). Further differences with impact on businesses are:

Indulgence	Restraint
A perception of personal life control	A perception of helplessness: what happens to me is not my own doing
Freedom of speech seen as important	Freedom of speech is not a primary concern
More likely to remember positive emotions	Less likely to remember positive emotions

Table 6: Summary of Differences Related to Cultural Values (Indulgence-Restraint) That Have An Impact On Business.

Focus on Masculinity/Femininity

Research on culture and their effects on organizational outcomes is a relatively mature field, which has been investigated for over half a decade. Nevertheless, to construct a more complete understanding of the impacts of cultural values, Kirkman *et al.* (2006) urged future researchers to investigate the effects of individual cultural values across countries and on an individual and group/organizational level.

In their meta-analysis of 180 studies in business and psychology journals, consolidating 22 years of research on Hofstede’s cultural framework, Kirkman *et al.* (2006) found that only 12 of the 64 studies at the individual level included other cultural values than IND-COL (Lytle *et*

al., 1995; Kirkman and Shapiro, 1997). Undoubtedly, the relations explored with the IND-COL values showed significant effects (Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001). However, five studies (Earley, 1986; Clugston, 2000; Mitchell *et al.*, 2000; Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001; Harpaz *et al.*, 2002), that included additional values to IND-COL showed unique variances beyond IND-COL, suggesting that the evaluation of other dimensions would lead to important insights. Furthermore, they argued that other concepts, PD, UA and the MAS-FEM dimension, are clearly relevant at a group/organizational level and that future research should investigate these relations.

Dorfman and Howell (1988) found that the relationship between assertive leadership and both, employee's performance and satisfaction was moderated by cultural socialization (e.g. strong beliefs in the cultural values of a society). This view was later supported by Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000), who found in their analysis of 21 countries good relationships with management, had a positive influence on job satisfaction across all countries. The dimension most associated with assertiveness is MAS-FEM and will therefore be the focus of this paper.

The fourth of Hofstede's dimension, masculinity (MAS) – femininity (FEM), is defined as 'the extent to which the dominant values in society are "masculine" – that is, assertiveness, the acquisition of money and things, and not caring for others or the quality of life (Hofstede, 1980b, 46). Additionally, achievement, opportunities for career advancement and performance are desirable. Furthermore, Barbuto and Moss (2006) argue that the main driver of motivation in masculine cultures are extrinsic, contingent rewards, and that they are positively related to assertive influence tactics. Moreover, masculinity is associated with the importance to be involved in the decision-making process (Nordholm and Westbrook, 1982), which might indicate a desire for independent work. Good relationships with one's direct superior and colleagues appear to be of lesser importance (Nordholm and Westbrook, 1982).

In contrast, femininity refers to cultures low in masculinity. In this case, interaction-related facets of work are valued. It is seen as desirable to have good working relationship with your direct manager, to cooperate with colleagues, have strong team cohesion and resolving conflicts in a non-competitive manner (Nordholm and Westbrook, 1982).

Furthermore, this dimension describes the value distribution between genders. In one of his IBM studies, Hofstede found that whilst feminine values vary less than their masculine counterparts, men's values can differ significantly from one country to another. They may range from very competitive and assertive – and with that maximally different from feminine values

– to modest and caring. The men in feminine cultures have the same caring and modest values as women whereas women in masculine countries show assertiveness, but not as much as men. Furthermore, this dimension tends to be a taboo in masculine cultures (Hofstede *et al.*, 1998).

The Mediating and Moderating Effects of Masculinity/Femininity

As previously mentioned, there is strong indication that national cultural values have an impact on workplace attitudes, behaviors and other organizational outcomes. (Kluckhohn, 1961; Hall, 1976; Hofstede, 1980a; Trompenaars, 1993; Ronen and Shenkar, 1985; Schwartz, 1994).

At this point, it is important to mention that Hofstede (1980a, 2001) argued against applying his culture dimensions for other levels of analysis than country level studies. In their meta-analytic examination, Taras *et al.* (2010) found that the predictive power of cultural values decreased when moving from country ($q = .35$ for country), to group/organizational ($q = .21$ for group/organization) or even individual level ($q = .18$ for individual). This is probably due to the “reduction of measurement error at the aggregated level” (Taras *et al.*, 2010). Nevertheless, Kirkman *et al.* (2017) found in their meta-analysis that a majority of researchers have adapted the dimensions to organizational, group or even individual level. For the purpose of this paper, only the country and organizational level will be considered.

A number of researchers investigated the mediating role of culture on commitment. Wiener (1982) suggested in his model of antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment that the feelings of obligation towards the organization might derive from the internalization of normative pressures. Meyer and Allen (1991) support his proposition by postulating that cultural socialization is an antecedent to normative organizational commitment. Randall (1993) broadened this view by indicating that masculine values foster normative and continuance commitment whereas feminine cultural values increase affective commitment. Furthermore, Clugston (2000) found strong support for the assertion that culture, including uncertainty avoidance, collectivism and masculinity have a significant influence on affective, continuance and normative commitment on an organizational and supervisor level.

Cultural values seem to play an important role as moderators of relationships between job characteristics and affective organizational commitment. The reason for this is that cultural values supposedly affect how employees value different job characteristics, which consequently influence these characteristics’ effects on job satisfaction and commitment (Warr, 2007). Further studies highlight that living in a certain culture involves exposure to valued behaviors

and role relationships that might affect the importance attached to different job characteristics (Huang and van de Vliert, 2003; 2004); Erez, 1994).

Therefore, Warr (2007) argues that the relevance of job characteristics on job satisfaction, an antecedent of affective organizational commitment, are moderated by cultural values (Warr, 2007). Huaff *et al.*, (2015) later supported this view. With regard to masculinity, studies appear to confirm a positive relation between job satisfaction and assertiveness (Williamson *et al.*, 2005; Lounsbury *et al.*, 2007; Williamson *et al.*, 2013). In contrast, in a study of around 2.000 managers from over 15 Canadian and European subsidiaries of a US multinational, no moderating effects for MAS-FEM were found between organizational commitment predictors, including participative management) and actual commitment. (Palich *et al.*, 1995)

Therefore, the moderating effect on the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment of cultural values is to be tested and leads to the following hypotheses:

H0: Countries with a high value in masculinity show no difference in the relation between transformational leadership and affective org. commitment than countries with a high value in femininity

H1: Countries with a high value in masculinity show a weaker positive relation between transformational leadership and affective org. commitment than countries with a high value in femininity

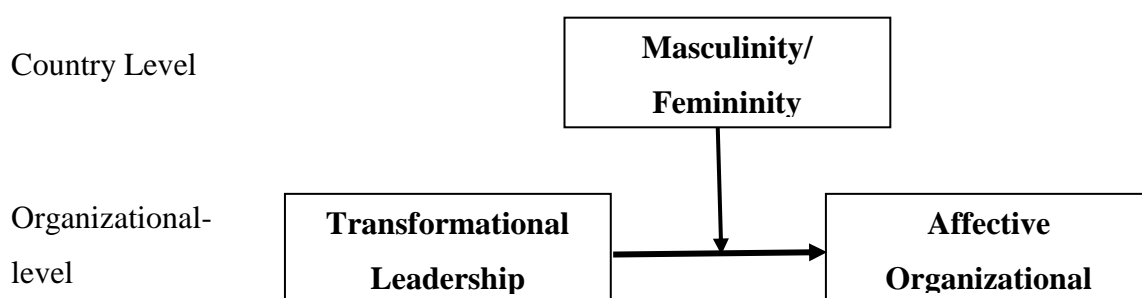


Figure 2: Cultural Value-as-a-moderator Model: National Culture's Influence in the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Affective Organizational Commitment

In conclusion, culture, as one of the defining forces that shapes the rules of interactions, has a considerable impact on how businesses are run. Hofstede's cultural dimensions allow the categorization of countries based on the manifestation of cultural values. One of these

dimensions, MAS-FEM, appears to be have a relation with desirable business outcomes, as the underlying values impact the perception of individuals regarding important drivers of affective organizational commitment, such as leadership. Therefore, the postulated hypotheses are to test the impact of cultural values on the relationship between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment in the following chapter.

Methodology

The following chapter outlines the strategy in planning the research process, selecting measures and data analysis.

Purpose of this study

Globalization, the fourth industrial revolution and talent scarcity increase the competition about market but also human resources. This leads to a renewed focus on organizational commitment and the question on how it can be managed in the light of multicultural business settings. The main objective of this research is to provide practical advice for business professionals as well as future direction for researchers on how to foster affective organizational commitment in multinational corporations.

Thus, this paper will provide a modern synthesis of the scholarly literature of affective organizational commitment and transformational leadership within the broader context of cross-cultural management. Furthermore, the study will analyze the moderating effects of cultural values on the relationship between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment.

Instrument

To test the hypotheses, which focus on the analysis of relating, existing constructs, the thesis bases its findings on quantitative data has (Edmondson and McManus, 2007). The field of transformational leadership and organizational commitment is, despite its fragmentation, a relatively mature field. This supports the decision for a quantitative approach, which was carried out in form of employee engagement surveys. Profound understanding of how to design and implement successful employee survey, was provided by the HR consultancy Firm Mercer Sirota. Their qualitative questionnaires are based on 321 norms (as measures are labeled in Mercer Sirota) which are selected based on the clients need. Therefore, the amount and content of the norms asked in the surveys vary widely. Besides the demographic variables, the majority of these norms is based on a 5-level Likert scale ranging from very unfavorable to very favorable and include a not applicable (n/a) option. Around 10% of the norms follow another scale and have therefore been excluded to ensure comparability.

Procedure

Data gathering

The consultancy firm Mercer Sirota provided the secondary data, with which the analysis will be performed. With over forty years of experience in the field of employee engagement surveys, Mercer Sirota established a solid database, combining employee engagement survey from over 331 companies in 51 industries. The data was collected in employee surveys between 2012 and 2016 and includes answers from over 4.762.175 respondents. This collection of data comprises over 3.600 projects which took place in 173 countries. The surveys are considered as one-time events. If there was another survey performed in the same company, it was counted as a separate project. Employees from all managerial levels and various functional occupations were respondents of the surveys.

Measures

To ensure that the results of the analysis were as valid and reliable as possible, validated scales were, whenever possible, the basis for the selection of most of the 21 norms. A detailed overview on which measures were used can be found in the annex.

For measuring affective organizational commitment, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mowday *et al.*, 1979) has been applied. The reason of the choice for this questionnaire is its substantial contribution and application in research on affective commitment over the past 50 years. In addition, no other questionnaire achieved a comparable level of validity or reliability (Hall *et al.*, 1970; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Buchanan, 1974; Kanter, 1977). Furthermore, it has been thoroughly tested in various contexts and has been found psychometrically valid and sound (Cook and Wall, 1980). Mowday *et al.* (1979) used the OQC with over 2,563 employees in various industries including university settings, hospitals, engineer and automobile companies as well as retail management trainees and psychiatric technicians. In their testing, evidence of convergent, predictive and discriminant validity has been found.

The questionnaire consists of 15 items that aim to measure the attitudes of employees about their organization. To control for response bias, the questions are phrased negatively and positively and measure variables of commitment such as pride in the organization, willingness

to invest extra effort into the organization and feelings of attachment (Mowday *et al.*, 1979). From these measures, nine were selected as the best match with the existing secondary data.

To measure transformational leadership, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), a standard instrument for assessing transformational and transactional leadership behavior (Bass and Avolio, 2000; Avolio and Bass, 2004) was used. The MLQ was chosen, because it is the most widely applied and studied questionnaire to measure transformational-transactional leadership. In their meta-analysis, Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996) found 22 published and 17 unpublished studies that used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Avolio, Bass, and Jung, 1995). In their analysis of the three transformational leadership dimensions, overall validities ranged from .71 for charisma to .60 for intellectual stimulation. Even though the validity decreased somewhat when applying organizational measures such as supervisory performance appraisals, the validities remained far from negligible and generalized across studies. These results were somewhat supported by Judge and Piccolo (2004), who found relatively high levels of validity (.44) as well, which were -despite being impressive- not nearly as strong as suggested by Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996).

Out of the 68 items of the MLQ, 24 were chosen for this study based on their linguistic match to the questions from the employee engagement surveys.

As previously mentioned, the cultural measure MAS-FEM derives from Hofstede (Hofstede, 1980). His country scores are based on an interval scale running from 0 to 100. Hofstede's work and measures represent the most accepted and widely spread set of data on cultural values, despite recent critique, which highlights that Hofstede's cultural indices might have lost some of their predictive validity over the years (Kirkman and Gibson, 2006; Taras *et al.*, (2012). For the purpose of this study, the predictive value of Hofstede is more than sufficient and therefore these concerns shall be considered part of the limitations of this particular analysis.

Selection of project

To identify the most relevant project for this paper, the aforementioned measures were compared to the norms used in the surveys. Project 2330 had the highest amount of fitting measures, four of which matched the OCQ and 17 items, which fit the MLQ measures. A more detailed overview of these measures can be found in the annex.

Sample

Project 2330 was performed in an US based, large company from the Life-Sciences industry in 2013. The response rate of 84% resulted in 4807 answers. After eliminating data sets with missing answers, 3231 respondents remained. As more than 78% of the employees were from the USA, a random sample of 201 answers was drawn from this sub-set to balance the sample. After this initial data cleansing, a total of 915 respondents remained. A more detailed overview of the demographic variables can be seen in the annex. In addition to the employees from the USA, 20 more countries were represented in the survey, of which 119 are feminine and 796 masculine cultures.

Data Preparation and Analysis

Before testing the hypotheses, the relationship between the measures of affective organizational commitment and the transformational leadership dimensions needs to be discussed. When exploring the factorial validity of the MLQ-5X, especially the latent inter-correlations of the nine scales are investigated. As previously mentioned, it has been found that five of the transformational factors are highly inter-correlated with an internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of .96. Therefore, after controlling for an approximately similar distribution of the measures, all transformational leadership items were combined to a composite scale of transformational leadership, following the example of previous researchers (Barling *et al.*, 2002; Bono and Judge, 2003; Purvanova *et al.*, 2006; Shin and Zhou, 2003). Similarly, the items of the OCQ are considered reasonably homogeneous and allow the formation of a higher level affective commitment factor (Mowday *et al.*, 1979).

From the various approaches on how to model the relationship in question, binary classification in conjunction with a linear regression model appeared to be the most straightforward solution. To test the earlier mentioned H1, the data were partitioned into masculine and feminine groups, respectively, applying a boundary at a cultural value of 50. This is in agreement with protocols described in the literature Hofstede (1980a). In the aforementioned work, the authors consider cultures with a score of 50 and above as masculine, whereas cultures below 49 are considered feminine. Both sub samples were tested with SPSS, using a linear regression function to analyze the R^2 . To test if a more fine-grained regression analysis would explain the relationship more accurately, the sample was also separated into quartiles and the same analysis has been performed. This more complex model, however, did not lead to a better description of the data.

The binary split proved therefore to perform equally well in terms of explained variance while offering the advantage of reduced complexity.

The results of these analyses can be found in the chapter below and will be discussed in the further course of this paper.

Results and Discussion

This paper is investigating the moderating effects of the cultural dimension Masculinity-Femininity on the relationship of transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment. For this, the existing literature of this relatively mature field has been analyzed with special focus on organizational commitment, transformational leadership and culture. Especially the literature to organizational commitment is rather fragmented. It was therefore necessary to extract the essence of commitment, which appeared to be the definition of Meyer and Allen (1991), who describe affective commitment as the emotional attachment to, involvement and identification with one's company. Compared to the lack of conceptualization in the commitment literature, research on leadership is quite structured, especially when investigating transformational leadership. Transformational leaders are characterized as

intellectually stimulating, considerate of individuals, inspiring and exerting an idealized influence on their followers. Their influence over their followers results from role modeling and value internalization, which leads the followers to assume the leader's value as their own. This effect is intensified if the employees and leaders value are similar. To gain insight into the values of employees, the literature on culture has been synthesized.

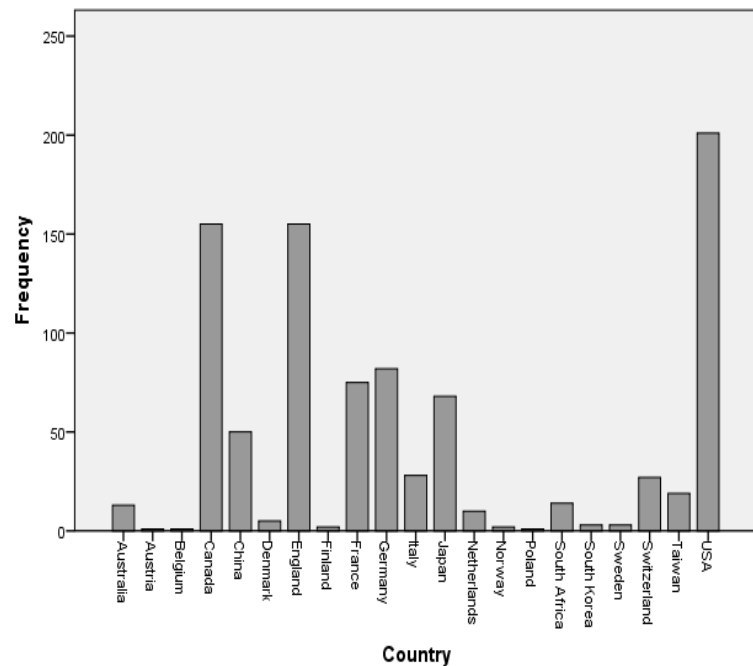


Figure 3: Participants' Country of Origin

Besides the COL-IND dimension, which has already been intensively investigated, the MAS-FEM dimension appeared to be the most promising regarding its impact on perceptions about

work. Therefore, the question was derived, whether the relationship of transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment is moderated by the cultural values associated with masculine and feminine societies, which will be investigated in this chapter. For this, a project with 4807 respondents was selected from a secondary database, provided by Mercer Sirota, based on employee engagement surveys performed between 2012 and 2016. After cleansing the data and balancing the sample, 915 employees from 21 countries, of which

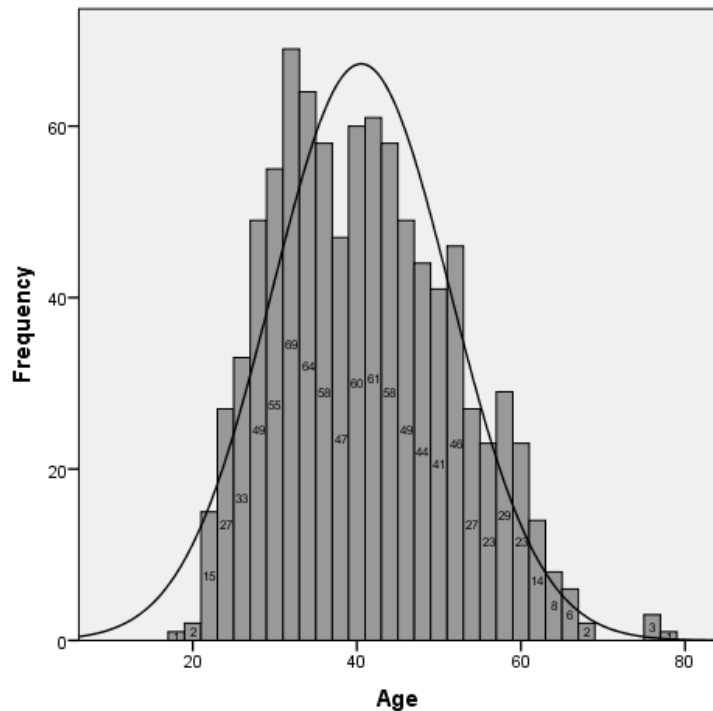


Figure 4: Age Distribution of Participants

8 are feminine and 13 are masculine, remained. The distribution of countries can be seen in figure 3.

Job function		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Customer Service	77	8,4
	Finance and Accounting	28	3,1
	HR	17	1,9
	IT	20	2,2
	Legal	9	1,0
	Maintenance	10	1,1
	Manufacturing	75	8,2
	Marketing	47	5,1
	Sales	194	21,2
	Research and Development	60	6,6
	Logistics	30	3,3
	Quality Control	11	1,2
	Operations	325	35,5
	Administration / Management	12	1,3
	Total	915	100,0

Figure 5: Job Functions of the Participants

In total, 541 females and 374 males participated in the study, between the age of 18 and 78, with a mean age of 40.52. The age distribution of the sample can be seen in figure 4. The respondents were working in various job functions ranging from customer service, sales and quality control to operations (figure 5). Approximately 22% of the respondents held a middle management position. The

most recent employee joined the company 16 days before the performance of the survey; The maximum tenure was

approximately 29 years. On average, the answering employees had been working for the company around 8 years. A more detailed overview about the aforementioned demographic variables can be found in the annex. This dataset was subsequently split in two sub-sets according to their MAS-FEM value. The results of the linear regression analysis, which shows the strength of the relationship of transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment, of the sub-sets MAS and FEM are depicted in table 7 and 8. For both sub-sets, R² was used to predict the goodness of fit of the postulated model. Age, Gender and tenure of the employees were used as control variables. To test the relationship between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment, all measures from the MLQ-5X were combined into the factor Transformational Leadership, whilst all measures chosen based on the OCQ were combined to the factor Affective Org. Commitment.

In feminine countries, the control variables only account for around 11.5% of the variance, which is still significant when assuming a 5% significance level. Including transformational leadership, the explanatory value of the model increases by 69.5% to 81.1%.

Model Summary- FEMININE COUNTRIES

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
						F Change	df1	df2	
1	,340 ^a	,115	,092	1,02885	,115	5,006	3	115	,003
2	,900 ^b	,811	,804	,47816	,695	418,436	1	114	,000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Age, Transformational Leadership

Table 7: Model Summary of Feminine Countries

For masculine countries, the control variables account for 4.7% of the variance, whereas the model including transformational leadership has an explanatory value of 71.6%.

Model Summary- MASCULINE COUNTRIES

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
						F Change	df1	df2	
1	,218 ^a	,047	,044	,79496	,047	15,074	3	910	,000
2	,846 ^b	,716	,715	,43397	,669	2144,604	1	909	,000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Tenure, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Tenure, Age, Transformational Leadership

Table 8: Model Summary of Masculine Countries

This test shows that the chosen model only has small explanatory power, yet still produces a slightly moderating effect on the relationship between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment and therefore H0 can be rejected. There appears to be a slightly stronger relationship in feminine countries than in masculine. However, even though the relationship between transformational leadership and affective org. commitment is strong in all countries tested, it can be assumed, that the reasons for this phenomenon differ between feminine and masculine societies.

The foundation for these differences have already been laid through the process of socialization. Children and adults undergo this process several times in their lives, however, with regards to this study, three main stages appear to have the most relevance:

Primary socialization describes the process of learning during early childhood through experiences and interactions which attitudes, behaviors and values are appropriate and expected from a member of a culture as well as how to create relationships and to understand the underlying concepts of trust and togetherness. Through secondary socialization, children learn how to differentiate between their behavior at home and in public and to adapt to different circumstances in smaller groups within the larger society.

Anticipatory socialization refers to the process of “practicing” behaviors which will be needed in the future. Previous research has shown that this form of socialization, with special regards to careers and jobs, is impacted most by the parents who transmit perceptions about general requirements of a job, positive and negative aspects of work as well as advice or information about workplaces.

These influences shape our perception of the world that surrounds us, as we compare all new experiences with our established value system that has been built throughout our childhood. Therefore, cultural values affect how we perceive and value certain job characteristics and behaviors, the importance we attach to them and role expectations towards colleagues and supervisors. With regard to the question at hand, why feminine cultures value transformational leadership more than masculine cultures, role expectations and desired as well as undesired behaviors of leaders need to be analyzed:

In feminine cultures like Sweden, Denmark and Finland, one of the roles of a manager is to be supportive and caring towards their team. Transformational leadership appears to address this role expectation through the individual consideration of their followers’ needs. This in turn

leads to the satisfaction of the follower as well as to a positive relationship between the leader and his or her individual team member. However, it is important to mention, that whilst masculine cultures do not value care as highly as feminine cultures, a caring leader still has a positive influence on the affective org. commitment of their followers from masculine societies. The reason for this might be found in the previously mentioned augmentation effect, which assumes that if transactional motivators like rewards, for example, have already been established, it is possible that transformational leadership behaviors as for example care augment the positive impact on the team.

Furthermore, it can be assumed that the idealized influence towards a positive team culture demonstrated by the transformational leader encourages team members to contribute constructively to the team climate themselves. It is likely that this process is triggered by role modeling but also by value internalization. As feminine cultures value good relationships with superiors and colleagues, the value systems are quite similar, and it is easier for the follower to assume the leader's values as their own. The resulting heightened team cohesion might facilitate the development of affective organizational commitment of the individual team member. Masculine cultures are considered more ego-oriented. Employees value good working relations with their co-workers and leader, but in contrast to feminine cultures, consider it more as an additional motivator than a hygiene factor. Again, it can be assumed that the effects of transformational leadership augment the effects of transactional leadership and motivate the team members to go "beyond what is expected".

In transformational leadership, decision-making is often achieved through the involvement of the employees, which in turn fosters affective organizational commitment. It appears that this behavior might moderate the relationship of transformational leadership and commitment in both, masculine and feminine cultures, but for different reasons. To better understand the strong signal effect of decision-making and why it is important who takes the decision, one has to investigate the meaning that is commonly associated with taking a decision within a group. In feminine cultures, involvement in decision-making might be more appreciated, as equality is considered desirable. Decisions are often reached via consensus, whereby discussions between followers and leaders are expected to be held on eye-level. This group decision-making process may lead to higher group cohesion and greater collective understanding and acceptance of the chosen course of action. This results from the fact that each individual had the chance to shape the solution and might develop a sense of ownership for the decision. Furthermore, involving

the team in a decision might suggest the leaders admittance to “not knowing it all” and needing the help of a team, which might be perceived as weakness in masculine societies. Unlike masculine societies, feminine societies discourage heroism and alpha-male leadership as standing out from the crowd is not desirable. In Sweden for example, everything is ‘lagom’, which means along the lines of not too much, not too little, not too noticeable, everything in moderation.

In masculine societies on the other hand, leaders are on one hand expected to be decisive and assertive, but on the other hand, they are expected to involve their employees in important decisions. The reason for this could be, that taking a decision might be mostly associated with power and accountability. The association of power derives from the fact that the person entitled to take the decision usually does so through either legitimation, or by having more information or expertise than the rest of the group. These bases for power allow the decision maker to set a course of action and which might lead to an increase in their intra-group ranking. Accountability is another principal factor, as it allows the attribution of the result in case of success to a single person. As previously mentioned, ambition and competition are main driver of motivation in masculine societies. Therefore, taking credit for success might satisfy the ambitious and competitive drive of the masculine individual. In this case, involvement might therefore not refer to being consulted or having the opportunity to contribute to the decision, but to receive the power to decide by delegation from the leader. The increase of the employee’s decision latitude has a positive impact on the employee’s self-efficacy and empowerment. Therefore, it might enhance the employee’s affective organizational commitment.

Success and winning are important motivators in masculine cultures such as Germany. In any case, in order to define what success looks like and to select a “winner”, there has to be a precise assessment and target system in place. These systems are usually more predominant in transactional environments, as transactional leaders base the distribution of extrinsic, contingent rewards on the performance of the employee. Therefore, it can be assumed that employees from masculine cultures will still be more motivated when being led by a both transformational and transactional leader, but not to the same extent as their feminine counterparts. However, the United States and United Kingdom show an interesting variation to the masculine drive to succeed and win. In both countries, being successful “per se” is not sufficient. US Americans and British citizens need to show their success. The difference between both countries lies in the detail that US Americans tend to talk freely about their

achievements, whereas the British will surprise you. This variation can be explained by taking other culture dimension scores, like Uncertainty Avoidance, into consideration and it constitutes one of the biggest limitations of this study. As the underlying data for this study was secondary, it did not allow for differentiation according to the dimensions of culture. Therefore, it was not possible to separate the effects of power distance, individualism and uncertainty avoidance, which are most probably also responsible for a share of the variance shown.

An additional reason for the strong relation of transformational leadership on affective commitment in feminine societies is that liking what you do and understanding the meaning of your job is of utmost importance. This desire is usually better met by the inspiring motivation and intellectual stimulation of the transformational leader.

To sum it up, it can be said that even though the explanatory power of the model is mediocre, it can be assumed that the high R^2 scores result from different reasons in masculine and feminine societies. Transformational leaders appear to exhibit behaviors that are highly valued in feminine society, for example caring for one's employees, showing the meaning in work and interacting with their employees on eye-level. In masculine societies, the strong relation between transformational leadership and culture is most probably the result of the augmentation effect, which builds onto the foundation of transactional leadership behaviors.

Limitations

There are certain factors that limit the explanatory value of the model tested. The following chapter will list and discuss these limitations along with the precautions that have been taken to mitigate their impact.

In terms of affective commitment, an important limitation of the study results from the inability to depict the complex influence of demographic and situational variables such as personality characteristics, age, gender, and tenure in the organization on the probability of forming an affective relationship with one's company. Furthermore, an individual's political orientation, historical background and other anthropological factors cannot be sufficiently depicted with the analyzed data which results in an etic versus emic dilemma. Nevertheless, through the inclusion of tenure, age and gender as control variables into the model, the effects of the described problem have been somewhat reduced.

However, the most grievous limitations of this study result undoubtedly from the inclusion of culture as a moderator. Similar precautions as for affective commitment have to be considered when considering the explanatory value of culture and applying cultural measures on individuals and organizations. Previous studies have shown that not all individuals within a culture necessarily share the same personal cultural values. Hofstede's cultural dimensions show an average distribution in the population, which does not exclude some individuals to be much more or less Masculine or Feminine than their compatriots. Therefore, the share of unexplained variances resulting from the negligence of personal values and dispositions is not insignificant. Due to the nature of the data, it was unfortunately not possible to test for the individuals' cultural orientation, therefore, the simplified assumption that the individuals hold their countries cultural values had to be accepted. This simplification gravely limits the explanatory power of this study and cannot be overstated.

Another limitation of this study results from the application of Hofstede's cultural dimensions, which have been criticized for being too simplistic by reducing a complex value system to a concept with five dimensions. Furthermore, Hofstede's work ignores the malleability of culture over time, which might have resulted in a loss of predictive validity. Another critique which has already been mentioned as a limitation of this study is the fact that Hofstede's dimension neglect intra-country heterogeneity.

One limitation is a result of the phenomenon that certain cultural values sometimes affect culturally similar countries in different ways. One possible, yet theoretical explanation is the tightness versus looseness of culture. This concept refers to the strength of social norms, level of socialization and the extent of sanctioning in a particular country. (Gelfand *et al.*, 2006). According to Taras *et al.* (2010), the narrower socialization in tighter countries enforces the relationships between cultural values and outcomes, as people feel more social pressure to act consistently aligned to values. In contrast, looser countries allow more freedom for individual behavior and therefore allow people to deviate from value-driven behavior. Despite being aware of these variances, focusing on these potentially moderating effects of country differences would have gone beyond the scope of this study.

As previously mentioned, one limitation of this study might be the fact that, due to the nature of the analyzed data, a clear differentiation between the cultural dimensions was not possible. Hence, the potentially complex interplay between cultural values cannot be completely

discarded and it has to be assumed that they are most probably responsible for a share of the discovered variance.

To summarize, it is important to highlight that this study was faced with some severe limitations, especially resulting from the nature of the data which did not allow for a more detailed and separated analysis of the cultural values that were investigated in this paper.

Future Research Direction

There has been progress in the synthesizing of the affective organizational commitment literature. One recommendation would nevertheless be that future researchers create or chose a more widely accepted conceptualization of what constitutes affective commitment, so that this concept can also be tested more thoroughly. Furthermore, this study should be replicated with primary data, specifically collected for this purpose. This would allow for a more detailed analysis of individuals' value system which includes personal dispositions and its moderating effects on the tested relationship. Moreover, it is recommended that future researchers investigate the relationships between Hofstede's cultural dimensions, as these relationships potentially hold great explanatory power. Furthermore, a more granular analysis would potentially bear interesting insights. For example, it would be interesting to assess which value expectations in masculine and feminine societies (e.g. assertiveness, competition, care, cohesion) influence the relationship between affective commitment and transformational leadership.

Practical Implications

As indicated in the beginning, more and more companies seek to increase their employees' affective organizational commitment, as it not only decreases turn-over but also correlates with desirable business outcomes like engagement and OCB. Based on the results and the discussion shown above, the foundation was laid for companies and managers to better understand the relationship between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment from a follower's perspective in a cross-cultural context, which opens many pathways to foster a favorable environment and choose appropriate behavior.

HR Practices – Recruitment and Selection

It does not come as a surprise that one of the main leverages for organizational commitment results from rigorous selection and recruiting processes. Besides their demographic and personal variables, every applicant's perception and choice of behavior is shaped through primary, secondary and anticipatory socialization. Therefore, it is recommendable for recruiters to scan for values and behaviors that fit the desired company and leadership culture. In competitive environments such as consulting or sales, a candidate holding more masculine values might be a better fit than a candidate with more feminine values. This will not only facilitate a quicker and smoother value internalization process in terms of company and leader culture, but also foster affective commitment towards the organization. A great example for this practice is Ikea, with its intense culture fit assessment during recruitment and which even provides a culture fit test on their website ("Fit Quiz - IKEA,").

However, it is important not to forget that (value) diversity is extremely important and a driver of innovation within the company. Scanning for cultural fit should in no way lead to a completely homogenous workforce, as this could potentially harm the organization immensely.

HR Practices – Onboarding and Socialization

The process of secondary socialization, as previously mentioned, refers to the adaptation of the value system to a smaller group within the context of a broader society. This socialization process, which is usually achieved through onboarding programs or which happens naturally during the first months in an organization, is crucial to familiarize a new hire with the organizational values and build the foundation for affective commitment. Structured

onboarding practices that focus on transmission of organizational values, reduction of anxiety and job role clarification in combination with role modeling, are powerful instruments for fostering affective organizational commitment (O'Reilly and Caldwell, 1981). This is even more important in countries, where the cultural value system diverts from the desired company culture, as it helps a new hire to adapt to the unfamiliar environment. This also holds true if an employee changes their position within the company to another department or into a leadership position. Therefore, it is recommended for companies to review their onboarding processes, especially in the light of cultural differences and build structured programs that help newly hires adapt to the prevalent organizational and leadership culture. Zappos is a best practice example for culture-focused onboarding. All new hires, regardless of their position, experience the same four-week onboarding program which is based on ten core values that are consistent across the company. After one month, every employee receives "the offer" of \$2.000 if the employee decides to quit when they do not feel they are a good cultural fit ("Zappos Onboarding Fact Sheet,").

However, these tools also have to be accepted and supported by the hiring managers. Many managers, unfortunately, consider onboarding as an unnecessary time investment and as a process which needs to be sped up, so the employee can perform as quickly as possible. Therefore, it is advisable for companies to build the awareness within the leadership circles on the importance of proper onboarding training, which builds self-esteem, self-efficacy and as a result commitment of the newly hire. (Vance, 2006).

To accommodate the desire of involvement in decision making from the already existing team members, it is also possible to include the team into the decision whether a new hire is suitable for the team. An example for this practice is Whole Foods, who -after the new employee's 90th day- lets the rest of the team, whether he or she should stay. A two-thirds majority is needed in order for the new employee to stay in the company (Bhattarai, 2012). This practice does not only increase team cohesion through a "sense of shared fate", but also encourages the new hires to invest time in building relationships with other team members as well as to perform quickly.

Training for Employees and Leaders

A key variable for building an environment in which affective commitment can flourish is providing development opportunities, such as training for employees and leaders. In this context, two foci, which can be included in existing training programs, are suggested:

Firstly, as previously mentioned, being culturally sensitive can pay off for managers and companies, as it leads to a higher return on assets and sales (Robert *et al.*, 2000). Therefore, providing intercultural training for both, employees and leaders can add value for organizations. A positive example for this practice is IBM, for instance, who educates their employees through an online learning program on task versus relationship orientation, direct versus indirect communication styles and differences in decision-making styles and processes. Coca Cola provides intercultural training for their employees and their families prior to short-term assignments abroad. (McMahon, 2012) Last but not least, L'Oréal, is another positive model, which provides a methodical approach through common language that is based on company-wide principles and expectations, for employees to express disagreement in various cultural contexts (Frické, 2017).

In addition to its primary purpose of increasing intercultural sensitivity, intercultural trainings might provide the positive side effect of initiating a process of self-reflection in the employee regarding assumptions, values and paradigms, which might lead to a re-evaluation of expectations towards one's leader.

Secondly, leadership training should be designed and provided to support leaders to adapt more transformational leadership behaviors. A splendid example for this practice is the Lufthansa Group, which provides a training based on self-reflection, feedback and change of perspective modules for their leadership circles.

Practical Advice for Team Leaders

Besides making use of the trainings and development opportunities offered by the company, it is in every leader's own responsibility to be aware of their patterns of thought which influence their behavior towards their employees. Just like the followers, leaders are products of conscious and sub-conscious processing of the world which are both rooted in their personality, basic assumptions and experiences. These inner processes make leaders see the world through "filters" that influence what they perceive as reality. Cultural values and assumptions are powerful filters through which individuals perceive a simplified model of the reality and which lead to biases and heuristics that shape behavior. Individuals can train themselves to become more sensitive regarding these mental shortcuts and paradigms but adapting behavior and assumption does not happen overnight. Firstly, it is important to identify the most impactful biases. This can be achieved through learning more about the distinct types of biases, paying

more attention to their emotional reaction to certain interactions or people, to identify situations in which one was influenced by their bias and how these biases reflected in their behavior towards your employee. It is important to highlight that stereotypes can be of positive and negative nature; Therefore, it is recommended to pay attention to both types as they impact the relationship a leader builds with his or her employees.

Secondly, after identifying the biases, leaders should aim to alter their patterns of thought by actively reconsidering negative emotions and thoughts when they occur and actively looking out for cues that contradict our assumptions. One powerful technique to adapt one's thinking pattern is cognitive reframing, a technique derived from cognitive therapy in which irrational and maladaptive thoughts are identified and disputed with more positive or negative alternatives (Beck, 1997) Furthermore, the team leader should practice individuation, giving a "face" or a personality to each member of the group rather than considering them as a part of the group (Butler, n.d.). Moreover, focusing on concrete factors and facts rather than intuition can help to keep unwanted behaviors from reoccurring. Finally, perspective taking and empathy play an important role in reducing bias and should be practiced by team leaders on a constant basis. ("Community Relations Services Toolkit for Policing: Understanding Bias: A Resource Guide Bias Policing Overview and Resource Guide," n.d.)

These efforts to become more empathetic towards one's employees will result in more authentic (transformational) leadership and will facilitate the development of affective organizational commitment of the employee.

To conclude, organizational and individual measures can facilitate an employee's (organizational) cultural fit as well as consistent, human-centric leadership practices which will foster an environment where affective organizational commitment can flourish.

Conclusion

After having summarized the existing literature on affective organizational commitment, transformational leadership and culture, the relationship between affective commitment and transformational leadership was tested on two cultural conditions. Although it was possible to reject H0, the model only has low explanatory power and therefore needs further investigation.

This study contributes to the existing research in three ways:

Firstly, unlike most research on leadership, which focuses on the personality and behaviors of the leaders themselves, this study seeks to investigate the followers' perception of these behaviors and the resulting effects, namely affective commitment. This paper therefore adds one more piece into the scarce existing literature on follower-based leadership theory.

Secondly, this paper provides a state of the art synthesis of the existing literature on organizational commitment and transformational leadership, with emphasis on the most relevant concepts, definitions and instruments.

Thirdly, the analyzed data show that the tested model, which postulates that the relationship between affective organizational commitment and transformational leadership is stronger or weaker, depending on the culture of the follower, has only limited explanatory power. It can be assumed though, that especially in the case of Masculinity and Femininity, the relationship is moderated by divergent value expectations in masculine and feminine societies.

In conclusion, it can therefore be said that despite not revealing the expected explanatory magnitude, this study contributed another valuable piece of information to the existing literature on commitment, leadership and culture.

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Measures

Measures of Organizational Commitment

On the left-hand side, the respective measure from the validated scales (where applicable) are shown with their respective numeration in the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. On the right, the respective measure of the Mercer Sirota questionnaire, used in the data analysis, is depicted.

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire		Measure Mercer	
	n/a	norm001	Considering everything, how would you rate your overall satisfaction at the Company at the present time?
6	(6) I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization	norm004	I am proud to work for this Company.
1	(1) I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful	norm415	I am motivated to go beyond what is normally expected to help my Company be successful.
	n/a	norm434	I feel valued as an employee at my Company.

Measures of Transformational Leadership

On the left-hand side, the respective measure from the validated scales (where applicable) are shown with their respective numeration in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. On the right, the respective measure of the Mercer Sirota questionnaire, used in the data analysis, is depicted.

	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire		Measure Mercer
IC 15	I spend time teaching and coaching.	norm405	My [immediate manager] acts as a coach and mentor in helping me improve my performance.
IC 29	I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others,...		
IC 19	I treat others as individuals rather than just a member of a group	norm379	My [immediate manager] is flexible when I have a personal or family situation that I have to take care of.
IC 23	I help others to develop their strengths	norm406	My [immediate manager] supports my professional development.

IC 31	I help others to develop their strengths	norm410	I have the opportunity to continually learn and grow.
II 23	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	norm457	I am confident that if I report an inappropriate business practice or an ethical issue something will be done about it.
II 6	I talk about my most important values and beliefs (21) I act in ways that build others' respect for me	norm376	At my Company, senior leadership's actions are consistent with what they say (they "walk the talk").
II	n/a	norm402	My [immediate manager] trusts me.
IM 26	I articulate a compelling vision for the future)	norm302	My work gives me a feeling of personal accomplishment.
IM 26	I articulate a compelling vision for the future)	norm338	I clearly understand how my own job contributes to achieving the goals of my Company.
IM 36	I express confidence that goals will be achieved // (13) I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	norm124	My Company has effective senior leadership (i.e., senior leadership who knows what it wants to do, inspires confidence).
IS	n/a	norm197	We seek continuous improvement in the way we do our work.
IS 8	I seek differing perspectives when solving problems	norm026	Management makes an effort to get input, ideas, and opinions from employees.
IS 8	I seek differing perspectives when solving problems	norm020	I am encouraged to be innovative in my job (trying new ways of doing things).
IS	n/a	norm403	My [immediate manager] encourages employees to suggest ideas for improvement.
IS	n/a	norm426	In my work group, my opinion seem to count.
IS 31	I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	norm017	I have the freedom to use my judgment in getting my job done.
IS	n/a	norm416	I feel free to take informed risks in getting my work done.

Descriptive Statistics

Distribution of Gender of Participants

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	female	541	59,1	59,1	59,1
	male	374	40,9	40,9	100,0
	Total	915	100,0	100,0	

Distribution of Age of Participants

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18	1	,1	,1	,1
	20	2	,2	,2	,3
	21	4	,4	,4	,8
	22	11	1,2	1,2	2,0
	23	9	1,0	1,0	3,0
	24	18	2,0	2,0	4,9
	25	19	2,1	2,1	7,0
	26	14	1,5	1,5	8,5
	27	22	2,4	2,4	10,9
	28	27	3,0	3,0	13,9
	29	27	3,0	3,0	16,8
	30	28	3,1	3,1	19,9
	31	39	4,3	4,3	24,2
	32	30	3,3	3,3	27,4
	33	32	3,5	3,5	30,9
	34	32	3,5	3,5	34,4
	35	30	3,3	3,3	37,7
	36	28	3,1	3,1	40,8
	37	16	1,7	1,7	42,5
	38	31	3,4	3,4	45,9
	39	28	3,1	3,1	49,0
40	32	3,5	3,5	52,5	
41	33	3,6	3,6	56,1	
42	28	3,1	3,1	59,1	

43	31	3,4	3,4	62,5
44	27	3,0	3,0	65,5
45	28	3,1	3,1	68,5
46	21	2,3	2,3	70,8
47	17	1,9	1,9	72,7
48	27	3,0	3,0	75,6
49	21	2,3	2,3	77,9
50	20	2,2	2,2	80,1
51	26	2,8	2,8	83,0
52	20	2,2	2,2	85,1
53	8	,9	,9	86,0
54	19	2,1	2,1	88,1
55	11	1,2	1,2	89,3
56	12	1,3	1,3	90,6
57	15	1,6	1,6	92,2
58	14	1,5	1,5	93,8
59	11	1,2	1,2	95,0
60	12	1,3	1,3	96,3
61	4	,4	,4	96,7
62	10	1,1	1,1	97,8
63	7	,8	,8	98,6
64	1	,1	,1	98,7
65	4	,4	,4	99,1
66	2	,2	,2	99,3
67	2	,2	,2	99,6
76	3	,3	,3	99,9
78	1	,1	,1	100,0
Total	915	100,0	100,0	

Distribution of Job Functions of Participants

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Customer Service	77	8,4	8,4	8,4
	Finance & Accounting	28	3,1	3,1	11,5
	HR	17	1,9	1,9	13,3
	IT	20	2,2	2,2	15,5
	Legal	9	1,0	1,0	16,5
	Maintenance	10	1,1	1,1	17,6
	Manufacturing	75	8,2	8,2	25,8
	Marketing	47	5,1	5,1	30,9
	Sales	194	21,2	21,2	52,1
	Research & Development	60	6,6	6,6	58,7
	Logistics	30	3,3	3,3	62,0
	Quality Control	11	1,2	1,2	63,2
	Operations	325	35,5	35,5	98,7
	Administration / Management	12	1,3	1,3	100,0
	Total	915	100,0	100,0	

Distribution of Management Level of Participants

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Non-Manager	712	77,8	77,8	77,8
	Manager	203	22,2	22,2	100,0
	Total	915	100,0	100,0	

Country of Origin of Participants and Masculinity-Femininity Score of the Countries

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Masculinity-Femininity Score
Valid	Australia	13	1,4	1,4	61
	Austria	1	,1	,1	79
	Belgium	1	,1	,1	54
	Canada	155	16,9	16,9	52
	China	50	5,5	5,5	66
	Denmark	5	,5	,5	16
	England	155	16,9	16,9	66
	Finland	2	,2	,2	26
	France	75	8,2	8,2	43
	Germany	82	9,0	9,0	66
	Italy	28	3,1	3,1	70
	Japan	68	7,4	7,4	95
	Netherlands	10	1,1	1,1	14
	Norway	2	,2	,2	8
	Poland	1	,1	,1	64
	South Africa	14	1,5	1,5	63
	South Korea	3	,3	,3	39
	Sweden	3	,3	,3	5
	Switzerland	27	3,0	3,0	70

Taiwan	19	2,1	2,1	45
USA	201	22,0	22,0	62
Total	915	100,0	100,0	